Assessing the extent of informal markets integration into spatial planning frameworks: A case study of KwaMashu, eThekwini Municipality.

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I would like to give thanks and praise to YAH (God) for His ever new mercies, grace and strength He has bestowed to me during this phase of my life. I give thanks to YAH for my late Father Khonzuyise E. Ntaka and my dearest mother, Nonyameko S. Ntaka who has always been on my side in good and in bad times, encouraging me and pushing me forward and never back. I give much appreciation to my sisters, Nombuso B. Ntaka, Mendowenkosi S. Ntaka and Nokwanda N Ntaka, for the support and faith they always had in me, it kept me moving and wanting not to disappoint. Also, I thank my whole family and friends who have never doubted me and encouraged my studies.
I, ________ Minenhle Ntaka ________, declare that

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ABSTRACT

Spatial inequality is the net result of urban imbalances in relation to the equal and sufficient distribution of resources. The urban environment is a mechanism in its own right and its functionality is determined by various forces of concentration, integration, scattering, poverty and segregation. The distribution of space is affected by various elements such as health, politics, education, economic significance and income levels. The latter being one of every community’s essential needs. Systematic evidence of the extent of economic difficulties in developing countries shows that this issue affects Black communities the most. This has an impact on the creation of job opportunities, which in turn leads to an increase in unemployment rates thus the increase of informality within urban areas. Therefore, people in need of income enter the informal economy as means of survival.

Understanding the developmental role of spatial planning frameworks towards urban construction is vital due to the level of influential affect it has on urban spatial distribution. The functionality of the urban space is guided by the urban planning informed by spatial planning frameworks. The level of equality and inclusiveness distribution of urban socioeconomic spaces is determined by the levels of productivity in every sector. Identifying the levels of productivity in the informal economy reveals the extent to which the informal economy is integrated into spatial planning frameworks thus influencing urban spatial distribution and sector productivity. The urban space is not only constructed by policy and systems but the most significant constituent of the city is the role played by major role players (state/government), stakeholders and beneficiaries.

There is a growing body of documented work that reveals the existence of informal markets in many forms in various areas. It supports the view that the urban form does not appreciate informality thus it aims to reduce if not eradicate it. A sufficient strategic way to reduce informality is to spatially limit it. With the rapid recognition of the informal market in recent years, there has been a certain degree of informality acceptance within urban spaces, but there are still important unresolved barriers issues. Authorities mention various challenges informal trader and government have in practice linked to the productivity rate of existing spatial planning Frameworks and the urban spatial structure. There are also challenges faced by the society and its powers when attempting to integrate informal markets into spatial planning frameworks.

The study incorporates the use of a Mixed methods due to that the approach entail systematic processes of data collection that influenced the nature of result obtained, it also consist of strategies that analysis and constructs the presentation the data. The approach extracts information on the topic where interrelated ideas and realities are identified using
numbers and documented data. The approach formulates a clear view on how spatial planning frameworks have affected the informal economy. The approach allowed for the use of secondary data method and primary data method. Secondary Data that has been processed and analysed informed the study by constructing a basic theoretical framework and the ability of the government to facilitate a sustainable urban planning policy that is inclusive, promotes equality and spatial justice. Primary data consist of raw information obtained through mapping, survey questions and observation which derived the study to critically analyse existing environments spatial advantage’s, disadvantages, potential, operational model and level of functionality.

Findings obtained through the critical purpose, sampling on successive occasions approach and thematic data analysis informed study findings. The approaches appropriate the study by allowing ground work observation, validating the research’s topic, objectives and questions. The conclude that claim to informality acceptance is suspected to be greater on paper than what is on the ground, even though there are few spatial frameworks formulated by the government/municipality that have been implemented. These frameworks address the socio-economic factors for the poor through the implementation of programmes and projects that attempt to increase job opportunities for the poor. Nevertheless, despite these concerns, there seems to be little consensus on the cause of spatial inequality as the factor influenced by policy weakness and failure. The paper recommendations explain the possibility of sustainable spatial transformation through a series of process, strategies and models that can be implemented to improve policy efficiency in increasing informal market business accessibility into Industrial Development Corporation, Access to assets for financial assistance and placing emphasis on Investment as a key factor for economic sustainability.

In Conclusion the elements of attempt to understand how policy makers should respond to growing community values, needs and issues is directed should be directed by the society itself whether the government addresses spatial inequalities via spatial planning frameworks and strategies or in other ways, the community must be involved in all processes of urban planning.
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<tr>
<td>SPF</td>
<td>SPATIAL PLANNING FRAMEWORK</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SME</td>
<td>SMALL MEDIUM ENTERPRISE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SMMMDP</td>
<td>SMALL MEDIUM MANUFACTURING DEVELOPMENT PROGRAM</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IM</td>
<td>INFORMAL MARKET</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NDPG</td>
<td>NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT PLAN</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BRT</td>
<td>BUS RAPID TRANSIT SYSTEM</td>
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<tr>
<td>SPLUMA</td>
<td>SPATIAL PLANNING LAND USE MANAGEMENT ACT</td>
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<td>SDF</td>
<td>SPATIAL DEVELOPMENT FRAMEWORK</td>
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<td>IDP</td>
<td>INTEGRATED DEVELOPMENT PLAN</td>
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<td>PDA</td>
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<td>NDP</td>
<td>NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT PLAN</td>
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<tr>
<td>LAP</td>
<td>LOCAL AREA PLAN</td>
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<td>LED</td>
<td>LOCAL ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT</td>
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<td>DFA</td>
<td>DEVELOPMENT FACILITATION ACT</td>
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<tr>
<td>LUMS</td>
<td>LAND USE MANAGEMENT SYSTEMES</td>
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<tr>
<td>PGDS</td>
<td>PROVINCIAL GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT STRATEGY</td>
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<tr>
<td>DIEP</td>
<td>DURBAN INFORMAL ECONOMY POLICY</td>
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<td>SDG</td>
<td>STRATEGIC DEVELOPMENT GOALS</td>
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<tr>
<td>GDP</td>
<td>GROSS DOMESTIC PRODUCT</td>
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<td>GNP</td>
<td>GROSS NATIONAL PRODUCT</td>
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<tr>
<td>ERP</td>
<td>ECONOMIC REFORM PROGRAM</td>
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<td>SMEDP</td>
<td>SMALL MEDIUM ENTERPRISE DEVELOPMENT POLICY</td>
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<td>GNI</td>
<td>GROSS NATIONAL INDEX</td>
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<td>UN</td>
<td>UNITED NATION</td>
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<tr>
<td>RRA</td>
<td>RAPID RURAL APPRAISAL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PRA</td>
<td>PARTICIPATORY RURAL APPRAISAL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PPP</td>
<td>PUBLIC-PRIVATE PARTNERSHIP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INK</td>
<td>INANDA NTUZUMA KWAMASHU</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CBD</td>
<td>CENTRAL BUSINESS DISTRICT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DCC</td>
<td>DURBAN CITY COUNCIL</td>
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<tr>
<td>ABM</td>
<td>AEA BASED MANAGEMENT</td>
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<tr>
<td>URP</td>
<td>URBAN RENEWAL PROGRAMM</td>
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<td>RDP</td>
<td>RECONSTRUCTION DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME</td>
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<tr>
<td>UDF</td>
<td>URBAN DEVELOPMENT FRAMEWORK</td>
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<tr>
<td>IDC</td>
<td>INDUSTRIAL DEVELOPMENT CORPORATION</td>
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<tr>
<td>ILO</td>
<td>INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE</td>
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<td>DFID</td>
<td>DEPARTMENT FOR INTERNATIONAL DEVELOPMENT</td>
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CHAPTER ONE:
INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

1.1. INTRODUCTION
The vulnerability of the poor in our society requires an intermediary approach in addressing the concept of equality and inclusiveness in socio-economic development. There is a need to scrutinise developments that directly affect informal sectors, by assessing existing frameworks/policy that guide development thus driving urban spatial planning. With regards to this research ideology, emphasis is placed on ‘Spatial Planning Frameworks’ as the key role player in guiding urban construction, spatial distribution and urban systems. To fulfil this agenda of interlinking the vital factors of informal economy and spatial planning frameworks requires a proper market feasibility study and space management analysis. A wide determination of the economy’s cycle of change and knowledge and skills will enable environmentalists and land/spatial planners involved in the regulations and management structures to create an inclusive, transparent, and sustainable economic environment for stakeholders and beneficiaries in all cities. This initiative can be reached through the establishment of a good relationship between urban construction, spatial distribution, urban systems, and financial institutions (UN-Habitat, 2004). A good relationship will be constructed or influenced by policy.

This research looks at urban area spatial implications towards the efficiency and functionality of the informal economy, through the lens of informal trading and the application of South African spatial development frameworks within the local, provincial and national platforms. This includes looking into the socio-political aspects, governance and organisations/institutions, and the existing evidence of participation. The research focus on the extent to which the informal economy is integrated into spatial planning frameworks and attempts to answer questions such as: ‘is the informal economy directly integrated within spatial planning frameworks efficiently’; or ‘whether the spatial planning frameworks exclude the informal economy in their plans? And if so, how are informal traders affected, and what are the municipality’s role and responsibility in ensuring those who fall under the ladder of formal employment (poor) are catered for?’

As previously stated, the research’s intention is to look at the relationship between spatial planning and the informal economy’s performance or functionality. It looks at the physical form in terms of strategic location allocation, infrastructure availability, level of accessibility and resource availability. The study assesses existing spatial planning frameworks that are designed to govern the structure of the city. Also it assesses the integration of informal aspects within the framework. It looks at the challenges encountered by informal
participants, institutions and the municipality in facilitating an effective social environment for the deprived. Spatial inequality is evident in these locations, as it is a footprint of the apartheid regime - a system known as a methodical tool based on inequality and spatial segregation. Although the post-apartheid government has a set of initiatives that have been implemented to amend the spatial configuration, this research is focused on looking at the coordination of policies that use planning as a focal initiative in implementing and accomplishing their ideas, sustainability, efficiency and inclusiveness within the informal market. Within the existing initiative implemented, the reconfiguration of spatial planning via frameworks is in a constant relationship with infrastructural development. However, there are various implications that arise when these two factors are inconsistent with each other. One of the disagreements between the two aspects of planning and development is the idea of capitalism in urban areas, a relative exclusion of the informal economy in support of the formal economy. This notion tends to neglect the vision and mission of closing social and economic gaps/inequality through spatial planning and development.

With a growing body of work that is being documented laying out the existence of spatial inequalities in various forms, the study assess the level of inclusiveness, equality and implementation level in existing spatial planning frameworks toward solving these issues. It looks at who is involved and what roles they play. It also attempts to verify how policy is concerned regarding development and planning models by looking at existing debates where planning and development models exacerbate spatial inequalities rather than reduce them. Finally it attempts to suggest possible recommendations towards alleviating the situation. There are various policies that have been implemented that oversee development to ensure social and spatial justice in cities.

1.1.1. Background of the study
South Africa is a developing country and one of the fastest growing conglomerate economies in Africa (WB, 2017). The present dynamics that characterise the South Africa seen today, the South Africa that is a democratic and an expanding/growing state, have been shaped by previous bureaucracies that were highly proficient in the implementation of spatial planning models. These present dynamics are not limited by the previous oppressive strategic laws and regulations that were key drivers of the state codes and determined the functionality of cities during the colonial and apartheid eras. However, the colonial and apartheid regime footprints still exist (even after 1994), as there is much clear evidence that past spatial models prevail within the expansion and growth of South African cities.
The ground breaking difference that separates the past and current cities is the prevailing democratic vision of South Africa (Vision: integration, equality, dignity, freedom, human rights, etc.) that entails the alignment of South African vision with the principle of eliminating racial and class discrimination within the urban space in South African cities, and the implementation of policies and legislation that guide urban development. The consistent scuffle between these two phenomena, in pursuit of remedying the past illness and creating a democratic environment, creates more problems that need to be resolved by more adaptable initiatives. The notion of physical aspects/characteristics of the city as key drivers of all spheres and functionalities of a city is validated by the past apartheid regime. The regime used space and infrastructure as crucial tools to regulate the social, economic, environmental and political spheres of cities. This is South Africa's biggest challenge in the attempt to rectify and mend the mistakes of the past.

a) Informality and markets as a survival strategy for the poor

The continuous issues and spatial disputes (among the rich and the poor; Black and White; skilled and unqualified) caused by the prevailing spatial frameworks are not novel. The country has gone through numerous struggles and events which are important phenomena to be assessed as cities embark on the process of attempting to unravel these issues and resolve the fragmentation of the past spatial framework implication models which caused them. The underprivileged (especially people of colour: Blacks) have been struggling to survive for years in callous, discriminatory spaces, formed and designed by tyrannical laws, systems and models. In South Africa, informality came as a survival strategy for the deprived (Blacks), due to the un-obliging spaces and frameworks provided by the state that seem to only favoured productivity for formal institutes. Informality was also introduced as a natural strategic tool to battle the calamities that were thrust on the people by oppressive laws, via spatial instruments (Tengeh and Lapah, 2013). Informality in South African cities revealed the ideology of space and infrastructure as drivers of economic viability in urban areas. Within the economic sphere, the functionality of ‘informal markets’ (upon which this research focuses) became a neutral mechanism that supported the poor, the major concern however, was the spread of this informality into the whole city, taking advantage of urban space as a viable economic drive. The municipality has recognised that spatial influences as initiatives of remedying the apartheid footprints are a strategic approach towards South African cities identifying potential outcomes of existing spatial planning strategies. Over the years since the colonial times, the reality of the relationship between urban spatial designs and informal activities has been revealed. The intricacies of the past and current spatial planning are of importance for the functionality of informal markets. Informal markets act as a tool for the
survival of the deprived and contribute to economic growth, however vigorous support is required from the government in terms of spatial planning and the government must act in collaboration with the community.

Informal markets are inevitability as they act as a survival platform for the urban poor, playing a major role as hubs of the communities. Informal markets are expressed as ‘underground activities’, although there is nothing ‘underground’ about them. Yet the majority of current informal market activities are based solely on the survival of the formal economic sector. These informal platforms are not regulated and are spatially limited. Informal market beneficiaries and their businesses are restricted accessibility to legal and financial institutions (Tityaki, 2008). These activities within cities currently occupy space where unregulated market platforms are located. This is where street traders have a primary role in trading goods and services with the public and often the most definite infrastructure they occupy are temporary shelters that are not formerly taxed or registered. These spaces in South Africa are located in areas with a high density in terms of population. They occur on a large scale in areas where there is a concentration of low and middle income class people. This is due to the fact that these spaces do not target high class populations (result of spatial inequality), and the markets provide income for many people living in poor communities. Also, these informal spaces and activities are the strategic resources and instruments of a community trying to address social problems related to unemployment, migration and poverty.

The growth of informal activities as a survival strategy within urban spaces is also influenced by the fact that more than half of all employment that is non-agricultural in developing countries is situated within the informal market; this encourages young people to partake in self-help employment (International Labour Organisation, 2015). A major issue with this growth, however, is the lack of infrastructural and spatial planning frameworks supporting these informal markets. This is due to the fact that informality is less focused on and is seen as a principle that is to be eradicated within cities. In recent years though there has been a realisation of the vitality of informal markets and the need for them to be incorporated within planning frameworks. Thus the research focuses on the discussion of informal markets as a vital economic factor and the spatial frameworks establishment as a tool to enhance the productivity of informal space.

a) Existing socio-economic debate

The discussion on socio-economic dynamics is essential to the topic of informal markets when discussed within governmental planning institutions. This is due to that the socio-
economic dynamic is a challenging phenomenon especially within the implementation of economic development activities. It is also a necessity for solving social and economic issues related to planning, for the improvement and wellbeing of the poor as it is part and parcel of economic development initiatives that impose a positive effect and negative outcomes on poverty reduction strategies. There are two perspective observed in this paper guided by development models. One is discussed that the informal market has emerged as a hindrance to economic gain/growth. The physical and theoretical urban construction perceives informality (economic and social) as an issue that distorts the main economic indicators by competing with the formal sector. The discussion links the sectoral exclusion as the main element of informal markets is not sufficiently productive to improve the overall wellbeing of those working in the market. However, the unfair competition impacts negatively on the formal market, ultimately this is not in the public’s best interests. On the other side it is the need to deliberate that informal markets should be supported has been advocated as much in recent years. The main idea is that informal markets play a major role in poverty reduction, reducing unemployment, increasing self-employment/enterprises, and contributing to South Africa’s GDP. However, the biggest question is the question of how significant spatial planning and spatial distribution are as a means of remedying socio-economic issues in poor communities. Thus, the research focuses on addressing both debates while avoiding bias, but with the intention to articulate and assess the option of upgrading the informal market so that it may be considered hand in hand with the formal market. This was achieved through the consultation of the existing spatial planning frameworks.

The research hypothesis is that informal markets will achieve an improved productivity and economic viability, through the incorporation and implementation of spatial planning. Spatial planning is seen as the tool required aiding the circumstances in informal markets, by improving work space and job opportunities. There are various frameworks that have been established that intend to oversee development and ensure social and spatial justice in the informal market in cities. However, these frameworks seem to lack objectivity, radicalness and persistency in developing informal market spaces.

The objectives of these frameworks are to provide: efficiency; effectiveness; sustainability; integration; coordination; comprehensive systems of spatial, infrastructural and land use management; socio-economic inclusion; remedy the past imbalances that exist as apartheid footprint and to ensure implementation of equal spatial development land use systems for both the informal and formal markets. The unbiased investigation of these frameworks might resolve the issue of acquiring adequate provincial, regional and national development information about the important relationship between spatial planning frameworks and
economic equality in South Africa and also contribute towards inclusiveness and integration instead of segregation via spatial planning.

1.2. PROBLEM STATEMENT

Urban poverty is a very significant issue within the urban environment. It has a rational role in prescribing a variety of related issues via various activities within the city. The majority of activities prescribed by poverty are regularly informal. Such activities can be categorised into concepts of “informal sector, economy, occupation, market, employment, trading”, and from here onwards is identified within the concept ‘informal markets’. In conjunction to the urban spatial arrangement, ‘policy and frameworks’ are major key role players in shaping the spatial arrangement of the urban environment, its spatial layout and the efficiency of each activity/economic zone within the urban environment. Spatial policies and frameworks play a role of advocacy, representative or mediator between the urban environment and the society. The increase and emergence of poverty related issues in urban areas, and the effects they have towards the society raises questions on the nature of the existing urban construction, the relationship it has with existing urban spatial frameworks and the effect it has on the increased rate of poverty related issues within the society. These three concepts (urban spatial arrangement, spatial frameworks and poverty) vastly influence the models of sustainability, employment/unemployment and level of livelihood, urban system efficiency and effectiveness, and the level development and productivity in the urban environment is redistributed. And these models and concepts are determined by two ideas which are namely spatial equality and urban inclusiveness.

The existence of inequalities and exclusion in health, education, level of communication, income and poverty in developing countries such as South Africa, present a significant spatial distribution fragmentation which touches on political, economic and social challenges, and to a certain extent affects the environment aspects. Recently formulated spatial planning frameworks set up objectives that focus on equity and sustainability in the built environment. These objectives include:

- Provision of an effective, efficient sustainable, comprehensive and coordinated system of spatial planning and land use management.

- Spatial planning and land use management to promote socio-economic inclusion.

- Remedying the imbalances that exist as a result of the footprint of past disadvantages, to ensure equity in the implementation of a spatial development and land use system.
Nevertheless, there are a number of questions that arise when what is on the ground is observed. The elemental essence of these questions touches on the level of social and economic standards (between high, medium and low income social groups). The role of legislation is essential in structuring the urban spaces to cater for all sectors to function and produce at their quality level.

1.3. HYPOTHESIS
The integration of informal markets into spatial planning associated frameworks will stimulate sustainable development within the informal market and provide economic and social growth potential for the deprived/poor in South Africa.

1.4. BROAD OBJECTIVE
The broad objective of the study is to understand the developmental and functional efficiency and role spatial planning frameworks play/would play towards the existence of informal market if it would be integrated within the existing spatial planning frameworks. And also to identify challenges all involved parties encounter for the purpose of coming up with potential recommendations to promote equity and inclusiveness of the poor within the socioeconomic urban environment through planning frameworks.

1.5. SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES
- To assess the extent to which the informal economy is integrated into spatial planning frameworks in the eThekwini municipality.
- To identify efforts made by the municipality within eThekwini to integrate the informal market into spatial planning frameworks.
- To identify the roles informal traders can play (or do play) to assist the municipality to easily integrate the informal market into spatial planning frameworks.
- To identify the challenges informal traders have in practice linked to the current existing spatial planning.
- To identify challenges that eThekwini municipality comes across when attempting to integrate informal markets into spatial planning frameworks.
- To identify approaches and methods that promotes the integration of informal markets into spatial planning frameworks.
1.6. MAIN RESEARCH QUESTION
To what extent is the informal market operational/functional role in eThekwini municipality, influenced by (or integrated within) existing spatial planning frameworks and its implementer’s efforts?

1.7. SUB-QUESTIONS
- To what extent is the informal market incorporated within spatial planning frameworks in eThekwini?
- Is the municipality putting any effort into integrating the informal market into spatial planning frameworks within eThekwini?
- What roles can informal traders play (or do play) to assist the municipality in integrating the informal market into spatial planning frameworks?
- What are the challenges informal traders have in practice caused by the current existing spatial planning?
- What are the challenges the municipality encounters when trying to integrate the informal markets into spatial planning frameworks?

1.8. RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY
The systematic formation of the city in terms of spatial planning (frameworks) is clearly biased and discriminatory, favouring the interests of the elite (formal market) and the middle class within the economic sphere and neglecting the poor (informal market). Thus, the analysis consists of various realities within the nature and existence of the current informal market within the eThekwini Municipality. By looking at the prospect of integration of the informal markets within the spatial planning frameworks, the research attempts to unpack the importance and extent of informal market integration in planning, which will automatically inform a formal inclusion of the poor (beneficiaries: informal economy activity participators, vendors or street traders) who are direct beneficiaries. This includes beneficiaries who partake in activities that include: take-aways, recycling-glass bottles and spaza shops for convenient quick purchases. Liquor retailers also have upstream multiplier effects on formal businesses; especially for the liquor supply chain and tavern service providers (such as jukeboxes, pool tables, clothing, food, and transport, etc.), involving them in the planning within the economic sphere. The identification of potential advantages forthcoming from the analysis of the research focuses on beneficiaries (informal market/street traders/activities) being integrated within the spatial planning frameworks. Their integration may be used as a tool to rejuvenate the city economically and socially, promoting and improving the social-economic aspects of the poor within the informal market spaces.
The beneficiaries (poor) will benefit immensely from this research as it may create more ideas and provide strategic tools for them to improve their productivity and profits, and enable them to broaden their horizons. It will allow for enhancement in communicative and collaborative approaches within the market, fostering a viable information flow between the city and the people. The information to be shared will relate to technology, marketing, finance and production, etc. providing the beneficiaries with invaluable knowledge. This information can also be a bridge for education to be accessible to traders and promote their accessibility to different institutions, platforms and organisations that they are currently unable to access.

The unbiased research on these phenomena might inform the current or future formulation of adequate provincial, regional and national spatial development frameworks that will work efficiently and enable economic growth from a local to a national scale. These frameworks will incorporate different social classes of people, including the deprived and poor, who wish to get involved in informal trading activities as a means of self-empowerment within the Durban informal economy. This will benefit them in that it will reduce entry barriers, creating more jobs and income sources for the poor. It will also motivate the planning frameworks to be inclusive and integrate the welfare of the poor, providing the poor with encouragement and a variety of economic opportunities. The research will not only highlight the importance of inclusive framework formulation but also the implementation of these new inclusive frameworks, as these will help the municipalities to achieve their municipal objectives and goals concerning the livelihood of the poor. The research might also play a role in acquiring adequate provincial, regional and national developmental information which will play a role in prescribing better ways and better tools for inclusive and integrative spatial planning (instead of segregation in spatial and infrastructural planning) to adequately benefit the lower-classes.

1.9. METHODOLOGY
Mikkelsen (1997) stated that research methodology is collecting analysing and presenting data in a systematic way. This section explains the methodology used for the study, which entails a systematic process of how data was collected, analysed and presented. The design of the methodology is for the achievement of the objectives of the study, and it starts by describing data collection methods, data analysis and sampling procedures, show indicators and allude to some limitations the study might encounter and how they might be resolved.
1.9.1. Approach

The approach adopted for this research topic is the mixed method. It is a methodology used to collect, analyze and present data via two approaches which means the research entails both a qualitative approach (analysis of data and information) and a quantitative approach (analysis of statistics and figures).

The approach is neither a purely qualitative nor a purely quantitative method. This means that a mix of information, interrelating ideas and realities with the use of documented data and numbers to conceptualise a clear and solid view of what, where, when, how and who is affected is used (McKim, 2017). The idea is to have a division of methods within planning that will bring about different world views from different perspectives, views of constructivism and critical rationale which are identified as competing paradigms (Rathbun, 2017). The approach allows the collaboration and association of idealism, relativism, subjectivity, materialism, realism and objectivity in this study, and the mentioned is contained within the adopted epistemological paradigms.

To achieve sustainable research results and the stated aims and objectives, there has to be an inductive study of logical critical assessments accompanied by deductive quantitative and qualitative studies. Due to the nature of the study of socio-economic instability, the approach acts as a method that meanders between critical observations and constructivism, including the ideology that something can be both real yet socially constructed (Newman, 2003). In addition, the approach allows a flexible structure for the study, giving the ability to move back and forth according to the context of the research results encountered.

The process of collecting and analysing data for this research study incorporates an approach that uses assorted methods in one design. It steers the research in collecting both types of data (qualitative and quantitative), confining them collectively at the same time and sequentially, while placing emphasis on both equally to prevent biasness towards certain themes. The approach provides an initial strategy/idea that assists in reaching research objectives by using instruments such as a checklist and records along with interviews, observations, documentations, and visual materials. The relevant information obtained provides a better understanding of the research and adequately answer the research questions and the issues presented by the research. The approach provides the research with the ability to be descriptive, and to compare and relate variables. It also allows coding, theme development and the discussion of related themes as a means of presenting adequate results towards the achievement of the research objectives. The advantage that is given by this is that it provides the chance to observe the topic from multiple angles that give more evidence, creating a better argument and striving to mirror ‘real life’.
1.9.2. Qualitative method

A qualitative method is a non-numerical scientific data collection methodology that studies a targeted place of population, observing social sciences activities that exist in that area as means to understand social life when interpreted. The method was chosen because it helped to collect data through the use of semi-structured interviews of affected people in the informal market (face-to-face). The method attended to the objective of identifying informal traders’ potential roles within the informal economy and the daily challenges which they face as a result of the extent of inclusion or lack of integration into spatial planning frameworks. Surveys were carried out from a sample size of 25 respondents. The sample size of 25 includes individuals from the case study area, where interviews were done and questionnaires administered. Interviews were flexible, and they were conducted on various days dependent on the time and availability of the participants. This method permitted the use of open-ended questions that painted a better picture and constructed a research conclusion that any reader will understand and debate about. This is due to the fact that the interviews placed emphasis on putting forward the meaning of the individuals that are involved in the informal marketplace (Mathers, Fox and Hunn, 2007). These methods prove effective in acquiring the sufficient and necessary knowledgeable and informative data by word/statement which benefitted the research by revealing the reality of the existing issues.

The main targeted population is the beneficiaries of this study, people within the informal market in the eThekwini municipality who are participants in informal trading. This includes beginners and experienced participants in the system of informal trading. They are easily identified as they occupy commonplaces in streets and the researcher asked for referrals from participants who were willing to help. This methodology also includes data collection from respected informal trading members from the Small Business Support Unit, which is responsible for the allocation of trading spaces. The research entails the collection of data from the involved youths (18+), young adults and older individuals. The survey approach was coordinated to be an action research and this method requires knowledge and information to be socially constructed (constructed by the people). It rejects scientific data but rather has a positivism perspective. This means that the data was collected objectively and explained through the phenomenon of physical and social factors, rather than measuring and testing the data scientifically.

Three government authorities within the eThekwini municipality were also interviewed, including institutions that deal with the facilitation of urban space. This initiative allowed the research to unravel the municipal efforts made and the challenges that the municipality faces when attempting to integrate the informal economy into spatial planning frameworks. To
reach the objective of ‘assessing the extent of the informal economy’s inclusion into spatial planning frameworks’, the existing spatial planning frameworks and relevant policies will be reviewed in line with South African SDG’s. They were selected via purpose sampling explained below (see 1.8.6.)

1.9.3. Quantitative method

The quantitative is a data collection methodology that requires the use of number for through statistical and mathematical measurements. This method was chosen because it allowed the study to grasp the numbers of people involved and who are affected in terms of gender, age, ethnicity, business scale, production rate per-day and success of business via the use of questionnaires and surveys. This information collected permitted the research to translate numbers and understand the level of spatial planning framework validity; its value and the extent to which it is included in the coordination, functionality and production of the informal economy. The data collected assist in identifying the cause of the existing dysfunctionality within the eThekwini municipality’s informal economy. It also contributed by recognising remedial recommendations regarding the issue of isolation or neglecting of the informal market from spatial planning frameworks.

This method tests the validity of the objectives and the applied theories by examining the interrelationship between different variables that can be measured. Quantitative methodology permits the collection of data through statistics such as counting the number of individuals affected by the status quo in the informal market, according to Muijs (2004). This method relies less on interviews and physical observations and more on collecting and analysing mathematical data and statistics, using statistical documentation and reliable consensus sources. The information obtained guides the research in evaluating a potential mathematical model and formulating a relevant outcome.

1.9.4. Secondary data method

Secondary data is a method of collecting data that has been processed and analysed before. However it is not completely raw data. This is data collected from people/sources that are not affected by the research, but are rather stakeholders or academics who have studied the issues closely related to the topic and have made a major contribution to the project at hand. This includes sources such as books, articles, journals, etc. this method was chosen because data obtained in this way enables the researcher to construct a basic theoretical framework around spatial planning frameworks and the municipal inability to integrate the informal market sufficiently. This theoretical framework frames the basis of the research which is being conducted (McKim, 2017). A humanism paradigm is used whereby
knowledge is socially constructed from the affected individuals serving in the informal market. Such data enables the researcher to form a clear understanding of the situation of the informal market and reveals the realities of the spatial planning frameworks’ roles and activities with regards to the issue (Johnston, 2014). The method allows the researcher to gather enough information on what may be unclear causes of all the difficulties that informal traders and the eThekwini municipality face in integrating the two aspects, and how they can be solved in relation to the issue. Data collected with this method permits the researcher to analyse the emerging theoretical and conceptual framework and in doing this, the researcher is then able to extract data that supports it or criticizes and allows for it to be considered as valid. Such data therefore assists in determining the quality of the research findings.

1.9.5. Primary data method

Primary data is a method of collecting data from the ground or first hand, transcribed and analysed as a means of explaining the phenomenon or outcome (McKim, 2017). The strategy of data collection includes surveys, interviews, face-to-face communicative interactions, and some respondents may be contacted via telephone and emails, open-ended questionnaires for the respondents and observations. Verbal and written communication was utilised to achieve what was required. The data collected for this research is obtained from the case study area of KwaMashu north of Durban. Primary data was collected from the affected people in the field of this study: individuals who are participants in the informal market, who are active as informal traders in eThekwini and also 3 relevant eThekwini municipality members from the department of development planning, department of environmental management and department of spatial planning and land use. The scope of affected people included new entrants into the field, people who are still adjusting and stabilising, and people who are experienced in informal activities. This strategy of primary data collection was chosen because it enabled the collection of raw data that allowed the researcher to assemble outcomes that are not misled by outsiders’ perceptions and personal views about other people’s affairs. It gave the researcher a chance to produce a true story told by the people and for the people. The collection of data was also done by means of a few key methods: mapping, questionnaire surveys and observations. These three techniques are discussed below.

a) Mapping

Mapping is a method of collecting data of processes, structures, and system that determine relationships and guide planning of different components, sketching out the flows of people, resources, goods and services, and information. Mapping is a very supportive strategy that
coordinates information into a relatively proficient form, placing the storyline of the study into focus and outlining the pattern of the study. Maps of the study area were obtained from the internet and limited to the extent of the KwaMashu market area. The maps were studied to clarify the layout of the social and physical infrastructure, sizes of plots, boundary of the study area and relevant areas of informal trading activities.

b) Surveys and Questionnaires

Surveys and questionnaires a method of data collection that entails the collection, analysis, interpretation and presentation that is utilized to collect, analyse and interpret the views of a group or target population. Surveys, open-ended questionnaires and interviews were conducted on a sample size of 25 individuals. Individual interviews were conducted: these are face-to-face interviews with selected individuals within the sample size which are determined scientifically after some work has been done. This form of questionnaire allows respondents to answer on a variety of issues that include the efficiency of the existing space; government initiatives and support; documentation/policy support; challenges; roles they play etc. Key informants’ interviews were conducted: these interviews were held with people who are familiar with the study area and people who have distinctive information concerning the informal economy and spatial planning. This includes committee members, senior officials and institutional staff/members, as well as informants identified in the field. This kind of interview requires respondents to answer on issues relating to challenges they face; recommendations; initiatives taken and upcoming initiatives; boundaries or limitations at hand; existing policy; recommendations; government and institutional support. This survey consists of open-ended and close-ended questions.

c) Participant Observation

Participant Observation is a method of studying the culture and image of a particular place or group of people. Thus, observation strategy permits the researcher to obtain information by looking at the situation in the field and processing the data into the research. The observation included the use of a camera and recording to authenticate the observation strategy. This method allows the researcher to critically analyse the environment’s advantages, potentials and disadvantages. This strategy also helped in the construction of recommendations for corrective action to be taken.

1.9.6. Sampling method

Sampling is a process of analysing statistics and mathematical measurements of various observations on a population group are taken. The methodology used to sample is a critical
purpose sampling method, sampling on successive occasion, purpose sampling and the case study area of the KwaMashu market (known as ‘Station’) is used for the study.

Critical purpose sampling: is a selection process where a number of cases are selected for their importance in developing knowledge (Patton, 2001). This is a relevant method of data sampling which allows the researcher to look at what is on the ground to validate the research topic, objectives and questions. Thus the chosen case study of KwaMashu Market area, this area has poor infrastructure, lacks investments, has economic leakage and crime, and represented by a large expansion of informal trading activities.

A purposive sample: is a non-probability selection process, it select a population sample by its objectives and character of the population. It is also selective or subjective sampling. The purpose sampling (Homogeneous sampling): adopted for the quantitative sampling focuses on achieving a homogeneous sample, a sample whose components share the same or similar attributes (e.g., a group of people that are similar in terms of age, gender, background, occupation, etc.).

1.9.7. Data analysis

Data analysis is a process of evaluating data and reaching each element by logical and analytical reasoning. A thematic data analysis: is used as it emphasises, pinpoints, examines and records patterns or themes within data. Also, coding was used to analyse the quantitative data with the use of a Microsoft Excel spreadsheet. The collected data was analysed using themes, discourse analysis, participation analysis, the use of graphs and tables, and a number of completed questionnaires.

1.9.8. Indicators

Indicators identified as tools/instruments to assess the integration extent of the informal economy into spatial planning frameworks in the eThekwini municipality include: i) Existing infrastructure (roads, nodes, structures for traders and services); ii) Efficiency of the spatial layout (existing space linking efficiently to different trading activities); iii) Accessibility (access to various areas and surrounding supportive platforms); iv) Income level (income bracket that the area accommodates); and v) Availability of space (the ability of space to accommodate the majority of the trading activities).
1.9.9. Limitations

a) Outright refusal by some individuals
The nature of the research/study is complex and needs respondents to disclose information that is personal and in real time. The information required is not only the thoughts of the people but also a voice projecting what is currently on the ground. This notion caused fear in some respondents. They feared that the disclosure of certain information might bring about unsatisfactory results from the municipal authorities. This may made some respondents refuse to participate in the study.

b) Unavailability of some respondents
There were instances during the study where referrals were suggested but the prospective respondents were unavailable. This complicated the acquiring of information from them because time and money was limiting on the researcher’s side.

c) Respondent misunderstanding of questions
The community on which the case study is based is within a township that might have high level of illiteracy, due to that the majority of the older people are uneducated. These are people who make up the larger percentage of informal traders. The community might have difficulty with speaking and understanding languages other than their mother tongue which is IsiZulu. And although the questionnaires were be translated into isiZulu, people may misunderstand the meaning of some key words and some words cannot be translated into more basic isiZulu. It may be challenging for them to understand what is being explained to them. Some respondents did not understand and simply had to answer some questions to the best of their ability. To counteract this, the researcher maintained simple communication and kept the interview short. Some of the respondents in the field were not sufficiently informed and lack information related to control of the informal activities.

1.10. CHAPTER OUTLINE
The dissertation entails a number of chapters discussing the topic “Assessing the extent of informal markets’ integration into spatial planning frameworks: a case study of KwaMashu, eThekwini Municipality”. The chapters are briefly outlined below:

1.10.1. Chapter One:
This chapter discusses the intention of the research and outlines the research background, research question, research problem, research objectives, research methodology, data
sampling methods, hypotheses and epistemology. It brings to the reader an introduction to
the study and how it is to be conducted, including issues and gaps that it intends to discuss.
This chapter outlines the whole purpose of the study and it gives a guide of what the study
entails.

1.10.2. Chapter Two:

This chapter outlines theoretical and conceptual frameworks that construct the study.
Theoretical frameworks focus on key theoretic approaches that produce the foundation of
the study, while conceptual frameworks explore key concepts that underline this study. This
chapter intends to evaluate the authenticity of theories and approaches which guide the
study.

1.10.3. Chapter Three:

This chapter focuses on assessing and evaluating local and international literature on the
ideology of informal market integration into spatial planning frameworks. It looks at key
stakeholders involved and a possible or existing participatory initiative that traders can
embark on. The chapter also assesses current local, provincial and national policy and
legislative frameworks related to spatial planning and the informal market in South Africa.

1.10.4. Chapter Four:

This discusses the case study area that the research is based on. It gives the background of
the study area in terms of the socio-economic, political and environmental dynamics. It looks
at the layout design and patterns of the areas. The chapter also discusses the boundaries of
the study area, looking at the current spatial planning that governs it and how the apartheid
model is significant in terms of the functionality and efficiency of the area.

1.10.5. Chapter Five:

Chapter five discuss the case study of the KwaMashu market within the eThekwini
municipality and provide a rationale for the selection of the study area, focusing on the
location, background, socio-economic dynamics and policy implications within the selected
case study area.

1.10.6. Chapter Six:

This presents the findings, analysis and results from the experiential study. This chapter
presents the nature of the dissertation which includes a level of review of the research in
terms of the intended research outcome, and discusses the final recommendations and conclusions drawn from the study.
2.1. INTRODUCTION

Chapter two is focused on the theoretical and conceptual framework which outlines the basis on which urban spatial planning is intertwined with concept of urban informality. Urban spatial planning is a tool in forms of legislative frameworks/policies. These tools ensure the application of operational instruments that govern and guide the function of the market. However, equity in urban spatial distribution in the context of land-use management systems is a major element in the promotion of sustainable development. The efficiency and productivity of spatial allocation affects the society in various ways. This study utilises data borrowed from five theoretical and conceptual approaches. And these approaches include: the collaborative theory, the modernisation theory, the dualist school, the spatial planning approach and the livelihood approach. The selected approached are a vital element in explain the complexity of societies. The approaches discuss key tenets that influence socio-economic dynamics in our society. They also add value to the study by discussing the relationship between spatial planning and informal economy, informing the study on factors that affect the urban poor. The approaches continue to provide insight on the influence of urban models towards formulation of policy. Previous and existing policies are element that can explain the existing urban forms in third world countries. This section focuses and discusses these theoretical and conceptual approaches from an international, national and local perspective. The aim is to look at legislative frameworks implications towards South African urban informal market. Also the effects and potential manifestations with regards to spatial are identity transitional phase (apartheid city to post-apartheid city).

2.2. MODERNISATION THEORY

In Peattie’s (1987) paper, modernisation discusses concepts of the informal sector. The context is within development that is provisional in reference to migrant flows of unprofessional and unskilled labours. These concepts explain which the rapid rise of poverty in urban industrialisation (Portes and Celaya, 2013). The informal sector contrast is generally merged with the modernisation paradigm that outlines a dualistic outset of the economy by integrating within itself various political economy micro-theories (McGee, 1973; Quijano, 1974; Mingione, 1984). The argument is with the modern enterprises that enter the market backwards. In the process of markets growth, the effects on traditional sectors are dire thus marginalising the disadvantaged population (Ziyanda, 2016).
2.2.1. Modernisation and the informal economy

Rostow explains national development by discusses the underdevelopment of third world countries as a social issue which results from the backward socio-economic models existing in each country (Rostow, 1960). The importance of policy framework as a tool for modern values throughout the formal and informal economy is recognised by every country. Rostow gives reference to policy that inscribes modern political systems, legal institutions, and modern capitalist economies as the gist of economic expansion (Yusuff, 2011; Springer, 2015). The three tenets are tools that control and guide urban development. Modernism was initially understood as an alternative name for western market economies and institutions however, the issue regarding underdevelopment in the form of ‘lack of growth and formality’ was not based on capitalist exploitation. It was rather caused by the lack of exposure towards tools (likes the USAID and the Peace Corps, etc.) that are strategic in incorporating underdeveloped countries into the modern world of international economies. The informal sector was seen by the modernist as a relic of traditionalism, methods of production mutual to isolated rural people. It was seen as being isolated and a remote economy because of its lack of integration into policy frameworks. The increase of informality is a rational consequence of past and existing urban planning frameworks in South African context. In South Africa this led to the informal economy being confined outside the modern economy lacking values, sufficient space, strategic location, accessibility, government and institutional support, rights, skills and education. Moser (1978, in Emenike, 2014) characterises the informal economy with words such as ‘abnormally swollen’, ‘marginality’, ‘bazaar types’ and ‘over distended tertiary sector’.

The approach predicts the extinction of urban surplus as a response to the rise of industrialisation. This is because capitalists badly influence the standby forces that challenge labour in the formal sector by the replacement of cheaper labour in the informal economy. This is why the informal economy is understood to seemingly be an evolutionary process in which activities therein transform and transfer its actors within the formal sector (Hart’s, 1973). There is noticeable transformation of informal actors entering into the formal sector due to the fact that the formal sector hasn’t absorbed the standby forces. Nevertheless, it has been argued that the informal economy persists in being informal at a large scale, expanding regardless of the predictions. Lansky and Williams (2013) and Hart’s (1973), argument that the approach did not recognise the informal economy as a strategy to manipulate standby forces in obtaining development and economic growth. It also didn’t recognise it as a platform for talent and entrepreneur training, but rather saw it as a weakness and issue needed to be solved. Although the concept of informal sectors is still in the process of being accepted by the formal sector, there varios variables that need analysis
before decision making is done. This is one of the major issues that affects the society in South Africa, through urban planning decisions are implemented and in many cases without public intervention. The approach is relevant for the study as it reveals the natural belief of developmental planning towards economic development. It explains the existing initiative put in place that either entails the exclusion or the integration of the informal economy into relevant development policy frameworks existing in South Africa, since the country already functions within the ideology of modernisation.

2.2.2. Validation and inclusiveness of informal markets

Modernisation in African countries is not novel in the 21st century. There have been no changes in strategy, approach and policy formulation or implementation in this regard for some time (Ogbonnaya, 2016). The conceptual and physical attributes of the modernisation practices are manifested by the likes of infrastructural development, technology and information accessibility. Modernisation ideology is concise; its mandate is designed to control and manipulate the cultural and traditional perspectives of developing countries into a European conglomerate environment. Having mentioned control, the modernisation theory entails regulatory systems. The identification of informal activities is stimulated by rapid growth of informal operations in urban environments within developing countries guided by regulatory systems. This reveals the model as comprising of overriding regulatory systems (Sibhat, 2014). Informal operations now become inconsistent with the rules and legal regulations and fail to meet necessary administrative requirements that government place for the operation of economic factors.

The subsequent disregarding or exclusion of the informal economy as a solution to economic and social issues provides evidence that development policies limit access of informal market into urban resource. Informal market in South Africa need to be encompassed within a policy that provides training, growth and progressive programmes, and operational spaces with facilities and services. In Rogan (2018) and Williams (2015) journal articles, development policies approach the informal sector as encompassing activities of an underground nature, unequivocal and black market in nature. The reason could be that the informal sector is struggling to overcome economic factors because of limitations that development policies impose on the market. In addition, the lack of inclusion is a barrier to a surplus achievement in the informal sector. The process of formalising informal activities is a case for debate and the idea of the informal sector being formalised through inclusion in development policies is not an unscrupulous idea. However, the process is contemptable and limiting to beneficiaries according to the modernisation principles (Williams, 2018).
In South Africa, formalisation includes meeting registration prerequisites, and given that the majority of informal market participants are disadvantaged, they find it tough to meet these prerequisites that include tax obligations. The majority of these persons are already in debt and struggling to maintain their ‘informal activities’, and they are neither educated nor informed (information) and skilled at a very low level. Thus there are very few informal activities (business) that end up being formalised and this limits the growth and expansion of the informal market in South Africa.

2.2.3. The formal regulatory environment

The ILO talks about formal regulations’ disadvantages and implications it has towards the informal market. Regulations are formulated to create barriers and instability (over-regulation and deregulation) regardless of labour market capacity, financial factors or productivity (Meagher, 2013; Williams 2014). The approach limits expansion rather than promoting growth even with policy formulation aimed at informal sector growth. Researchers such as Chen (2012) and Núñez (2017) have identified that informal market labours are contained between interchangeable and inconsistent patterns. First is the advantageous flexibility of relationships in informal employment, which includes the workforce and the contracts made by employers who intend to expand. The second market pattern is the slow realisation of labour mobility created by policy intended to grow the sector via the process and approach of formalisation.

The limited access to space and the difficulties with spatial regulations common in the informal economy cause quarrelsome. In some cities where street trading has been adopted it is clear that the state does not entirely believe in the informal economy, although the state has directed the local government to implement policies to allow and regulate trading. The evidence thereof lies in the fact that the state invests more in the formal market than in the informal market. In South Africa, this creates problems for the municipality when there are cases of vendor harassment, spatial disputes, eviction incidents, and corruption (in the form of policemen taking bribes and other authoritarians with their own personal agendas). The initiators of developmental policies should be concerned with accepting and establishing clear and appropriate commercial regulations that are intended to inform self-employment and wage employment in the informal sector (Chen, 2012; House, 2017).

There are various policy characteristics that can be adopted as comprehensive frameworks. It is evident that policies that are directly influential on the informal economy (Policies that react to both economic and social issues). However, in many developing countries there is no whole policy instrument/framework that is directly concerned with informal sector issues
in all categories. The ILO (2015) discusses policy goals that can be considered as comprehensive in frameworks.

a) Approaches to formalisation of informal enterprises

Registration of a business is a very vital factor in the case of growth, expansion and opportunities (see figure 2.1 below). Registration should not be designed in such a way that it poses as a barrier to growth initiatives, but rather it should be a tool that encourages innovative business ideas to be implemented by individuals. Registration should be a comprehensive tool that gives accessibility to marketing strategies/access points/platforms, financial support, skills development, education and security facilities. Registration ought to be a supportive system for informal workers due to their already disadvantaged context. The Durban Informal Economy Policy (2001, p. 9), states that:

“Registration (as well as sustained payment of rentals) is the action which gives permission to operate, and which provides access to services and support”,

Nevertheless, implementing such actions is another issue. Registration in the ground differs in practice from that spoken of theoretically in research as it intends to situate the informal economy into a formalised environment for the purpose of control, curbing, maintenance and accountability. The goal is that the nature of registration be re-evaluated as it is a formalisation process that is vital for markets (see figure 2.1 below which shows the results of registration and formalisation). It includes taxation requirements where informal enterprises are taxed, however, this taxation should be implemented by simplifying all procedures of a bureaucratic nature and this should also encourage informal activities/workers by offering them incentives and benefits in exchange of tax payments.

Taxation should not be a burden which creates more reasons for workers to avoid it, as this avoidance leads to their evictions and pressures hindering the continuity and further operation of the sector. The issue within the sector is that there is too much flexibility in terms of procedures for employment. There is no regulatory system when it comes to equity, and hiring of workers by employers is not based on an equivalent evaluation but rather on who knows who, or who came first. Regulations should encourage a more formal process to prevent the informalization of jobs which currently exists. This initiative will create opportunities for employers to be capable of and encouraged to contribute to supporting their workers with pensions or health coverage and other recognised benefits within the labour force.
b) Jobs Creation through labour-intensive growth

The idea of conceptual policy framework formulation is amplified by the goal to create more job opportunities for the unemployed. However, for this initiative to transpire there needs to be an extensive rate of sectorial growth and expansion, not just individual business growth, but growth and expansion that's identical to that of the formal economy. The nature of work undertaken should not in any nature diminish the principles of humanity in any individual. Respectable and sensible jobs should be provided equally to everyone, and this concept will prevent the informal economy’s tendencies of exploitation and abusive employment recruitments.

In the 1970s the ILO (1972) and Hart (1973) made the observation that employment in developing countries was not necessarily lucrative and that people often struggled to make ends meet. They mentioned that unemployment was not the major issue; rather it was that workers earned very little, and they labelled these workers as ‘the working poor’. The observation was driven by their opposing interests to the formalisation of the informal economy, the lack of access to opportunities within the market and the lack of resources that were productive. The issue of the working poor in urban employment was made worse by the inability of the informal market to grow and expand as a result of its lack of inclusion in
policy frameworks. This, in turn, hampered the creation of new, adequate jobs. The modernisation theory identified the importance of job creation, hence in Kenya there was informal policy framework formulation inventiveness, and the sector provided half of the total employment in the urban environment.

Tokman (2007) and Fourie (2018) discussed the significance of the informal sector in creating new jobs for the poor in Kenya. The authors observed that for every 100 jobs created since the early 1980s, about 60 of those jobs created were located in the informal sector. The share of the labour market was thus a vital element in the informal market in Kenya and this sector grew gradually but continually. The growth of the informal market saw transformation of this sector at the micro enterprise level, and this growth in the number of informal enterprises created valid job creation options (relating to income/wages).

Despite the growth of micro enterprises in the informal marketplaces of developing countries, employers in these micro enterprises still lack the capability to provide acceptable employment conditions for workers. Such as employment incentives and benefits that focus on labour, wages and social security/stability. In order to achieve the goal of new opportunities for job creation, the informal sector and government has to take advantage of the potential for job opportunities and growth in the sector. There are views that support the formulation of a conceptual policy framework, as advocated for by the modernisation theory. This goal of the creation of acceptable, respectable job opportunities must therefore be integrated into development strategies and the ‘working poor’ must be equipped to be able to take advantage of any opportunities that avail themselves in the market space.

c) Social and legal protection for the informal workforce

Security and protection in the working environment is an element that is essential for public works. This element speaks to legal and social protection and it also includes certain rights and privileges which are given to workers that are designed to give them access to and defence of advantages and opportunities. The element of protection goes further into affecting the health care of workers. Informal workers also have the right to a healthy and clean environment with a pollution management system in place (WPEMP, 1997). Access to health care requires subsidies due to the fact that the informal market is already populated by poor people who cannot pay for health care on their own. This is the reason why so many health care issues are found amongst the informal market workers; they do not get sufficient support for environmental cleanliness and health care system benefits. Health care support also speaks to future health care challenges, thus the importance of financial support for pension coverage. The modernisation theory therefore emphasises a policy framework that
focuses on issues of environmental management, and the informal sector is included within the goals to create a sustainable and clean environment in cities (Gibbs, 1998; Smit and Musango, 2015). A policy framework is essential to establish a clear and an appropriate role for government so that it can effectively support, regulate and implement the required procedures to achieve the goals set out in partnership with the private sector. To do this effectively, government has to come to a conceptual agreement with the private sector.

Legal protection is another necessity within the informal market. This is focused on protecting workers from external and internal factors that exploit or oppress their market operations, create fragmentation of their daily business, create undue pressure and cause them to lose their jobs (Aletter, 2016). The modernisation theory encourages the establishment of legal rights via the United Nations Commission on Legal Empowerment (UNCLE), to promote the socio-economic prosperity of the poor (Ubink and McInerney, 2011; Ndiritu, 2015). These rights include rights for business operation, property, a clean environment and labour. However, the majority of the developing countries have to reform their legal systems as the existing labour, environment and business laws do not cover informal workers. In most cases, informal activities are administered by industry specific regulations and certain local regulations undermine the activities and even go as far as discouraging or discontinuing informal activities.

d) Increase productivity and incomes of informal enterprises and workers

Functionality and operation of the market is determined by its capacity for productivity. There are various ways that market productivity can be improved, such as the introduction of supportive measures designed to create a platform to improve the market’s accessibility and grow traders’ knowledge of assets and trading (Thorpe, 2016). The establishment of various rights and a legal identity will raise productivity, improving the terms of trade and employment amongst the different working partners. The reduction of negative impairments is a good solution towards the development of the informal market. The means to reduce market related risks is also essential, as this will reduce and possibly prevent altogether market losses and setbacks.

Risk assessment must be carried out in conjunction with addressing power imbalances within the market as these imbalances create inequalities, leading to oppressive and exploitative relationships between workers, between traders and between traders and authoritarian institutions. This includes institutional policies and discriminatory models applied to the informal enterprises – their elimination will promote sufficient accessibility to supportive legal structures. These actions will also achieve equity for the smaller informal
enterprises and help prevent corruption that hampers these enterprises’ growth. The major role of government is to monitor various policies within the different informal market categories to address and prevent negative impacts while emphasising growth and expansion in the informal market (Lema. 2013).

2.2.4. Modernisation in developing countries

The approach as a concept it is aligned with western models of development. The culture and traditions of developing countries are considered to be illusive, opposing the nature and objectives of development (Tagarirofa, 2012; Dang and Sui Pheng, 2015). It advocates for the adaptation of western development strategies, planning policies and regulations. The issue is that African countries are exposed to a variety of economic hardships has led to increased rates of unemployment and poverty. The informal economy is one of the prominent sectors in developing countries. It encompasses the percentage of people who are poor as a result of economic instabilities. It is considered as an employment safety net where poor people work as a means of making a living. Developing countries e.g. African countries are considered to be inspired and driven by culture and traditions. Culture and tradition play a largely role on the functionality and competence of the informal sector. This is because it marginalises contribution towards political, environmental, social and economic development.

Taking away culture and tradition in African countries is taking away a portion of important societies’ social and economic factors that keep the informal market prolific. Modernisation in developing countries is a complex theme as it entails neglecting African development strategies, norms and standards. Africa places emphasis on strategies designed to promote rural development, and this development is based on values that are democratic within the societies that are communalistic rather than capitalistic (Pashapa and Rivett, 2015). Groenewald and Powell (2016) claim that sustainable development in Africa should entail strategic approach with developmental initiatives orientated by an inclination towards participatory activities. This is an idea discussed further in the collaborative approach (see 2.3.). The pattern of participatory development should be based on the notion that beneficiaries are the core of development. This brings about a notion that claims beneficiaries are development themselves. In Norad (2013) report it is discussed that, the central and active participants must be involved in efforts of development aimed at transforming their livelihoods. The livelihood approach discussed below entails strategies models that promote transformative processes including promoting environment that benefits the poor through socio-economic growth (see 2.4.). Modernisation in African countries denounces traditional habits that developing countries are accustomed to. It promotes the
adoption of western principles of development as key in achieving urban and rural
development. The characteristics assumed by the approach are that of western tools
adopted by developing countries, those countries will be stimulated into approaching
modernism.

The deconstruction of traditional values is based on rudimentary conceptions, regardless of
the advantageous and positive influences that culture and tradition have in the informal
sustainable environments. Positive influences impact on economic and social issues
encountered by society, specifically the disabled, disadvantaged and poor members of
society without adequate health services. The overview of past events related to developing
countries being forced into initiating the natural emphasis of modernisation in society clearly
gathers enough evidence that the modernisation model vindicates the “nullity” (in a sense) of
development models used in “developing countries”. The end product is still not convincing
worldwide.

Tagarirofa (2017), states that numerous policies have been put in place over time, policies
that are unproductive when it comes to informal sector issues. In addition, policies
concerned with development based on insensible models, feed on society’s liberties.
Although, society’s on their own are not in any way capable or strategically geared to
achieve positive social transformation in developing countries. Policies that are imposed on
developing countries suit and support internal political, social and economic patterns of that
country, rather than being configured externally (Tagarirofa, 2017). This concludes the
argument that informality is far from hostile to development, since a variety of developing
countries develop and grow based on influence by the social, cultural and political inclination
of its organisational models.

2.2.5. Informal supportive systems challenges

The amount of attention paid to the informal economy should be based on the carrying
capacity of informal market with regards to poverty and unemployment. But since there is
inequality and lack of support for the market, very little attention has been directed towards
the informal sector in previous years. In 2007, the International Labour Office (ILO)
mentioned that a variety of programmes had been implemented aiming at giving support to
informal activities (International Labour Organisation, 1972). And the ILO (2007) cited Asia,
Bogotá, Colombia, Ho Chi Minh City, India and Ghana as examples. Chen et al. (2018)
speaks of essential support required from authorities in terms of the establishment of spatial
provision that includes urban informal workers and places focus on street traders/vendors.
Vergara (2016) states that in Colombia there are still initiatives which are taken in the informal sector, and they entail rejuvenating trading spaces to produce more efficiency in the urban informal environment. In India procedures have been put in place to look at spatial issues and labour law reforms for the informal sector. The significance of the informal sector is becoming highly accepted at a national context. However, there are delays that hinder the implementation of developmental process. Vergara (2016) illustrates that the informal economy is a viable source of social and economic stability. This is even embraced by formal institutions which consider policy measures as tools that are viable in recognising potential functionality of the informal sector. The configuration and arrangement of these policy measures is capable of maintaining and guiding the process of productivity within the sector. The international agenda is to modernise the urban environment and cater for development in all aspects of socio-economic growth in developing countries.

Policy advancement results from legislative measures that advocate for informal upgrading and rejuvenation developmental initiative, and promoting the acceptance of the informal economy in urban areas. Policy measures have promoted the informal economy to profitability and viability for some, and it has proven the informal market to be acting as a safety net even during a downswing of the entire economy. This promoted international support for the informal economy has grown stronger and the sector has improved financially (Arshad, 2016). In developing countries there is a shared comprehension of inconsistent policy and strategic visions which need to improve the informal markets. Because of limited consensus amongst stakeholders and the state, the effectiveness of policy implementation has been hindered and the national budget not altered to accommodate changes required for the growth of the informal sector. The collaboration of stakeholders at a national level is a vital factor for the success and effective relief of policy measures towards the functionality of the informal sector (the collaborative approach). Conversely, at the local or regional level the initiatives policy implementation are adequate and productive when consensus is achieved amongst the individual stakeholders. However, the inabilitys to constantly comprehend the informal economy policy strategic vision, various insufficiencies and productivity limitations come as a result. This further leads to stakeholders being incapable of responding with a more comprehensive approach (Arshad, 2016).

The informal economy is a complex subject to understand even at a local level. Within the perspective of modernisation, there is no common definition of the informal market that leads to inclusive and shared approaches/ideas that pioneer relevant strategies for policy implementation (Williams, 2015). In the African context, there was a report published in 1972 by the ILO. The report attempted to describe Kenya’s informal market support in the early 1970s (Kempe, 2014). The report related the market’s informality to labour precariousness
Illegality speaks to regulation and labour precariousness speaks to instability or functionality of the sector. The ILO indicated strategic opportunities that could be utilised to regulate the informal market via different approaches designed to formalise the informal activities and integrate the sector into the formal economy via modernisation process (Kempe, 2014).

### 2.3. COLLABORATIVE PLANNING

The collaborative planning theory emerged in the 1970s, embedded in the works of Jürgen Habermas. The theory emerged as a response to several key factors that brought about understanding of the predicaments imposed by socio-economic exclusion these include exploitation, application of top-down approaches, unshared benefits of power, increase in diversity of class (poor and rich), and powerlessness of the underprivileged (Välikangas and Seeck, 2012). The theory discusses the concept of power through the lens of the Foucauldian analysis of power, stating that power relations are capable of oppression and they exist in practice (Woermann, 2012; cited: Foucauldian, 1977). Power is a nonphysical element that is triggered by information, knowledge and authority, and it is an element that planners use within the urban and community planning context (Bennet, Bennet and Lewis, 2015). This emphasises the trajectory that communicative planning takes in affecting planning processes, which planners facilitate when aiming at moving away from past traditional ways of decision making and gathering of information. It is a communicative and inclusive decision making approach. It also involves participation of communities in planning initiatives toward socio-economic development.

#### 2.3.1. Collaborative/communicative theory trajectory

The 1990s marked a transitional period of urban planning where planning scholars introduced a new perspective to planning theories. This perspective was shifting from the rational approaches that were dominant in planning at the time to more inclusive approaches. The term ‘communicative planning’ was heard first in Judith Innes’ article. The article attempted to close the breach between theory and practice, and offering a solution via consensus. This approach aimed to allow for a collaborative and engaging planning environment that was inclusive of different stakeholders who participated in decision making (Innes, 1995). This therapeutic approach towards planning is an effective measure in relation to the communicative planning theory. The therapeutic approach has been seen in South Africa to allow planning to function with the ideology that communities are able to be involved in a collective approach. This is believed to be effective because community
participation is an efficient action strategy that takes the role of being a catalyst for the wellbeing and wide rejuvenation of the community.

2.3.2. Collaborative planning dichotomy

The revolutional change of the livelihood patterns and systems in cities globally occurs as a response to increased levels of knowledge, information, technology and large scale influential events (Scoones, 2009). These events have been a vital factor in the formulation of the current planning capacity and strategic planning patterns. Collaborative planning theory emerged in the 1980s at the pinnacle of a global transitional phase, an era of globalisation, new leadership and new developmental initiatives (Watson, 2016). The author outlined that the theory emerged within the unsettled ideology concerning planning, with regards to what planning meant to different people and different sectors. Watson (2016) asked how planning was done and what planning could achieve, and this was a question that every researcher was trying to elucidate at the time.

The theory emerged as a sensory reaction, involving a cluster of scholars within planning and other fields. It entailed the characteristics of fine grained research information, planning processes and their interpretations, and the inclusion of social theorists who constructed normative perspectives on practical implementation. The construction of the collaborative theory involved various theorists who shared their ideas and reflected on different angles. Each theorist came to the table with results from their own scholarly discussions and personal correspondence that allowed for the further building of information based on what was being shared. The theorists Habermas, Foucault and Dewey steered the theory into focusing on considerable sections of dialogue, interactions, communication, and argumentative and deliberative approaches (Yang, 2015).

Collaborative planning became relevant to the realities of the planning outlook at the time as it expanded, and it attracted attention to itself within the academy of planning, according to Innes (1995). It was discussed in the Journal of Planning Education and Research and in one of the articles it was stressed that the collaborative planning theory could dominate the planning theory paradigm. This claim challenged the rational model theorists, however, criticism came from the neo-Marxist and political economists who had been involved in planning since the 1960s. The interaction between these players stimulated confrontational proceedings and conferences, but the theory prevailed due to its lack of response towards the attacks. Innes (1995) continued that planning at the time had become a coordinated paradigm that was structurally constructed by divided discourses.
The nature of planning today is complicated and diverse, and involves a set of communities that contribute via different languages, beliefs and methods towards dissimilar objective towards a similar ends. The nature of the current planning approach also results in students finding it hard to grasp the concepts behind planning, resulting in their frustration and misperceptions (Watson, 2016). Nevertheless, the one challenge that faces collaborative theory as a planning subject is the criticism that formulates framed dichotomies between perceptions, resulting in them appearing mismatched.

a) Collaborative planning perspective on development

The theory of collaborative/communicative planning is a concept which is used in the UK interchangeably. Due to the complexity of the developing world in all pillars of the economy, the theory intends to address the relevant issues in different contexts but at the same time. The essence of the two concepts of ‘collaborative and communicative planning’ relate to learning about how to collaborate with different stakeholders and participate in effective decision making. The theory is concerned with development initiatives such as policy formulation and implementation processes (Chrislip, 2002). It also involves the art of communication to deal with development issues such as poverty, unemployment, infrastructural degradation, segregation, etc. (Healey, 1999). Collaborative planning is effective within different arenas, and in the development space it is vital to utilise the essence of the theory in policy and regulation negotiations, community meetings, and public-private partnerships (PPP).

The importance of collaborative planning is related to its ability to conceptualise the development initiative by addressing the issue of advancing personal interests by stakeholders. Planning to develop a city requires an advanced shared interest or vision to effectively implement development initiatives (Bouton et al, 2013). This ideology implies the eradication of segregators amongst participants for the purpose of creating an inclusive environment that is neither segregated nor discriminatory to any group of individuals. This factor includes the right of the poor and underprivileged to access services and opportunities that the elite of the country have (including space, infrastructure, service delivery, job opportunities, education, etc.). Thus, the emphasis of collaborative planning is to reduce adversarial relationships among the rich and those in authority (such as planners and politicians) and to deal with the redressing of power and resource disparities and efficiently. Redistributing them to various stakeholders avoids power struggles and exploitive decision-making advantages. The idea is to reach a common interest for everyone involved, including the community as a whole.
The collaborative theory can act as a strategic tool within the development environment regarding space in the informal markets, the planning system has the advantage of amplifying the voices of informal traders within the urban environment. The exclusion of the informal market from the policy frameworks and its spatial segregation from the urban core has created various implications for the informal economy. The initiatives taken via policy implementation alone are not enough to solve the diversity of the rising issues faced by traders. A large scale participation paradigm is necessary as various groups and various individuals struggle with the perpetuation of spatial complications and a one-directional solution developed by only a few participants is not justifiable as it will not solve the problems.

Berke (2002) attempts to focus the idea of communicative planning as a major planning strategic tool, stating that it has been widely accepted and is a dominant practice that is taught to planning scholars. It is a process of facilitating development, which is more significant at a local and regional planning level due to the wide range of social factors involved and the organisational welfare that is critical for development planning in the case of societal growth. The acceptance of collaborative planning is also a magnetic stimulus for broader stakeholder involvement which involves government officials from different departments and private sector actors for the success of development initiatives (Mandarano, 2008).

b) Collaborative planning: political influencer

Collaborative planning/communicative theory is a modern planning theory it concentrates on strategic planning that is inclusive of the significance of communication and collaboration (Stanford Encyclopaedia of Philosophy, 2014). The theory obliges its principle standards to focus on a political platform where issues are resolved by involving all affected people in the decision making process and it has a firm normative layer shaped by its practice (Martens, 2010). This is alluded to by Habermas (1981), stating that people’s behaviour and similar actions establish relative knowledge, which when brought together will produce an appropriate action/solution to existing and future social and economic problems. This suggests that social problems are solved via collaborative or communicative action, with spatial planning acting as a tool.

Due to the long history of cartographic imagery intended to highlight the behaviour of public and private policy actors, the theory occupied a transparent vehicle in search of a more social and economic binding approach within developmental decision-making processes. It sought an approach that had a sense of semiotic and linguistic characters to establish a verified social discourse and a clear meaning of reality (Salet and Faludi, 2015).
The theory recognises the benefits of constructing a collaborative society/consciousness with a stable social identity, which allows for the hidden or dormant social and economic developmental action motives of the community to come into the light and become functional and create new forms of social and spatial planning coordination and rapport (Martach, 2004). Due to the nature of the theory and as it entails numerous sub-streams, the theory also attempts to re-deduce and reconstruct existing conceptions for innovative planning conditions, while constructively endeavouring to design new discourses to establish efficient, effective, resilient and sustainable strategic planning (Salet and Faludi, 2015). The theory in this research attempts to direct the research by pointing out the ability of communicative strategic spatial planning to capture the essence of the social and economic objectives of the informal traders by instituting new references for present and future action.

Various theorists argue that the ideal attitude of the collaborative action and communicative theory is to replace, reconstruct and renew existing entrenched ways of exclusive decision-making processes through the activity of communicative ideology. This includes the transformation of current modes of governance, and the ability of stakeholders and involved actors to share their power to achieve communicative planning with a solid foundation for development. Healey (1996) argues that inclusive development as a product of communicative planning should be characterised by democratic socialism, where all stakeholders at a mutual level of power participate individually but in a collective state to develop strategies to achieve sustainable spatial planning objectives. The change of traditional practices of decision making is involved; the community will be involved and be open-minded to new and innovative ways of development. The theory deals heavily with the issue of change (Martens, 2010). Therefore, this research benefit from this theory as it constructs its argument from the perspective of effective change. It contributes to this study by looking at the emphasis of communicative planning by planners as the key actors to changing the social and economic environment. It discusses the role of municipalities in social and economic growth in spatial planning on a local level, and finally, in addition it discusses the character and ability of the community to establish transformative change within its own setting.

c) Government vs. governance meaning in urban areas

The changes in governance within the urban agenda with regards to developmental and planning practices have a significant implication on the transitional pattern from the preceding to the contemporary policies (Elwood 2002). In South Africa, this marks a key point of departure as the topic around government, its citizens and the rise and fall of democracy is a continuing debate amongst planners. This debate relates to the notion of
who has power in what is classified as democracy, and to what extant the community must partake in decision making compared to what is being practiced. The debate is also compounded by the limits of government involvement within democracy in relation to societal development initiatives. The major question lies with the confusion as to which democratic distinction is applicable for the efficient functionality of the community and all development projects; ‘representative democracy’ or ‘participatory democracy’? Roseland (2005) distinguishes between the terms ‘government’ and ‘governance’: government being the ‘implementation’ aspect and governance the ‘leadership’ aspect. Collaborative planning links the perspectives of citizens as partners, coordinators and educators of citizen practices within the government, thus planners and public professionals are employed as problem solvers and vehicles of implementing decisions taken (Boyte, 2005).

2.3.3. Communicative planning and structures

The notion of communicative planning within the collaborative theory has brought about a change for planning theorists in terms of how information and knowledge is distributed, and this notion is regarded as power shared among those involved. It is argued that a key factor that stimulates the identification and utilization of power in the process of planning is information (Forester, 1982). As planners influence the ownership structures and power in society on a small scale, they are able to influence circumstances for community participation and be actively involved in coordinating issues that are within their collective environment. Communicative planning is meant to manage the knowledge of ordinary participants and maintain informed consent, trust and understanding, according to Brooks (2002). This is to teach the community to become self-sufficient so that they can plan and prepare for themselves. The ideology behind the concept of communicative planning is not a mere exchange of meaningful words, rather it is aimed at the reflection of power relations, and economic, social, political and institutional interconnectedness. The emergence of communicative planning has given planners a new role as mediators and facilitators (Brooks, 2002) and this initiative requires a variety of stakeholders for face-to-face discussions. All voices are heard and taken into consideration, agreeing on common interests and facts, and exploring different alternatives to arrive at a final decision. This rationality includes learning and empowerment via partnership between the government and the community, and using planning as a guiding tool (Brooks, 2002).

Communicative action as a model for collaborative planning relies on engaging both private and public role players to participate in projects related to the communal wellbeing (Peterman, 2004). Roseland (2005) describes communicative action as a decision making process where planning is done with stakeholders, not for stakeholders. Its focus is not on
obtaining an authentic solution but for all interests, no matter how diverse, to be documented to allow learning and accountability. This approach leads to the inclusion of continuity of monitoring, evaluation and growth (Healey et al., 2003).

In the 1970s communicative action was a strategy useful in dealing with conflict within the community, thus in the 21st century it is a strategy that deals with issues that lead to rapid changes in the society, equipping the community to have the capacity to respond to issues and opportunities (Frey, 1989). According to Chaskin (2001), this is to foster sustainable societal change, shaping the place-making activities which promote a sustainable quality of life (Healey, 1998). Communicative action gives the role of educators and facilitators to planners; this initiative is to influence the public to become involved in formulating public policies that have a direct role in their lives (Booher, 2002). The normative theory of communicative rationality by Habermas mentions three key elements that must be achieved to influence a consensus where a shared interest is reached: i) Participants’ rational actions; ii) Interrelations between participants; and iii) Authentic dialogue (Innes and Booher, 2010, p. 24).

a) Relevance of planning in collaborative theory

Collaborative planning, as it expanded, became relevant to the realities of the planning structure at the time and thus it attracted attention to itself within the academy of planning (Innes, 1995). It was discussed in the Journal of Planning Education and Research, and it was stressed that the collaborative planning theory could dominate the planning theory paradigm. This documentation challenged the rational model theorists, however, criticism came from the neo-Marxist and political economists involved in planning since the 1960s. This interaction stimulated confrontational proceedings and conferences. Nevertheless, the theory prevailed due to its lack of response towards the attacks. Planning has become a coordinated paradigm that is structurally constructed by divided discourses (Innes and Booher 2014). The nature of planning today is complicated and diverse, since it involves a set of communities that contribute via different languages, beliefs and methods towards dissimilar ends. The nature of planning results in students finding it hard to grasp the concept behind planning, and the consequences lead to frustration and misperceptions. Nevertheless, the one challenge that faces collaborative theory as a planning subject is the criticism that formulates framed dichotomies between perceptions, resulting in them appearing mismatched.
2.4. THE LIVELIHOOD APPROACH

The case of the informal economy being considered as an entity that is different from the rest of South Africa’s economy is being exclusive (Hovsha and Meyer, 2015). But the livelihood theory discusses the potential and ability of informality to reduce poverty through the creation of jobs in an environment where there are limited sources of opportunities. The theory emphasises a transformative process of perception as a necessity to harness the potential for the informal economy, to integrate and contribute to the expansion and development of the South African economy overall.

2.4.1. A poverty reduction strategy

The livelihood approach was recognised by the White research of 1997 in the International Development Conference as a prominent strategy for productive development. The initial idea was to focus, on an international level, on strategic development based on the goal of poverty eradication and social dilemma rehabilitation, and to promote an environment that benefited the poor via social and economic growth. Solesbury (2003) acknowledged the importance of international development as a tool of the Labour Administration’s 1997 White Paper on the support of the livelihood approach. Through international sustainable development support system and policy formulation, the aim was to create sustainable livelihoods for the poor and endorse environmental conservation as one of the prerequisites for human development (DFID, 1997).

Khuzwayo (2016) characterises the livelihood approach as a poverty reduction strategy, where a livelihood entails accessibility to various services, not only at home but in work places as well. In the informal market the idea of having assets, resources, capabilities and access as tools for acquiring the means to make a living means the availability of a well-structured approach that does not overlook the necessary elements that promote life for all. A sustainable livelihood for the poor is considered as sustainable when it can cope with stressful situations and not cause more problems such as a rise in unemployment and the numbers of the working-poor. A sustainable livelihood must be able to recover from shocks, and in this context it must be able to recover from informal market shocks.

Chambers and Conway (1992), state that in order for the livelihood approach to meet its goals, there must be continuous provision of sustainable livelihood opportunities for the present and next generation. The benefits of the approach must be inclusive in the short and long-term and on a local and national scale. The approach must also be resistant towards stress and shocks, and be able to maintain and promote capabilities and assets. The principle of resilience within the approach is essential as it comprises of internal and external protection. In the informal market an indicative resilience strategy must be active against
economic crises and be resilient to governmental regulations that are inconsistent with the operational factors that informal actors engage in (Moyo, 2018). The social and material resources are essential and policy should contain the elementary prospect of natural, social, human and physical resources (see figure 2.2).

![Five Capitals of Sustainable Livelihood](figure2_2.png)

**Figure 2. 2: The five capitals of sustainable livelihood**
*Source: Scoones (1998).*

a) Inclusiveness as a strategy

Participatory development is the initial father of the notion of sustainable livelihood theory, arising from the initial work of Robert Chambers (1980s) (DFID, 2000). Chambers defines his model as a reference to community empowerment in which locals are owners of development programmes. This approach presents a more inclusive strategy of public participation which gives the community the power to design their own developmental initiatives. The theory recognises the way in which the deprived and poverty is understood. The theory emphasises that the poor’s realities and priorities require critical consideration. The theory suggests the role of livelihood as opposed to income as a key function for addressing deprivation, and this includes a person’s capabilities, general support, tangible assets and resources that are shared (the means of gaining a living).

Chambers (1994) characterises the informal economy as an environment where multiple activities occur and the formal economy lives with the security of knowing only one “big activity” (fixed income). The theory mentions livelihood strategies where individuals diversify their livelihood strategies for the purpose of improving their life quality, to decrease their vulnerability, and to increase their income. This is reliant on the informal economy which gives such opportunities (DFID, 2000). The livelihood theory discusses the importance of supporting the informal economy via the outlining measures of protection. These include
infrastructural development, rights, the removal of restrictions to economic growth within a local setting and providing accessibility to strategic locations in the informal sector. It further condones giving attention to the informal economy as it is vital for the survival of the poor, and thus it should be given space within the current context of South Africa (Chambers, 1994).

2.4.2. Livelihood vs. increasing population and roles performed

The 1980s marked an era of quick access to information via an inventory identified as the Rapid Rural Appraisal (RRA) which was established in place of the sample survey methods used to collect data (Chambers, 1994). The RRA was envisioned as an inclusive approach where the community participates via various strategic methods such as interviews (semi-structured), modelling and mapping of assets, and discussions were to be held with locals during transect walks to analyse and examine land zones and land features. The idea was thus to utilise local knowledge in the planning phase at a macro level, however, the strategy was not successful as the community was not actually included in any decision making processes. The concept of participation was envisioned as a necessity after social instability was experienced, and thus the Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) was established. The PRA went on to gain acceptance and popularity in the 1990s (Ellis, 2000).

The PRA process involved communities’ participation throughout the process of collecting information, planning and decision making (it was called ‘handing over the stick’) and the various stakeholders acted as facilitators. The idea was to maximise the influence on the communities, to get them to learn and acquire the experience needed to get things done themselves. This would gradually reduce the role of outsiders over time, and this promotion of empowerment and participation was seen as a powerful influencer (Ellis, 2000). Arising from the PRA was the concept of ‘sustainable livelihoods’ (SL). The initial plan was to establish a framework that was built upon the PRA, a development concept that entailed the participation of local people according to the Department for international development (DFID) (2000).

The DFID described the methods of eliciting and extracting data as helpful, as they allowed the collection of data from the community to inform planning and design, and to monitor and evaluate the activities and results of an initiated project. The concept of a sustainable livelihood was strategically associated with empowering the community to participate in developmental processes as a method of reducing poverty and achieving sustainable development at a societal level (DFID, 2000).
2.4.3. The importance of the addressed policy

Policy is considered as a facilitative instrumental that is essential for the implementation and efficiency of any goal that government plans to initiate. For the livelihood approach to function as intended there is a clear emphasis on policy formulation that will guide and protect (Morse et al, 2009). However, placing the livelihood approach into practice is a complex and difficult task including the various overlapping problems previously reported regarding policy making. As identified, the majority of developing countries’ informal sectors haven’t been integrated into policy frameworks (Ngundu, 2010). This emphasises the critical assessment of the livelihood approach as an arbitrator of evidence-based policy. As such it will be a mediator, exploring informal market problems and how they can be addressed, paving the way for a sufficient and functional livelihood approach. Existing policy frameworks and policies which are to be established must be contextually examined, along with the institutions within which the informal market is included. This is to measure the extent of the vulnerability of the informal sector as a whole and to determine how fast it can react to certain shocks. This proposition includes the assessment of authorities in their ability to limit, prevent and act on any damages that emerge.

Examination of the potential agenda of a policy assist in establishing successful development principles that are vision or goal based. The examination should internally reflect on evidence of pros and cons, limitations and technical influences. This will outline major areas of concentration where interpreted logic on the nature of unique characteristics of all informal markets and operational systems is identified and clearly addressed. After commencement of development and policy framework implementation, community participation should reflect and provide a transparent bottom-up approach. This approach is intended to reach a meaningful end result of an evidence based policy formulation. Thorough scrutiny identity’s all existing resources that are essential for the policy intervention, counter acting any counter-productivity encountered. Sanderson (2002) discusses the necessity of evidence based policy in the livelihood sphere, in terms of labour. The approach is considered as a modernist rationalistic project due to its nature of production and contribution to today’s industry and delivery methods, transport system, communication, knowledge impartation, and social models. Government intervention and livelihood promotional strategies entail the formulation of relevant evidence-based policy, and Sanderson states:

"New Labour proclaims the need for evidence-based policy, which we must take to mean that policy initiatives are to be supported by research evidence and that policies introduced on a trial basis are to be evaluated in as rigorous a way as possible" (Sanderson, 2002, page 4).
Nonetheless, planners and the community should be considerate of the limitations that policy entails. More often, policy in research does not reflect what’s on the ground. There have been various critiques of the evidence-based approaches from different angles and mostly from a constructivist point of view. However, the majority of the stances outline only the complexities of the social world, rarely touching on human action guidance via various methods including evidence-based approaches (evidence-based policy) (Sanderson, 2002).

Huston (2008, page 1) adds to the assessment that policy differs in practice:

“Most social scientists believe that strong evidence should lead policymakers to adopt effective programs and to eschew those that are demonstrably ineffective, but policies sometimes seem to fly in the face of data. The unpredictable and volatile world of social policy has led some researchers to renounce efforts to inform it because they believe that decisions are entirely political and that data are invoked at best only to support a position that someone has already decided to endorse”

Policy and its implication are vital and play a significant role, and policy overlooking human actions within the livelihood approach creates much complexity in the approach and for the approach. This is due to the reality of people’s lives being complex although diagrams for spatial use or operational regulations may be institutionalised as neat and simply representative in context. Huston reveals that placing human action and development outside of the policy and institutional context creates enough complexities to cause the dysfunctioning of the contextual livelihood ideology. The necessity of including human actions within the perspective of policy implication also includes the need to identify livelihood assets and their vulnerability. This initiative embraces the need to measure human development index capabilities, focusing on various elements which include three elements deemed to be important: health, income and education.
SECTION TWO: CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

2.5. SPATIAL PLANNING

Spatial planning (SP) is a developmental tool constructed by Dow Trotter in 1981 within the planning discipline. Although the concept was already in operation prior to that in some European and American cities but it was explored in detail in the early 1980s. It was introduced in these cities with the intention of managing the rapid growth of urbanisation seen during their industrial periods. The intention was to manage this rapid growth with the formulation of master design plans. The urban designs were strategic in spatial planning approaches because they mainly focused on the physical patterns of urban development. And city’ plans were inspired by affected citizens’ initiatives as a ‘sanitary movement’ to create and enforce ordered urban spatial planning (Sutcliffe, 1981).

The spatial planning approach focuses on strategically remedying the significant challenges of urban development and rural development. The approach aims at controlling the negative implications of the growing complexities of society. Complexities such as technological implication on job creation and loses, environmental issues, new production processes, democratic revolution, diversity, globalisation, inequality, fragmentation, and the transition of the society are subject issues in countries like South Africa (Albrechts, 2017). This perspective of thinking is relevant to the realities that exist in the current study. There are spatial intricacies that shape the current spaces that people utilise. The principles of a changing world shape the writers ideology, asserting the notion of spatial planning tools as strategic instruments that need to be adaptive, realistic and effective. These instruments drive development towards the concept of transformative motion instead of maintenance and stability in the eThekwini municipality.

2.5.1. Spatial planning as an adaptive tool

The argument of the spatial planning approach as a tool that needs to be adapted to include a realistic and effective regional scope has led to intense conversation surrounding the issue. Traditional spatial planning has been identified as unfit to challenge the existing issues facing the world (Albrechts, 2017). This is due to the fact that countries of different stature and different capacity are diverse in terms of structure, systems, norms and standards, etc. Although African countries face same significant issues, these issues are considered to function in a dissimilar pattern to that of other countries and can thus be dealt with differently. This is determined by the history of the continent, particularly the negative effects and imprints left behind by past bureaucracies. This study is based on those of the apartheid regime left behind in South Africa. Traditional spatial planning alone is too weak to
govern urban transformation as it has been focussed on maintaining and keeping the existing spatial planning stable, when it should have instead tried to transform it (Okeke, 2015).

The study determined to preview what is and what should be in terms of spatial planning. It looks at new innovative interpretations of the ways to deal with spatial issues within contemporary cities and urban regions internationally. The study argues that the process of spatial planning should change and be more strategic. Planners must be aware of the relevant procedures within development and be proficient in their role of planning. Advocating and initiating change for those affected by the current spatial planning is a role for planners in decision making. This factor acknowledges that South African spatial planning must provide a strategic forum for spatial planning and planners and must know the direction required for development, and incorporate new strategic and innovative ways to alter the negatives into opportunities for growth. At an international level this form must embrace the principle of blending in with the customs of different countries on different levels, so as not to impose but rather to improve the planning procedures (Albrechts, 2017). This speaks to the diversity of national, provincial and local bodies in respect to social and economic policies, partnerships, networks, resources, skills and knowledge, and stakeholders involved in the development of South Africa.

a) Elements of spatial planning: Theory

Planning is a multifunctional instrumental process that involves the satisfaction of human needs via the altering of boundaries, whether of natural or artificial decent. The act of planning is driven by the imbalances found between human and environmental needs. And the inclusion of initiative intended to manage the conflict and resolve various issues is important (Arlinghaus, 1995). One elementary principle concerned with planning is space. The use of space and when to use it is an essential protocol for the success of planning acts. The protocols involve spatial planning resolutions which involve scale and temporal planning which entails the concept of order. The goal of spatial planning is to determine whether land-use proposals are consistent with the image and character of the region or spatial location (Arlinghaus, 1995). Spatial planning is also defined by management characteristics, and these management characteristics facilitate the control of identified functionality of that spatial location.

Planning consists of various guiding principles designed to ensure efficiency and prevent damages to nature and human livelihoods. As much as human life is important, the preservation of natural elements is also a vital act. The difficulty of planning and balancing the two spheres needs proper consideration and prolific design to create spaces which are
intertwined. This principle of balance within planning is also used to categorise and balance spatial classification and the order of economic and social spheres of human livelihood. The preservation of natural space (topography) is an element that needs careful elucidation and planning, and falls under the principle of ‘watershed’ which speaks to space being limited to beneficial activities (e.g. an individual beneficial activity affecting neighbours negatively) (Hoffmann, 2005). The idea behind the principle is to facilitate a strategic mechanism that is designed to control each sectorial activity and prevent it from damaging other sectors negatively, whilst increasing the beneficial attributes for every sector and creating a fluent interrelationship that will exist outside of exploitative and abusive measures.

The spatial planning approach is a concept that requires strategic formulation in its protocols. Its operational perspective is argued by Calvaresi (1997) to be an autonomous instrument within planning theory. Planning has various meanings as the core of the concept is built on borrowed and absorbed principles from other disciplines (Sartorio, 2005). Planning is a strategic instrument and its intention is to develop a long term plan with the ultimate goal of achieving sustainability. The planning process should be capable of rationally guiding actors and giving roles to the various role-players for the objective of achieving sustainable goals whilst encountering any potential risks which may occur (Sartorio, 2005). In addition, the nature of the planning must facilitate interaction with the processes of other institutions, as without this interaction the ultimate goals may not be achieved. To attain the spatial planning objectives within the economic and social demographical mandate a framework for spatial configuration and transformation is a necessity for practice.

The practice of spatial planning is a complex and difficult procedure that requires coordination and tactfulness. This is due to the nature of inconsistent elements in the developing world, as things constantly change. Considering social and economic pillars, spatial planning is a process where the community is involved in data collection and decision making by responding to internal and external communal issues related to local and regional governance (Salet and Faludi, 2000). The production of a documented spatial planning framework is achieved by means of voluntary and open participatory processes with the various actors involved and depending on the complexities of the numerous issues at hand, the strategic spatial plan produced will differ in various categories. These differences will arise due to the fact that the spatial plan will favour different action areas with various different aspects. This includes the formulation of policies and action plans which consist of dimensions of plan making, the various levels of planning, features specific to that particular project, major role players and intervention initiatives (Sartorio, 2005). Spatial planning within the urban context can be perceived to be a prolific maintenance and activation of efficient and proactive decision making systems, interlinked with the political side of planning, In fact,
some researchers describe the politics of the area as the main driver of any planning initiatives.

2.5.2. Approaches to strategic planning

Spatial planning focuses on exemplifying the concepts of effectiveness and legitimacy within strategic spatial planning, and the spatial issues in the context of this research are the social and economic factors affecting informal traders in the informal sector in the Station area of KwaMashu. The notion behind such focus is to identify the interrelated elements of the different spatial configurations and engage in the process of reconciling them collectively into beneficial spatial goals that will function in a consistent, coordinial form. When this is achieved all involved benefit without any of the parties/actors being manipulated or degraded, so balance is achieved. The result then is a prominent spatial developmental process capable of reaching the goals set out for the area. An effective protocol of spatial development conducive to reaching the stipulated goals is initially reflected more accurately and effectively by key approaches within planning theory: The institutional approach to planning; the communicative/discursive turn in planning; and the interactive approach to planning (Salet and Faludi, 2015).

a) The institutional approach to planning

The institutional approach is a strategic formulation that connects planning theory to economic, political, institutional, sociological and constitutional theories. The motion is designed to follow and understand the relationship of normative patterns of expectations that grow as planning imbeds its principles. The basic social rules are viewed as patterns within institutions, with the exception of policy constructivism, and planning is the construction of pattern subjects which are interrelated and which work together to achieve the common objective (Salet and Faludi, 2015). Due to the ever-changing norms, planning is based on the principles of normative concerns. These principles are set, along with a code of conduct, so that planning guidelines will achieve the vision based objectives and goals. Important also for attaining these goals are initiatives for reducing risk factors and unwanted implications. This is outlined by the formulation of frameworks, from which planning is issued and interpreted based on the existing planning issues within the different spheres. The formulation of a framework also sets out the roles of the various actors and their responsibilities when carrying out the planning process.

The approach is flexible due to its recognition of the continually changing situations and demands. This flexibility entails the updating and reformation of the framework to fit the situation imposed by the spatial planning. The approach intends to efficiently affect decision-
making processes (March and Olson, 1989; Healey, 1997). Policy and planning are considered to be important attributes in association with conditional issues, thus the need to legitimise and interlink them fluently. In addition, the primitive application of institutional reasoning focuses on applying normative targets and making institutions instrumental objects utilised by planning to initiate normative principles in the developmental sphere.

b) The communicative approach in planning
Strategic spatial planning can be considered as a successful planning approach due to the consistent application of communicative planning as a key tactical approach. This approach intends to encapsulate a symbolic strategic planning ability which incorporates social goals whilst establishing a sustainable present and future for human livelihood (Salet and Faludi, 2015). This is implemented via conceptual frameworks which are used as planning concepts that have the ability to carry themselves according to the public and private sector policy actors’ conduct (Salet and Faludi, 2015). The use of conceptual frameworks entails the symbolic meaning of language and social characteristics. This approach is embedded in the thematic nature of this research, and communicative enrolment in the implementation of spatial policy within the informal market is a necessity.

Decision-making by actors and the community, including information collection, is a prerequisite for an effective and efficient outcome. Social discourses on the informal market and its structural meaning can be expressed via this approach (Salet and Faludi, 2015). An approach that acknowledges the social imagery constructed as a “collective consciousness” will allow informal markets’ social and economic actions and vision to become clear and socially coordinated. The approach is also always a gateway for interpreting, inventing, constructing or reconstructing new planning strategies and designs.

c) The interactive approach to planning
During the 1980s and 1990s, the interactive approach became one of the most accepted practices within planning. The approach is an auxiliary strategic planning approach acting upon the gap that governmental approaches had using previous traditional approaches as an information coordination and decision-making spatial planning process (Steidlmeier, 1993). The notion of interaction in the informal market is key for interaction between different planning subjects, affected people and actors. It is an essential point of departure concerning the major spatial planning issues of instability and poverty. The approach intends to bring forth affected individuals to be their own advocates, rather than appointing a professional to act on their behalf. This initiative provides a platform where the community produces information concerning valid issues and interacts with different actors to produce a
decision that counters the existing dilemmas (Steidlmeier, 1993). This engages a strategic management plan in the private and public context, focused on interlinking the public and private actors’ innovative interpretations of institutional roles and planning processes.

Major elements that define the approach are management, sociological and institutional sciences. This includes understanding the behaviour of people within an environmental spectrum, the study of governmental agency capabilities and their capacity to react towards shocks and various local and regional intricacies, and understanding the strategic formation of management principles, rules and design patterns that act on spatial planning. As a result new relationships are established in response to the imposed outcomes/findings, such as the establishment of social organisations and governmental agencies (Steidlmeier, 1993). The intention is to create self-regulating bodies that deal with social and economic forces in the context of informal markets, allowing an interactive bottom-up methodology. Coordination of social and economic contingency is a model driven by performance based government policy and a community initiative, and the model is efficient when there is a mutual relationship between the community and the state, hence the need for sharing of power (Steidlmeier, 1993).

2.5.3. Change vs. transformation

Strategic planning will not work if it aims to change instead of transform, and it will also not be effective if it is not adaptive to individual locations. It should be able to ‘attack’ the issues relevant to a particular location, utilising the resources, skills and knowledge available in that area while operating within a system to transform the spatial planning within that area. The spatial planning approach also argues that planning should place more emphasis on the existing political and economic processes in which planning operate. It is therefore important that planning and planners become legally equipped to transfer the universal principles of equity, transparency, quality and sustainability (Albrechts, 2017). Planning must be flexible as people change, but it must also be incomplete, experimental and probing. The theory of spatial planning paints planning as a development tool that is not direct or coherent and that is unselective in development. This fragmentation within planning has caused planning frameworks and strategic approaches to become ‘fashionable’ (Albrechts, 2017).

The local spatial planning theory seems to be modest in relation to development at an international level, and there is a lingering fear that spatial planning will be based on capitalising and materialistic as it lacks focus on resource dependency. History has shown countries exploiting other countries to develop and grow economically and socially, due to their resources dependency on other country’s resources. Numerous countries are still dependent on other countries for resources that they don’t have (Albrechts, 2017). In South
Africa, there is fear of spatial planning favouring aggressive neoliberal models of urban
development, raising the questions: ‘is spatial planning resilient against neoliberalism?’, and
‘is spatial planning implementation directed by normative foundations?’ but South African
spatial planning frameworks and planners have a contrary relationship regarding vision and
action, structure, direction and institution. The grieving thing is that there is also no
substantial theoretical framework that support spatial planning for the informal, thus
frameworks legitimacy and planners’ roles are compromised to some extent (Albrechts,
2017).

2.6. INFORMAL ACTIVITIES/TRADERS

The ILO world employment mission gives insight into the character of informal activities in
Kenya through the lens of development systems. The informal market is defined as having
autonomous activities with the rest of the market. It has several key features that distinguish
its informal market pattern and functionality. Firstly, the market has easy entry procedures so
anybody who wishes to trade. Another example of this is in India, where approximately 75
percent of employment in the informal market is in non-agricultural categories (Kulshreshtha,
2011). It is very easy to enter the informal marketplace and they can do so without following
any legal processes and obligations, including cost and registration barriers. This status then
suggests that most enterprises are undercapitalised.

The level of entry and registration regulations suggests the absence of control and
management systems, so these traders do not make any tax payments. From a social or
demographic perspective, the informal marketplace is the biggest, if not the only, possible
livelihood working space for children who are struggling to survive and woman who have
been isolated and disadvantaged through spatial patterns regulated by laws (laundry, selling
food and clothes, providing local services, etc.). The informal market is significantly
gendered, i.e. dominated by women, as a result of the social and economic dynamics
mentioned above. In the formal sector it is different as here males dominate the sector for
discretionary reasons. A neutral issue related to ease of entry is the overpopulation rate that
results in it being difficult to find jobs. People thus migrate from the country side into the city
and the informal market becomes the easiest place to find work (Grimm et al, 2011).

The informal market is reliant on indigenous resources as the enterprises in the informal
market utilise local resources such as labour, products, and target market etc. All initiatives
are localised to the extent that it limits growth and expansion of businesses/enterprises. The
urban design shows an elusive image of a “good market spatial environment” which includes
infrastructural services, however, the spatial pattern is often confining. This is because the
spatial environment in the informal market tends to focus on confining the informal market
through spatial and infrastructural services limited accessibility. As such the informal market
is confined to use local resources to survive, and is thus totally reliant on indigenous
resources. So although there is ease of entry into the informal market itself, the same cannot
be said for entry into the market as an enterprise or targeted population.

The differences between circuits (lower and upper) of economic activity were distinguished
by the model developed by Santos (in McGee, 1977). In the past labour/work was seen as
being versatile, as it required physical strength and working in environmentally unsafe work
spaces. Now however, labour is seen as being far less versatile and carrying with it a
necessity for overhead capital, as even the poorest are found trading in the informal market,
a notion one cannot find in the formal market. The informal market’s labour also has small
inventories of products or stock extracted from local resources, and this result in fixed costs
of trading. In the Harare informal sector, the Magaba informal market provides a learning
environment where information and skill is gained relating to resources, small scale
production access points, and management skills to enable traders to react and adapt to
marketplace changes, and to trade services and activities as foundations of livelihood
(Skinner, 2002).

Family ownership of enterprises is a norm in informal markets. This is due to the fact that the
business is meant to support the family thus family labour is another strategy to maintain and
save costs. This is also due to the lack of operational regulations enacted from policy
frameworks (Suhaimi et al, 2016). At most, they operate on a small scale with labour
concentrated and limited technology. The informal market also signifies, according to Santos
(in McGee, 1977), skills that are acquired apart from the formal school system. This
suggests that employment does not always require an educational qualification, and this is
also one of the elements that reduce barriers to entry into the informal market. However, this
lack of entry barriers creates an environment with a wide range of competition within the
market operation, without regulations and formal operational models.

2.6.1. Dualist school on informal economies

The dualist school (DS) was discovered and made famous in the 1970s by the ILO and since
then the informal economy and its role has been viewed as entailing marginal activities (ILO,
1972). Hart (1973) described the informal market as a distinct and unrelated activity to that
of the formal sector. it is further illustrated that the informal economy provided a safety net in
times of crisis. Thus, debate in the dualist school of thought has surfaced in two different yet
inter-related perspectives (positive and negative).
One; some observers perceive the informal economy as a tool of entrepreneurial skill within the crisis setting of economic instability, and others perceive the informal economy as a tool for survival for the poor. Two; the opposite side of positivity is the view that the informal economy poses a problem for the formal economy, stating that the informal economy evades taxation and registration consciously. However, the major argument is centred on the dysfunctionality of the informal economy due to its exclusion from modern economic opportunities and it being ignored by policy frameworks which result from a diverse remit of imbalances that exist in our society. The defragmentation of space and it incapability to accommodate the rapid growth rate of the population; the employment of modern industrial structures; the diversity of people's knowledge, resources, potential and skills; and opportunities that emerge from modern economies could be the impact of spatial injustice and lack of inclusionary planning (Chen, 2012).

The dualist approach argues that the informal market and the activities thereof have limited (if any) interrelation with the formal market and this notion is still being argued by different authors such as Gerxhani (2004). Gerxhani (2004) contends that the informal market is actually integrated into the formal sector, and Kanbur (2007) in a recent study conceptualises the informal market as being on the margin due to its weak integration into the formal economy via operation and policy. However, within the gist of these uncertainties, the dualist approach assumes the character of the informal market to nevertheless operate as a distinct sector, separate in terms of the economy and the informal nature of the labour (which is largely self-employed, with few advantages within a dualistic or segmented labour market).

2.6.2. Migration and urbanisation

The size and scale of the informal sector is inherently difficult to achieve because of the rapid rates of urban migration. Although there have been numerous attempts to do so in developing African countries but they have been proven wrong in most attempts as urbanisation is on the rise. There have been certain elements of the informal sector existence in African countries. And the ideas of new emerging informal sector element were based on the notion of economic growth being involved with modern industrial developments (Becker, 2004). The concept of informal market operation is not a temporary matter owing to urbanisation and the high rates of expansion into this sector in developed and developing countries. Becker (2004, p. 6) explains that there has been information in places like Asia, the Caribbean, Latin America, and Africa that justify the claims of high rates of non-agricultural employment in informal markets, ranging from 45-85 per cent of the total workforce in these regions. In many countries the informal sector has various beneficial
factors that sustain the unemployed and employed poor. These include the fact that the income is generally greater than the wages that the people would have earned in formal employment. The informal sector also comprises of old and new urban jobs and contributes a good share of the nations’ GDPs/GNPs (Mwasinga, 2013). On a global level the informal economy has been increasing and the phenomenon is becoming a norm for the poor, and their means of livelihood. Authors outline towns and cities as places experiencing the same emergence of informal activities and that this issue interrupts globalisation objectives to introduce more liquefied trading systems, allowing for informal spatial categorisations to be reduced (Ruzek, 2015).

The study acknowledges the relative and basic needs which are a necessity for the poor’s social and economic livelihoods in South Africa. It identifies the moral realities of informal economy’s operational patterns. Thus far this study has summarised the international issues that affect local systems and production, and pointed to key issues which influence the growth patterns of the informal sector. These issues generally affect women more so than men as women dominate the informal space (Chen, 2001, pp. 4-5; UN Habitat, 2004). Becker (2004, p.1-10) qualifies this claim by stating that: “street vending is one of the largest categories of informal work employing women, especially in Africa, Southeast Asia, and Latin America”. This is basically due to the fact that there is an increased number of independent women with dependents who are heads of households. Due to limitations, barriers to entry into formal employment and migration patterns, an alternative course of action is to enter the informal market as a means of employment and gaining income. The majority of the migrants are woman with children, who are neither educated nor skilled.

a) Migration

Migration patterns have increased over the years as transitional phases have emerged; from a means of production and the shift of concentration from the agricultural industry to a capitalist industry. Other influential elements of this shift are technological innovation in the agricultural sector and the effects of climate change (Sassen, 2003). This causes agricultural production to decrease, thus increasing labour competition within the capitalist system. The transition causes many people who are unskilled and uneducated to migrate into cities in search of employment, inevitably overcrowding the environment and shading the urban areas with informality.

The issue with this transition is that it has little benefit when it comes to investments, as mentioned previously. Globalisation ideology focuses investments into higher tier capitalist operators, and the majority of these are within the formal sector. The ideology behind globalisation attempts to use hyper mobility as a means to guarantee profit. Sassen (2003)
further adds that the migration patterns are evidential effects of the structural adjustment programmes of the 1980s and 1990s that were aimed towards developing countries’ social and economic welfare. These programmes obliged rural citizens to migrate into better urban environments (global cities) for a better livelihood possibility.

Positive and beneficial growth of the informal sector is also hindered by various exploitative settlements experienced by developing countries, such as exposing African economies to foreign goods, privatisation and public sector restructuring. Due to the lack of policy formulation for the informal sector and the lack of advocacy support, the informal economy experienced decreases in efficiency, control, management, etc. as the population in this sector increased. This was a response to the transition of the formal and informal market systems mentioned previously, which also affected the formal economy by minimising the employment capacity within the formal economy (Skinner, 2008).

Regional inequalities are also a major issue resulting from international migration caused by political crises. There are various countries that have experienced migration, and forced migrations are factors that are common in countries like the Democratic Republic of Congo, Somalia and Zimbabwe. These migratory events force citizens to enter into the informal market as a means of gaining an income (Liberia, Sierra Leone, Rwanda, Burundi, Ethiopia and Eritrea) (Landau, 2007). The SA government is trying to solve the problem of migration, although as in other countries the question of “how” still remains unanswered.

There have been various activities led by the government regarding informal operators’ activities, such as eviction orders (as in the case of Zimbabwe, ‘Operation Murambatsvina’) and harassment. There has also been evidence in research detailing the integration of the grounds on which the traders operated into urban plans, such as in the case of India in Bhubaneshwar, where vendors were incorporated into spatial planning frameworks (Muna Kalyani, Hod and Reader, 2016). The SA government is still concerned with the question of how to adequately incorporate the informal market into the urban fabric on a national scale.

b) Urbanisation

The absence of strategic spatial planning and a relative participation platform limits the implementation and establishment of new remedial planning frameworks. The challenge is also the changing nature of the informal economy in terms of structure, operation and functionality. The major issue with this systematic alteration of the informal economy’s nature is that it is occurring without a strategic guiding and evaluation tool. This makes it complicated to keep track of what possible solution might work, what has worked in the past, and what will never work in solving the issues related to the informal market. The role and
nature on the informal sector has become a discourse that requires the involvement of the private sector and governmental resource support (including: capital, policy formulation, assets, accessibility, protection, etc.), rather than government taking sole control of the matter (Skinner, 2008). There is a debate raised by Skinner (2008) based on a planning view point, which states that the urban poor is provided with services and goods by the informal economy and the quantity of such is appropriate. It also includes the forms of goods and service delivery, and the fact that the adequate delivery of services and goods occurs at strategic locations within the city.

Skinner (1999), attempts to reveal the basic ideologies behind the various dynamics that affect the informal market. On the economic side, individual incomes are considered to be relatively small, yet the production level contributes substantially to local economies. The social side should be considered as a political authoritative stance for the state in its democratic form, since the inclusion of the marginalised poor’s socio-economic needs were excluded in most developing countries’ previous colonial and exploitative systems (Skinner, 1999). The informal market challenges the spatial element of the city as urban public spaces such as pavements and open spaces are traders’ initial trading spaces, claimed by them as their informal work spaces (Dobson, Skinner and Nicholson, 2009). With the rapid urbanisation facing developed and developing countries, the limited public spaces available in urban cities are an issue that needs vigilant and direct attention. The influx of poor people occupying public spaces designed for reasons other than the operation of informal activities, as a means of employment, creates overcrowding and environmental degradation (Wapwera, 2013).

The concept of urbanisation as an issue challenges Skinners’ planning perspective regarding the informal market. The increasing numbers of informal operators within a confined space designated for a particular use, without management and a spatial policy framework, leads to congestion within the city and limits the efficiency of goods and services provided to the urban poor by the informal market. Competition increases and the level of exploitative trading increases. This creates more inequality and acts as a barrier to positive growth and expansion initiatives, challenging people looking for employment opportunities (Braun, Corrarino and Ma, 2011). The urbanisation issue is also interrelated with the existing governmental services which are provided as a basic necessity in the area. The infrastructure, facilities and resources provided increase in insufficiency as the population rate within the informal market increases (Pillay, 2008). The majority of countries’ governmental support for these areas has been fragmented and biased, and governmental approaches to informal trading in urban environments have been unmanaged. As a result of this the governments struggled to sufficiently regulate and address issues within the market.
Political transitions in various countries have affected the way that informal markets function. Skinner (1999) mentions some beneficial improvements for some informal operators. The governments in some developing countries take initiatives to incorporate informal trading into urban planning, establishing management departments and the provision of resources and services. The provision of resources includes the attraction of investments in urban strategies to benefit the poor within the informal environment (benefit them economically and socially). Nevertheless, there has not been a strong, sustainable and viable urban strategic framework that spatially configures the past and previous systematic informal patterns and designs. This issue is disadvantageous as some of the measures attract capitalism at the expense of the poor and employ exploitative paradigms.

2.6.3. Imbalances in the informal market

The rise of migration and urbanisation is a major issue. The dualist approach recognises the gap between the informal market and government policy frameworks. The approach identifies the lack of integration and goes on to suggest development initiatives in terms of policy in relation to spatial planning, infrastructure and social services (Singer, 1975). Singer also reveals a different perspective about trends within the informal market. The author mentions the imbalances that result from technological improvements and the inability of the country to create enough jobs (due to the ideology of capitalistic technology), including the rapid population growth (1975). The overcrowding resulting from population growth and lack of coordination in space will create a crisis of dualism in labour markets with high irregular employment. However, Guilermo Perry, the World Bank and Kanbur Ravi take it all back to the idea that large structural imbalances and informal regulations are key concepts that can answer the question of why is the informal market/economy not growing or improving’?

Theories about informality assume various forms as they attempt to explain how certain things work and how they connect. However, the majority of these theories assume that the informal market has low or no barriers limiting accessibility into employment. The lack of barriers is exemplified as the key feature or characteristic of the informal employment, nevertheless, barriers to growth of the informal market are more compromising. The dualist model distinguishes formal from informal employment by the feature of limitations and barriers to entry into formal employment. Nevertheless, the concept of mobility in informal employment varies with categorisation; some areas of informal employment experience high levels of mobility barriers and some low, and this is called the hybrid model (Posel and Heintz, 2008; Heintz, 2012). The scale of the enterprise is also an element of perspective and operation, as the different size of the enterprise determines the level of the barrier it faces to entry into the marketplace. The nature of the economic market is determined by its
rules and procedures, thus if an enterprise takes advantage of the economies of scale this explains its ability and capacity to get access and assets, finance or connections, however, all encounter barriers to entry to some degree.

2.6.4. Informal economic activities in Malaysia

Malaysia’s economic status has gradually declined since the 1997-1998 Asian financial crises. The crisis managed to stabilise and slow down the economic growth of Malaysia compared to other crisis affected countries. This caused the decline of investments into the country and the capital raised was not sufficient to cover the effects of the crisis so that the country could try to remedy it. The crisis limited job availability and resulted in a decline in the employment rates. People also did not generally have high skill levels or education thus employment was sought in other areas to survive (Idris and Siwar, 2003). This stimulated migration patterns to emerge, with people moving from rural areas to urban areas for better opportunities. Malaysia experienced such an increase in informal trading within an environment which was modernised and had a high cost of living that the poor struggled even further. The notion that modernisation is parallel to the improvement of the informal market is a debated statement, however, the growth and development is necessary for traders (Idris and Siwar, 2003).

Households at a low income rage have various intricacies such as social instability. Women experience more social imbalances between employment in the informal market, and to some extent this limits the improvement of families (Kasseah and Tandrayen, 2014). In Malaysia women comprise half of the population and they dominate the informal market, and the flexibility of the informal environment allows entrepreneurial woman to interact with their families as they slowly adapt to the random working hours (Teoh and Chong, 2014).

The variety of trade types, trade places and traded products in Malaysia are all encompassed under the umbrella of business. Businesses are required to be registered, either as a small business or as a large one in accordance with the regulatory organisation (Suruhanjaya Syarikat Malaysia, 2015). The registration procedure involves registration with the district council of the district in which the informal market is located, so as to obtain a licence in accordance with the Companies’ Commission of Malaysia (CCM), which is the only formal business registration in Malaysia (Hasnor, 2015). Malaysia thus differs from all other developing countries where the informal market is usually an unregistered sector. Entrepreneurship is a vital element in the development world, especially in developing countries like Africa.
2.7. LESSONS AND SUMMARY
Development models selected for this study explain the notion of policy in the existence and growing operations of the informal market. The Development models explain how urban environment planning strategies involve in constructing cities are vital in informing urban planning, directing, guiding and controlling development. Measures placed for control influence economic functions and productivity. The formulation of urban spatial planning tools in both developing and developed countries is for the purpose of ensuring policy application and implementation as means of improving better functionality of the society within urban areas. The selected theoretical and conceptual models attempt to explain the realities of developing countries societies mentioned by the paper and the extent to which policy affect informal markets.

These realities are much understood by the level of social and economic efficiency in production. The modernisation theory discusses the informal market as a provisional market for the unemployed, mentioning that the informal market is now a starting point towards formal employment. However, authorities recognise that informal activities interrupt traditional economic markets. The theory thus poses a debate that claims social issues are a result of socio-economic system instability that reflects the model of existing policy. Modernisation continues to suggest that low growth rates are a result of unequal accessibility to strategic tools thus the isolation of informal markets and this is because methods of production are different and unregulated. The communicative model states that growth in the informal market is influenced by society's information, knowledge influence. These principles affect decision making in formulating legislation and in planning processes. The notion behind society's involvement is to dismiss dominant rational approaches promoting shared power and promote implementable initiatives. The livelihood approach thus explains transformative processes that harness informal market potential for efficient productivity, socio-economic growth, equality and inclusiveness. Through a transformative approach that entail social and economic growth and accessibility to services benefit via promotion of environmental elements will formulate a more effective poverty reduction strategy via planning is applicable.

The systematic formation of the city in terms of spatial planning (frameworks) is clearly biased and discriminatory, favouring the interests of the elite (formal market) and the middle class within the economic sphere and neglecting the poor (informal market). The identification of potential advantages arising from the analysis of the literature focused on beneficiaries (informal market/street traders/activities) being integrated within spatial planning frameworks. Their integration can influence the tools used to rejuvenate the city
economically and socially, promoting the socio-economic aspects of the poor within the informal market.

The research on this phenomenon might inform the current or future formulation of adequate provincial, regional and national spatial development frameworks that will work efficiently for economic growth from the local to the national level. It may also reduce the urbanisation implications for the poor by incorporating different classes including the deprived and poor who are involved or wish to get involved in informal trading activities as a means of self-empowerment within the informal economy in eThekwini (Wapwera, 2013). It will motivate planning frameworks to be inclusive and integrate the welfare of the poor via a variety of economic opportunities, encouraging not only inclusive framework formulation but also the implementation of formulated frameworks. The research on the integration of the informal economy into spatial planning frameworks may result in the acquisition of adequate provincial, regional and national developmental information. This information will play a role in prescribing better ways and better tools to be utilised for inclusive and integrative spatial planning instead of segregation via spatial planning, so that infrastructural planning will adequately benefit the poor.
CHAPTER THREE:
LITERATURE REVIEW

3.1. INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

The focus of this chapter is to assess and evaluate local and international literature on the emerging concept and ideology of the informal market integration into spatial planning frameworks. It will look at the role of stakeholders and beneficiaries involved in the informal market’s operations, browsing for possible or existing participatory initiatives that traders have embarked on. The chapter looks at different issues of the informal market that emerged within different countries, emerging from the expansion of informal market participation in an urban spatial layout that excludes such activities to a certain extent. Developing and developed countries have numerous emerging research topics based on informal trading in urban areas. Thus this chapter will discuss case studies of both developing and developed countries, and compare and contrast them to see if there are any similarities or differences between the natures of the informal trading in these countries.

The assessment of existing local, provincial and national spatial planning frameworks that speak of informal trading within an urban environment is essential to this chapter. Policy is a sequence of relevant standards and principles of action approved and proposed for the management, development and growth of a particular subject. It entails a strategic way of planning and implementation protocols. Thus, in this general research the analysis of policy will place emphasis on a context and perspective different to what exists on the ground, but related to spatial planning and the informal market.

3.2. THE EMERGENCE OF THE INFORMAL ECONOMY DEBATE

Meagher (2013) states that the informal economy debate emerged in the 1970s and has rapidly expanded worldwide as a complex debated topic. From its time of discovery in the days of Hart, the debates have produced much literature in an attempt to disclose the complex theoretical and experiential issues encountered in studying the survival strategies of the urban poor. Saunyama (2013) gives an account of the emergence of the informal market topic. It emerged as a conversation responding to poverty, unemployment, time, land and space. Upon the emergence of the debate, the concept of informal markets was seen as a shadow market; a grey, underground, unobserved, hidden economy. As much as the concept is labelled as such, most of the labels are irrational in the international context. Saunyama (2013) describes the emergence of the debate topic as a study of how informal traders use time, the land and its space to their advantage.
Previous studies reveal the main aspect of the debate: the essence is to model out and formulate sustainable strategies used by the poor within urban spaces in accessing the spatial platform of the city to participate in the productivity of the informal market (Matjomane, 2013). The strategies are then studied, along with previous and existing urban planning, with regards to the capacity they offer. The spatial capacity is then legally offered by the authorities and at the time the informal traders have to be active within the urban environment. However, studies on the emergence of informality within the urban economic spatial line and the study of spatial planning determinants reflect on the socio-economic phenomenon of the people, who have proven to be a continuous challenge since the development of the debate topic (Williams, Shahid and Martinez 2015; Tshofuti, 2016).

In previous years studies have persuaded people to associate the operation of informal markets with developing countries, however recent research shows street vending taking place in American cities, which proves the idea false. An example of this is the market operated by the veteran street vendors in New York City (Warsono, Priyanto and Riyanto, 2016). This American market challenges the ideology of the informal economy being a concept exclusive to developing countries. Informal markets are an urban issue and preside as an integral part of daily life since informal activities within urban environments emerged even before the 1970s (Elgin and Oyvat, 2013).

3.2.1. The existence of the informal economy in urban areas

Since the emergence of the debate, proving the necessity for the existence of informal markets in urban environments has become many researchers' priority. Within development agendas the International Development Agenda has been created, that reflects on key factors that deal with the existence of informality as an issue in developing countries and in countries considered more developed (United Nations, 2016; 2018). The International Development Agenda recognises informality (with its preliminaries) in the economic sphere as a concept already integrated within urban spatial planning. International recognition of the informal market in urban areas has also led to the formation of proportional urban economies for both the informal and formal markets; there is much evidence that both these markets are directly and indirectly interlinked in both function and operation.

In addition, in this proportional urban economy there are policies and institutional frameworks that are being considered by international agencies and developing countries; policies that promote informal markets in urban areas via basic facilitation strategies and the management of resources (Brown and McGranahan, 2016). The intention is to integrate the two markets, not only in research but also in the spatial physical spectrum, as with other
sectors. This may be achieved with a strategic framework that allows for viable control and management of the informal market as it inevitably expands. The general idea is to allow the expansion of the informal market within the urban environment (a city on its own), through planning that enables effective growth and sustainable development.

3.2.2. Expansion of informality in urban areas

The book ‘Informal American City: Beyond Taco Trucks and Day Labour’ published by Mukhija and Loukaitou-Sideris (2014) discusses the phenomenon of urban informality expansion in the context of housing and economic sectoral planning. The authors look at the expansion and growth of informality in an urban environment initially not spatially planned for informality. The authors examine the legal barriers to entry and operations in the informal market since its emergence and discuss various social, economic and political dynamics. The issue of informality exclusion has resulted in the emergence of swollen cities. The argument is that through international migration, developed countries have been invaded by the developing world and this has caused cities to become unmanageable. The expansion of the informal market is seen because of the lack of employment opportunities in the developed countries, and this unmanaged expansion leads to degradation of the spatial elements within urban areas.

Another key factor contributing to this degradation of the spatial elements is the insufficiency of the urban spatial planning as it does not cater for the needs of the general public (Mukhija and Loukaitou-Sideris, 2014). Authors such as Rogerson (2015) also debate the expansion of the informal economy, and refer to the informal economy as being the urban poor’s safe zone and a creative response to the inability of the government to provide basic needs to the poor and unemployed. Faulty planning by not incorporating a significant informal trade activity line within the urban layout results in people situating themselves in places that benefit their trading activities, but which create issues with the management of the urban area.

Literature provides evidence that clarifies the differences between the formal and the informal sector, bringing forth the notion of informality being a sector on its own. The informal sector is exploited by the formal sector and is created by the urban poor without comprehensive bureaucratic contemplation of the planning required to accommodate it in the formal city (Brown and McGranahan, 2016). Without the contemplation of planning, there is little guiding system that aims to minimise the surge of other urban issues such as migration, uncontrolled urban sprawl and informal urban expansion. These issues are majorly influenced by international migration that results from poverty, wars and unemployment. As
stated above, international migration adds to the expansion of the informal market. Immigrants are most often denied formal employment so they end up resorting to informal trading in cities. With limited guiding systems due to the lack of planning contemplation results to increased migration movements, where increasing numbers of migrants migrate to urban environment to enter the informal market. And because the cities have not planned for these informal markets, these trading areas become increasingly dilapidated and congested, leaving little space for positive growth and improvement (see the Denmark case study). This is a clear reference to the level of inequality and exclusion that the informal economy experiences and the expansion of the informal markets occurrences without effective growth in many cases (ILO, 2014). Informal market exclusion within social and economic institutional, environmental and infrastructural urban planning policies is a delicate matter to be considered and initiatives need to be implemented to cater for sustainable development.

The rapid expansion of the informal market environment and the general public’s lack of participation outside the formal and planned system affects the spatial design of the city (space, land, size and time). This is because the city is unable to cater for both the rapid population increase of the urban poor and the existing formal workers. The city’s programme of operations then starts functioning in an unusual pattern and daily operations are disrupted, as are the city's capital transactions (Chepkemei, 2016). Harrison and Todes (2016) acknowledge the importance of informal market inclusion into the city’s plans via legalisation approaches and spatial planning framework strategies, working as a means of managing the city's functionality and operational sustainability as the informal market expands. The expansion of the informal market is inevitable. Everything that the Caucasian man has built is falling apart, so how can the government produce jobs to keep pace with the rate of population growth in the urban environments, asks Fourie (2018).

3.2.3. Functionality of the informal market in developing and developed areas

The concept of informal sector expansion persists in various developed countries, such as countries in Asia. Asia has a different take on the implications of the functionality and operation of the existing urban spatial planning framework in terms of the informal activities within the market. It has been one of the most developing continents in recent years (Desmet, Nagy, and Rossi-Hansberg, 2017). Even though Asia is rapidly developing, it recognises the need and importance for informal trading in its urban areas to try and reduce/alleviate poverty for the masses of poor citizens under poor conditions. Some governments, however, disregard informality in their countries, taking the view that the informal market will eventually be eradicated with growth (Skinner and Haysom, 2016).
Research focuses less on developed countries and more on developing countries such as those in Latin America and those in Africa. This is due to the fact that there is a high rate of informal market participation and investment in developing countries. In these countries the governments accept the informal economy as part of their cities and permanent features of the urban landscapes (Benjamin et al, 2014). This displays the initiative of informality inclusion in planning as part and parcel of the functionality of cities. Literature reveals the inclusion of the informal market as a concept that will not only persist, but is set to persist in a different form (e.g. with more interfacing with the formal economy and the international process of integration and formalisation).

Old and new debates around the informal economy are of contemporary relevance. This is mainly because the economy has not had a significant transformative paradigm, thus, researchers’ debates are influenced by basic information to present frameworks that are more or less the same as before. The analysing of informality and examining of ideologies concerning the informal sector are complex processes. The informal sector requires a wide ranging spatial configuration via planning and policy formulation directly focused on the informal sector’s current issues and limitations. This is, however, a complex narrative/endeavour, especially when planning approaches are to be implemented on the ground (Skinner, 2008). The variety of existing inequalities, degradation and unlegislated conditions among vendors is a barrier to the recognition of the importance of the sector and its growth or expansion (Cingano, 2014; OECD, 2015).

There are different factors related to the informal activities within the informal market, namely mobility; fixed activities; annual or monthly income; large and small scale activities, etc. There is a need to formalise these activities in a spatial context by means of a spatial planning framework and policy formulation. Mabilo (2018) argues that on an international level the informal economy is segmented into different categories, which include gender; class; social group; employment status and work place, etc. This gives a picture of how complex the informal sector is, as it is found in a variety of places, states, and in the majority of countries. The informal sector is vast and cannot be defined as one type of entity, according to the researchers who have looked at the phenomenon from different perspectives and tried to do just that. The informal sector is basically an environment of unregulated activities, however, this environment can be found in a variety of places so it is considered to be multi-faceted, with the capacity to appear in diverse forms in different places. Kilby (1971, cited in Mwasinga, 2013) proposes that while the informal sector is frowned upon based on its interchangeable nature, its very nature is driving the need to formulate a normative planning framework to deal with it.
3.2.4. The informal market as a means of employment creation

The first epistemology of the informal sector occurred in the works of Hart in Ghana, Accra (Hart, 1973). The information in Harts’ work debates the vitality/strength of the informality within urban areas in the context of small scale service provision. The activities signify gainful employment as a means of wealth creation. The question related to the ability of the formal sector to create employment is recognised, leading to the question of “why the informal sector struggles to do the same?” (Hart, 1973). Evidence has shown in various debates that the majority of the informal market traders are unskilled and illiterate, many are international migrants, while others have moved in from the rural or urban-peripheral areas. Because of this the activities are not covered by a labour force framework. The informal market is more of a dynamic survivalist element of the urban poor, according to Hart (1973), and the informal activities also include criminal activities; pop-up activities, transportation operations, etc., all formally categorised under the informal sector (Mwasinga, 2013).

Some authors like Foster (1982) and Nisbet (1967) discuss various topics related to the informal market from different perspectives, including informal apprenticeships to help upskill the market participants and credit markets to assist them financially with their businesses. In Abede (2016) article, this researcher provides evidence of the informal market being neglected by being excluded from urban planning initiatives. In fact, not only is this sector neglected, barriers are put in place to restrict and reduce its uncontrollable growth. The ILO discusses the variety of license types provided to vendors active in the market place in general, but many of the informal vendors’ activities are not recognised by the authorities so these vendors do not have the privilege of applying for a license to participate recognisably within the urban environment. Their vending without recognised licence then increases the number of activities considered ‘illegal’ in the cities. This exclusion of the market also limits the understanding of the informal traders’ actions and businesses and this contributes to the difficulties with management and control, preventing the formulation of a relevant policy that could positively benefit informal operations and increase employment opportunities (Abebe, 2016).

Policy recommendations made by the ILO (2007) concerning trade licensing gave rise to debates about the informal sector; debates focussed on elucidating the role and capacity of the informal trading sector in socio-economic development. The debates discuss the term ‘informal trader’ as people who trade on a particular scale (small), and who are based in unregulated spatial patterns and in groups, offering a diversity of services and products to willing clients. The trading by these informal traders acts as a platform for earning income for the urban poor (De Soto, 1989). This perspective of informality as a platform is categorised
into various schools of thought and is discussed by Chen (2012) in the article ‘The Informal Economy: Definitions, Theories and Policies’. Chen (2012) explores the findings and views (old and new) presented by researchers, concerned with identifying the characteristics and key points of the informal sector within an urban spatial planning framework. There is variation/competition between the schools of thought/paradigms in their portrayal of informal trading. Chen (2012) discusses: i) the dualist school of thought (discussed in chapter three, the Conceptual and Theoretical Framework); ii) the structuralist school; iii) the legalist school and iv) the voluntarist school.

a) The diversity of informal activities in the market

Summarising the nature of the informal market requires looking at the paradigms that discuss the economy and its marginalised activities, and their diversity and different characters. There is a belief that the formal sector is the sector that provides income for the poor yet the first paradigm, the dualist school of thought, talks about the exclusion of the informal market from modern economic opportunities (Mabilo, 2018). This means there are suppressive limitations opposing the growth of the informal sector, enforcing the idea that the formal market always has the upper hand in the marketplace. The debate continues to list the cause of the issue as the imbalances related to growth rate, social oppression, differences in population, and differences in economic opportunities. It is put forward that all of these differences/factors result in the emergence of informal sector activities (Sibhat, 2014. The imbalance between the two sectors then increases the number of people participating in informal trading activities while occupying former unoccupied spaces within urban areas. The informal sector is considered to function in a different market space, although linked to the formal market’s large scale establishment. Regardless, the relationship between the informal and formal should not deny either sector from accessing government assets and regulatory systems.

The dualist paradigm mentions the economy as being one inseparable whole rather than being segregated into first and second economies (Clement, 2015). The connection between the two sectors occurs through policies and frameworks, which are vital factors in understanding the operations and effects of the existing linkages between these sectors, and there is clear evidence with regards to inequality in the decision making processes for each sector. Nevertheless, communication between the informal and formal sector is based more on the creation of more employment, credit provision, and small initiatives towards development services for informal operators and basic infrastructure (Fourie, 2018).
The second paradigm (structuralist school) discusses the matter of informal and micro enterprise workers using the city’s capacity to reduce their input and labour costs. This is considered as an advantage to large firms as it results in competitiveness. This highlights the effectiveness of informality on capitalist growth. Its effectiveness outlines the level of organised labour power and efficiency, regulation of the economy by the state, competitiveness, and the production and trading processes needed in the urban environment for both sectors (Moser, 1978). The paradigms recognise the interconnectedness of the informal and formal economies and the inequalities thereof. This is evidence of the ideology used by both informal and formal enterprises, which is to provide affordable goods and services (capitalist business model) (Ram, 2016).

b) Role of government in planning for informal market

The role of government is outlined as a process of limiting and reducing inequality and increasing accessibility between big and small producers, managing and regulating the relationship within a compacted spatial form (Skinner, 2002). The third paradigm (legalists’ school of thought) reflects on the micro-entrepreneurs’ preference for the informal market arena as it is best in cost reductions and as a means to avoid registration procedures (Chen, 2012). It considers legislation as a factor that affects the operation of self-employed individuals, and authors argue that it leads to self-employed individuals choosing informality within their legal norms (Skinner, 2002). The legalists’ paradigm debates the regulatory systems imposed on the informal environment and enterprises in an urban area. It also recognises the communication between government and the formal economy in the attempt to initiate entry barriers to the informal economy. This relationship places pressure on the management and regulative protocols of the informal sector. Due to the prevention of registration and assets acquisition via access to legal property rights, assets used to acquire capital and produce are very costly so the informal market struggles to operate in urban areas.

The fourth paradigm (voluntarist school) bases its views on informal activities by entrepreneurs that intentionally avoid cost implications (taxation) and registration fees. It is argued that operators in the informal sector choose the benefits of this environment based on their income and the reduced costs of operating in these spaces, thus they occupy vacant spaces within urban areas and automatically compromise the spatial layout and design as there are no appropriate physical/infrastructural configurations. The invasion of the urban areas without any legal recognition from the state and spatial form itself causes more issues. Movement within the economic market in urban areas is a result of inconsistency in spatial planning policies and frameworks. There is inequality in terms of economic operations and
neglect of the poor and their economic advancement. The informal sector creates an advantage for those otherwise unemployed, therefore, this sector should not be considered as an unregulated burden but rather as an economic catchment area advantageous to its users. Researchers who subscribe to this school of thought also outline the notion that formal enterprises create unfair competition for informal enterprises. The argument lies around the initiative to establish a system where formal and informal enterprises are not incorporated within the same regulatory environment. The intention behind this is to increase the spatial efficiency to improve the viability of the operations, keep costs reasonable, maintain a tax base and limit unfair competition (Wangwe and Mmari, 2013). The different descriptions of the informal sector by the different researchers subscribing to the different paradigms gives rise to the heterogeneity of the economy. Despite this, there are still gaps in clarity and understanding of the economy as a whole due to its complexity and the limitations of each paradigm.

3.3. INFLUENTIAL ECONOMIC FACTORS WITHIN URBAN AREAS

The informal market faces a variety of factors that are influential if/when they occur. These factors are national and local issues that determine the production level and growth capacity of the economy (In on Africa, 2013). Factors such as migration, unemployment, spatial defragmentation and rapid urbanisation rates, etc. in developing countries propose the idea that developing countries have earned the character of ‘rapid urbanisation’, which in turn entails the rapid growth of informal activities and employment. Urbanisation increases informal activities as people try to survive in an urban environment, as for many their only option is to be employed in the informal market. This results in an increase in the number of informal operators, and in turn the expansion of the informal market areas. One of the characteristics of the informal market is its role of being the main source of livelihood for poor workers. These include a variety of disadvantaged people, the majority of whom are women and children. Another characteristic of the informal market is its unique ability to absorb employment, regardless of the pressures on the existing operators and on the environment, and a lack of positive economic growth (Skinner, 2008). The expansion and the rapid growth in the numbers of people who are dependent on their trade in the informal market challenge the initiatives taken by local, national and international organisations to alleviate the problems caused by these markets.

3.3.1. Migration patterns and their effect on the informal economy

Migration patterns have increased over the years as industry has undergone transition, moving from a predominantly agricultural industry in rural areas to an industrialised one
the urban environment (Delius, 2017). Other influential elements of this shift are technological innovations in the agricultural sector that replace the need for human labour, and the effects of climate change (Sassen, 2003). These major elements have affected agricultural production negatively, decreasing labour competitiveness in the agricultural sector and resulting in job losses. The transition and the migration into cities inevitably cause overcrowding and the urban environment becomes increasingly informal, especially in the dark areas of the city. It is very difficult to determine just how large the informal sector actually is, despite numerous attempts to do so.

The informal economy in developing countries, particularly African countries, has become a beacon of hope for employment for the majority of the unemployed. This is based on people and the states’ belief that the economy will grow sufficiently with modern industrial developments and that jobs will become available to them in the cities (Becker, 2004). The poor and unemployed thus migrate to urban areas to enter the economy in numbers and end up entering the informal economy, despite the fact that the spatial aspects of the urban environment are ill equipped to deal with their influx. Continuing migration and rising unemployment rates mean that the informal markets are going to remain as permanent fixtures in the urban areas of both developing and developed countries. In closing, the topic of informal employment and the informal economy is widely interpreted as an ‘issue’ for the privileged, but a ‘survival strategy’ for the underprivileged and poor (Becker, 2004).

3.3.2. Transition of operational systems: from a subsistence sector to a capitalist sector

Information from the urban areas of Asia, the Caribbean, Latin America and Africa shows that the issue of the informal economy persists and has become an undeniable truth and challenge. There is a high rate of non-agricultural employment ranging from 45-85 per cent in the urban informal markets of these regions (Becker, 2004, p. 6). This high rate is seen because the agricultural sector is being drained of human labour as explained above and people can most often only find work that is non-agricultural in nature. These non-agricultural informal activities sustain the unemployed and the employed poor, as they generate a higher income from their trading than they would have earned as wages in formal employment. These activities also comprise of old and new urban jobs, established by the unskilled and uneducated, and these jobs all contribute to the regions’ GDP/GNP (Mwasinga, 2013). On a global level the informal economy is increasing and the phenomenon has become a norm for the poor and their livelihoods. Towns and cities are now experiencing the same emergence of informal activities. The problem is that these informal activities interrupt globalisation.
objectives for a more fluid trading system, designed to improve spatial categorisations (National Planning Commission, 2015).

Existing debates acknowledge the basic needs which are a necessity for the poor’s social and economic livelihoods. They identify the moral realities of the informal economy’s operational patterns. They also look at summarised international issues that affect the urban space, local systems and production; pointing out key issues which influence the growth patterns of the informal sector regardless of the existing spatial planning. Key issues generally affect women more than men as women dominate the informal space (UN Habitat, 2004; Chen, 2001: 4-5). Becker (2004: 18) speaks on street vending becoming one of the largest categories of informal work accommodating women, especially in Africa, Southeast Asia and Latin America. This is basically due to the point that there are increasing numbers of women who are heads of their households and have dependents. The majority of the migrants are women and children and migrants generally have difficulty entering for entry into formal employment because they are uneducated and unskilled. The alternative for them is to enter the informal market so that they can earn a living.

### 3.3.3. Investments into the urban environment

Debates also encompass technical and telecommunications investments into the urban environment to transform the urban form, but these investments seldom benefit informal workers. Investments are generally directed at higher tier capitalist operators in keeping with globalisation ideology, the majority of whom lie within the formal sector. Globalisation attempts to use hyper mobility as a means of generating profit. Sassen (2003) is of the view that the migration patterns are evidence of structural adjustment programmes (of the 1980s and 1990s) aimed at improving countries’ social and economic welfare, where citizens are encouraged to migrate into other, better urban environments for the chance of a better life. Investments that attempt to contribute to the growth of the informal sector in developing countries are often hindered by various exploitative practices, such as exposure to foreign goods, privatisation and public sector restructuring.

The lack of policy formulation for the informal sector and the lack of advocacy support for spatial planning affect the process of investment control and management in achieving their intended goal of growth in the sector. Skinner (2008) outlines that this causes the informal economy to decrease further in efficiency, control, management and independence as the population increases and fewer investments are made. The response of the transition with regards to investment also affects the formal economy by minimising the employment capacity within the formal economy. Some researchers like Landau (2010) allude that spatial
planning inequalities are major issues that result from exclusive and exploitative development initiatives. Investments and capital within the urban form are also unequally distributed and utilised (Ndabeni, 2016).

Lacking investment and increased rates of international migration further results in political crises (Metcalfe-Hough, 2015). Increases in voluntary migration or forced migrations are seen in African countries whose cities lack investments and capital as a result of political instability. This is common in countries like the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Somalia, Zimbabwe, Liberia, Sierra Leone, Rwanda, Burundi, Ethiopia and Eritrea. In these countries these events force citizens to enter the informal market as a means of earning an income, even though there is little to gain from the marketplace (Landau, 2010).

Governments are constantly attempting to solve the problem of capital transactions and migration patterns, but Lucas (2015) asserts that the problem is difficult to solve. Various initiatives led by governments to secure and stabilise investments are aimed at dealing with informal operators’ activities. These initiatives include evictions (as in the case of Zimbabwe’s ‘Operation Murambatsvina’) and permit requirements to create barriers to trading. Another strategy is the integration of informal vendors into urban plans, such as in Bhubaneshwar in India where vendors have been incorporated into spatial planning frameworks (Kalyani, Hod and Reader, 2016). National governments are, however, still concerned with the question of how to adequately incorporate the informal market into the urban fabric.

3.4. URBANISATION AND A CONTINUOUS CHANGE IN URBAN DESCRIPTION

The establishment or implementation of existing and new remedial strategic spatial planning frameworks will lighten the stress on the city as it tries to accommodate everyone who operates within its boundaries. The initiation of developmental progress in planning for the urban informal space entails the configuration of the urban space. Researchers attest that the continuous change in the nature and mechanics of the informal economy, in structure, operation and functionality, create challenges (Sibhat, 2014). This continuous change is a systematic alteration which occurs without guiding and evaluating strategic spatial tools. This makes it complicated to keep track of which solution might work, what has worked, and what will never work in solving the existing issues related to the informal market.

The role and nature on the informal sector has become a discourse that requires the involvement of private, non-government organisations and governmental resources to implement a proper urban planning mandate. A planning mandate that is encouraged by the concept of inclusiveness and equity for all who benefit from the urban form (including:
capital, policy formulation, assets, accessibility, protection, etc.) rather than the government taking control (World Economic Forum, 2017). There is an argument raised by Skinner (2008), from a planning viewpoint, which states that the urban poor are provided with adequate and appropriate services and goods by the informal economy, at strategic locations within the city.

Skinner (1999), attempts to reveal the basic ideologies behind various dynamics that affect the continuous change of the informal market within urban areas. From an economic standpoint, individual incomes are considered to be low-classed, however, the income generated does still contribute to local economy and the national GDP (Kingdon and Knight, 2001). The market is never stable and consistent in terms of demand and supply, and this stimulates the movement of operations with regards to changes in location and in the products and services provided to maintain the activeness of business within the market. Thus, the people in these informal market communities should act and be recognised as having a political voice as they are involved in the country’s economic productivity. They should take a stance before the government and argue for support and urban planning inclusion of the marginalised poor so that they can stop suffering from the previous colonial and exploitative systems (Siphuma, 2009).

The informal market challenges the spatial element of the city as urban public spaces such as pavements and open ground are claimed by traders as their individual working spaces (Dobson, 2009). The rapid urbanisation (facing both developed and developing countries) and the limited public spaces available in urban cities are issues that need vigilant and direct attention. The municipality has selected spatial zones in various areas, and allocated it for use by traders, but these traders are required to obtain permits and register to operate their businesses there. The influx of poor people occupying the public spaces designed for purposes other than informal trading as means of employment creates overcrowding and environmental degradation and the people tend to allocate their own spaces, regardless of permit and registration requirements (Wapwera, 2013).

3.4.1. Challenge of urban changes

Literature reveals the issue of urbanisation as a challenge for researchers and professional planners. A planner’s role in the planning process is essential as they are responsible in guiding the direction of development in urban areas. Skinner’s (1999) planning perspective regarding the informal market, entails apprehending the direction of development in the urban areas. Skinner outlines the increased rate of informal operations within confined spaces designated for other uses. These operations are active and inadequately managed,
and the existing spatial planning frameworks result in congestion within the cities and limit the efficiency with which good services are provided to the urban poor (eThekwini Municipality, 2012/2013). Competition increases, and so too does the level of exploitative trading. This, in turn, creates more inequality and acts as a barrier to positive growth and expansion initiatives, challenging people looking for employment opportunities (Braun, Corrarino and Ma, 2011). Literature also shows that urbanisation issues are interrelated with existing governmental services. These services are the provision of basic necessities like infrastructure, facilities and resources. The government fails to increase service delivery as the population rate within the informal market increases, so eventually the services provided become inadequate (Pillay, 2008). The majority of countries’ governmental support is fragmented and biased, and governmental approaches to informal trading in urban environments has been unmanaged therefore they struggle to sufficiently regulate and address issues within the informal markets.

Some authors allude that political transitions in various countries have affected the way that informal markets function. Skinner’s (1999) research reveals that political influence is the voice of a politician as opposed to a politician being the voice of the people. The exclusion of the community in political processes, planning processes and decision making inevitably affects the voiceless. The author also mentions some beneficial improvements for some informal operators; namely that the states in some developing countries take initiatives to incorporate informal trading into urban planning, establishing management departments and the provision of resources and services. Skinner (1999) does not, however, mention that the informal traders are involved in decisions that result in service delivery.

The provision of resources includes the attraction of investments in urban strategies to benefit the poor within the informal environment (both economically and socially). Spatial development is an expansive initiative that needs funds, resources and skills. Unfortunately, there is no strong, sustainable and viable urban strategic framework that spatially configures the previous systematic informal patterns and designs. Such a framework could attract positive investments for both the informal and the formal economies, for equal distribution. This lack of acceptable framework and investment brings about disadvantages as some of the measures taken attract capitalism and exploitation at the expense of the poor (Essays, 2013).

3.4.2. Inequality within the urban form

The systematic formation of the city in terms of spatial planning (frameworks) is clearly biased and discriminatory, favouring the interests of the elite (formal market) and the middle
class within the economic sphere while neglecting the poor (informal market) (Skinner, 2002). Authors argue that the integration of informal market/street traders and their activities into spatial planning frameworks can influence the development of tools. These tools can be used to rejuvenate the city economically and socially, promoting the social-economic aspect of the poor within the informal market (eThekwini Municipality, 2013). The dependable research on these phenomena might inform the current or future formulation of adequate provincial, regional and national spatial development frameworks. What is needed are frameworks that will work efficiently to achieve economic growth, both locally and nationally, to reduce the implications of urbanisation for the poor and incorporate different classes, including the deprived and the poor (Turok and Borel-Saladin, 2014). The poor need to get involved in informal trading activities as a means of self-employment within the informal economy in eThekwini (Wapwera, 2013). Their involvement will motivate the planning frameworks to be inclusive and integrate the welfare of the poor using a variety of economic opportunities, stressing not only the importance of inclusive framework formulation but also the implementation of the formulated frameworks. The research on the integration of the informal economy into spatial planning frameworks might resolve in acquiring adequate provincial, regional and national development information. This information will play a role in prescribing better ways and better tools to be utilised for inclusive and integrative spatial planning to benefit the poor, instead of segregation by means of spatial planning and infrastructural planning.

3.5. NATIONAL LITERATURE: DEVELOPING COUNTRIES’ POLICIES ON THE INTEGRATION OF INFORMAL MARKETS

The majority of countries in the developing world have not achieved integration of the informal economy into developmental frameworks. In addition, the rapid urbanisation rates create a rise in urban poverty, resulting in rising unemployment rates and the working poor class (Wapwera, 2013). In Tanzania the majority of the population occupies urban spaces in an informal manner as there are high levels of unemployment in Tanzanian cities, with many of the unemployed coming from the formal sector. The informal activities in the urban areas operate in an irregular and unregulated manner, in undermanaged activity zones (urban informal sector) (Chepkemei, 2016).

Many debates have emerged concerning the informal market's nature and what this market/sector has to offer the urban environment. Some authors believe that the informal sector is disadvantageous to the urban environment at large, while some identify major beneficial factors for the people and the city, especially if planning is adequate (see theoretical and conceptual framework, chapter two). These authors focus mainly on the
operational systems; capacity; independence; capabilities; the nature of the urban spatial planning and its levels of inclusiveness; social and economic development systems; and framework implementation outcomes (Acharya, 1983). The segregation of the two sectors (formal sector and informal sector) has created a debate related to the advantages and disadvantages of their relative connectivity. The question raised by this segregation is whether they are beneficial and benign towards each other, or whether they are exploitative and limit each other’s profits (Kay, 2011)?

3.5.1. Government’s potential initiatives

The focus of the governments and their capacity to implement effective measures to deal with the informal markets in developing countries is neither satisfactory nor substantial. However, there has been an initial recognition of the significance of the informal economy within the economies of scale by the national and local governments in these countries (Lema, 2013). Authors like Susanne et al (2012) discuss the necessity of governments establishing spatial planning strategies and policy frameworks as tools to uphold the potential of the informal markets’ production and to solve any issues within the informal markets. Susanne et al (2012) also advise that the vision for the incorporation of the informal economy into frameworks must be strategic and sustain a positive economic growth.

Developing countries experience difficulties in formulating strategic and spatially inclusive frameworks, and planning initiatives should support improving the value, operational systems and functionality of the informal environment (Lema, 2013). Tanzania is one of Africa’s developing countries facing informal sector intricacies, but it has introduced planning programmes that have included a small portion of the informal economy, including SME’s and SMME’s.
3.5.2. Tanzania case study

Figure 3.1: Tanzania and its economic and social dynamics (cultivation zones, boundaries and social issues like crime)

a) Policy implications in Tanzania

The inclusion of the informal economy into policy has increased contributions to the economy of Tanzania. The government is developing a national policy that intends to
stimulate a series of potential SMMEs' capabilities, along with the support of the private sector (Wangwe and Mmari, 2013). This is shown in the above figure 3.1, where potential and economic zones are highly operational. Tanzania’s government has outlined its vision regarding the country’s economy incorporating more economic contributors into urban planning gateways to achieve a more diverse, vigorous and inclusive economy. The notion behind the proposals is to create an economic spatial environment that has a strong domestic supply and demand value add capacity (Salaam, 2002). The intention is to use this initiative as a progressive outlet in the economic and social development agenda, leading government to further invest at a local and national level for the reduction of urban poverty.

b) Government and collaboration in development

The achievement of this government goal generally requires the redefining of private and public sector responsibilities, roles and capacities. Therefore the government, in a joint venture with the private sector, has established the Economic Reform Programme (ERP) (Lema, 2013). The ERP sees the government managing and facilitating the economy and changing to become a public goods producer, also encouraging job creation and employment growth in the private sector. All of this is necessary because Tanzania’s informal sector is lacking in productivity, innovation, strategic spatial formulation, value added activities and policy frameworks, thus creating slow growth in various economic spectrums. The nature of the economic design in Tanzania is diverse (Salaam, 2002). The formal sector is operating under conditions which confine its functionality and it is an export-oriented, non-competitive (within a modern environment) and small polarized sector, The formal sector thus operates within a limited spectrum, while the informal sector has a large spectrum with low rates of growth and focuses on the provision of services on a domestic scale (Salaam, 2002).

In 1991 there were approximately two million informal operators engaged in informal activities, according to the Informal Sector Survey of 2000. Authors argue that the strength of the informal sector is driven by the decreased government payroll, with large publicly-owned corporations being privatised (Rei and Bhattacharyya, 2008). This argument brings forth the notion that the informal market will function if more people enter the sector. A decreased government payroll and privatisation resulted in thousands of people losing their jobs and moving into the informal market. Interacting with each other on an economic and social level, these participants and other parties bring new ideas and mechanisms onto the trading platform. This environment also has social housing, bringing into one working environment different informal activities in different occupations, with different levels of service. This
allows for the diffusion of segregation amongst the poor via the sharing of information and trading skills. The formal private sector in Tanzania does not have the capacity to absorb shocks in the market, and this has resulted in the growth of the informal sector with the establishment of new business operations, as people intend to survive economically (Danielson, 2000). The table below shows indicators of Tanzania’s poverty rates and starting positions, indicating the social and economic stability. The average developing country is more developed than Tanzania, according to these indicators. Table 3.1 below shows the health level, education level, and the infrastructure and housing gaps in Tanzania, which reveal the level of unemployment and the lack of service delivery by the government to the community.

Table 3.1. Poverty and social indicators of Tanzania and the averages for developing and developed countries

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicators</th>
<th>Unit</th>
<th>Tanzania</th>
<th>Average for developing countries</th>
<th>Average for developed countries</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>GDP per capita</td>
<td>US$</td>
<td>240</td>
<td>970</td>
<td>16394</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Population living below the poverty line</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>Not available</td>
<td>Not available</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(0-5 years) mortality rate</td>
<td>Per 1000 live births</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maternal mortality</td>
<td>Per 100,000 live births</td>
<td>200-400</td>
<td>384</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Literacy rate</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>85.5</td>
<td>99.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enrolment in primary school</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enrolment in secondary school</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>35-47</td>
<td>Not available</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Patient ratio of Doctors</td>
<td>Patients per Doctor</td>
<td>23,000</td>
<td>5767</td>
<td>344</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malnutrition</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>Not available</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Households with water supply (indoors)</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>63.3</td>
<td>74.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>People in temporary settlements</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>Not available</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average life expectancy</td>
<td>Years</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>63.3</td>
<td>74.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Report, ILO SED( 2001)
Previous efforts to bridge the gaps shown in the table involved large enterprises trying to absorb the unemployment and increasing levels of poverty by soliciting foreign investments. The Tanzanian government passed the Tanzania Investment Act in 1997, which focused on making foreign investment simpler. This resulted in the Tanzania Investment Roadmap (TIR) being established to scrutinise the investment process in Tanzania. This initiative occurred upon the government’s observation of declining investment into the economic sphere - it noticed a decline in investments between 1991 and 1995. The intention of the government was to improve local and foreign investment in the formal and informal economies, thus the Tanzania Investor Roadmap (1996, p. 12) states:

“While the current regulatory environment is difficult for medium and large scale formal sector firms, it is largely inappropriate and irrelevant to micro and small scale informal businesses. It is virtually impossible for small businesses to operate legally. Consequently, the current environment encourages businesses to remain small, informal, and operating outside many of the constraints faced by large more visible operations. Although informal sector entrepreneurs, by being informal, may operate outside some of the constraints faced by larger enterprises, they face multiple obstacles of similar and different nature. Besides the fact that informal sector entrepreneurs often cannot operate without permits and do face regulatory constraints, they also have to deal with insecure and inappropriate working places, harassment by authorities and limited access to utilities and other inputs and services”.

The government’s focus in Tanzania of endorsing and supporting informal and formal small and micro corporations is an initiative that is being planned (United Nations industrial development organization, 2012). Policy formation by the government has significantly improved the regulatory systems for informal and formal small and micro business operators (Pahwa, 2006). The ideology behind the nature of the process the government is initiating as a support structure comes from the realisation of the fact that the informal sector is ill-equipped for the process of formalisation. The goal is thus to give access, support, resources, and to formulate strategy for the informal market to operate in a formalised environment (Salaam, 2002; URTMIT, 2002). The government established the Ministry of Industries and Trade’s Sustainable Industrial Development Policy (MITSIDP) for this purpose although it currently does not have any specific mechanism for implementation (Pahwa, 2006).

The Ministry’s draft SME Development Policy (SMEDP 2001-2011) identified that the enterprises have not benefited sufficiently from programmes that attempt to reform the Tanzanian economy in relation to the informal and formal small, micro and medium sized operations. The intention is thus to adjust the inconsistency in the benefits with the implementation of different measures which include spatial planning performance that enhances informal business establishment and beneficial competition between the formal and informal sectors (Ligthelm, 2013). This also includes the improvement of operating SMEs and the improvement of urban spatial fragmentation related to spatial availability and
accessibility, to allow strategic economic patterns and social connections in Tanzania. The major focus, however, is the creation of sustainable jobs and income generation. With the contribution of informal and formal small, medium and micro operations toward business shares, the Tanzanian SME Development Policy (SMEDP) intends to improve and promote operations as it outlines the process of emerging individual sector and privately led sectorial growth (UNIDO, 2012). Making a policy that is spatially inclusive; focused on removing entry and trading barriers; developing, growing and expanding; and that increases productivity and quality is a complex assignment for the likes of Tanzania. Spatial reformation is an objective within SMEDP programmes and the programmes focus on being strategic when creating spatial designs that are viable for the informal market.

3.6. INTERNATIONAL LITERATURE: DEVELOPED COUNTRY

On an international level informal sector integration is a complex endeavour, and the complexities are experienced mostly by developed countries. This is revealed by observing literature concerned with various planning approaches. Approaches are constantly proposed and implemented, in a remedial attempt to integrate the informal sector into urban spatial planning frameworks (Ntombela, 2016). The existence of such research allows the reader to extract the nature and design of the existing and potential systems utilised to facilitate the successful/acceptable operation of the informal sector within an urban spatial context. The successful operation of this sector will bring about economic and social benefits especially for the poor and previously deprived that need it the most.

3.6.1. Governments and the political stance in developed countries

Developed countries are conscious of the nature informal markets in urban areas, authorities also recognise the potential and operational capacity it has. Gërçhani (2004) specifically outlines the way in which the informal sector is examined in developed countries, he uses three unique but interrelated concepts. First is government regulation; the second is illegal activities; and third is national statistics (GNP). The categorisation of these three concepts suggests that governments in developed countries play their roles in urban planning meanwhile being consciously involved in the operation of the markets (informal and formal). The nature of these markets entails their operation playing a safety net for when markets fail. The government thus attempts to eliminate external factors by formulating strict policies and providing public goods and services for the public as means of control. However, they still lack radical and strategic policy frameworks to deal with the informal sector adequately because of the rapid increase of unemployment rates that leads to the rapid increase of informal markets.
The increase of informal markets in urban areas and the level of involvement government initials have in the informal sector gives rise to doubts about the main agenda of their participation. Researchers such as Frey (1989), argue the possible government involvement in the informal market is imitated even in the event of market failure. The balance between the formal and informal sectors is uncertain based on information provided by the state. And government involvement (without an informal spatial economic and social policy framework to guide, manage, facilitate and protect the sector) is a process that could create more chaos within the market. This means if government involvement to the informal market is always limited, the government will continually limit the operation of informal markets/activities by policies. Frey's (1989) theory recommends government restriction as a service provider and public bureaucrat (political suppliers), governments’ roles should rather focus on facilitating and providing resources, opportunities and access to facilities. Issues related to the informal market in developed countries are related limitations established by laws and regulations as a strategy to control and manage operations, as Gërxhani (2004) mentions above. Some laws involve the reduction of informal operations outside of legal and regulatory control.

While this may be perceived as simple and harmless on paper, in reality it has a number of disastrous implications for the poor, as they generally operate outside of the laws and regulations so many of them are affected by such controls. Researchers contend that the existing frameworks are biased and entail exclusion principles that promote the governments’ interests (as a means of attaining political power) rather than look after the interests of the publics (Enste and Schneider, 2000). Gërxhani (2004: 270) states:

“The idea behind this classification is that it captures the influence of the informal sector on politics [involving lack of government regulation, illegal activities and consequently substantial errors in measuring the national product (GNP)].”

3.6.2. Lack of concentrated informal market frameworks

The political-government-interest based functionality is the key issue in the dysfunctionality of the informal sector in developed countries. The lack of government regulation is an incorrect statement because there are existing government regulations. Rather, there is a lack of informal spatial planning frameworks (or informal sector concentrated spatial policy frameworks) (Wapwera, 2013). The absence of an efficient spatial planning framework lends itself to exploitative agendas - agendas intended to influence the informal sector operations for self-interest gains. This involves government, organisations and the formal sector, and in addition it could create conflict between markets and sectors (due to the lack of sectorial borders and beneficial information: relevant market relationship and communication based information). This exposure to exploitation is also due to the lack of collaboration between
stakeholders and all actors, and the exclusion of the community from decision making is a problematic reality.

The current spatial planning and design pattern of the informal and formal markets lacks a vital element which is beneficial information. Frey (1989) suggests that the recognition of information as a tool to connect the spatial patterns of the two sectors is essential as it creates an organised and well-coordinated structure in reference to the efficient functionality of the market. In addition, it creates a constructive and advantageous relationship between the two sectors and other relevant actors. The issue that might cause this lack of information is the lack of a mediatory platform for informal operators (Frey, 1989).

a) Lack of community involvement

The lack of a voice for the informal sector agents reveals that informal operators cannot be or are not properly represented by any trade unions (Gërshani, 2004). Individuals within the informal market are not interested in joining unions, and it is an issue for trade unions when informality in the market (informal activities and operators) increases. This results in management and enablement initiatives becoming invalid as the capacity of the market is overwhelmed, creating flaws in facilitating processes with the unions. This issue of the community not becoming members of unions is not only related to the absence of interest. Interest is also reduced through written limitations, political barriers and excessive processes that undermine community resourcefulness. Besides community involvement in trade unions, the inability of the unions to function sufficiently results in cost implications, thus the states resort to limiting the functionality of the trade unions or even shutting them down based on their ‘failure to facilitate’ (Gërshani, 2004).

The lack of government regulations for informal improvement, lack of informal sectorial spatial planning frameworks, lack of information, lack of political representatives and lack of support from organisations creates a competition between the formal and the informal sectors; competition that is well known for inequality and exploitative processes. Literature shows that the implementation of development according to economic and social government stances is diverse (Wapwera, 2013). The governments’ intentions are to develop their countries based on the approach of ‘spending as a means of growth’, yet they foster spatial segregation at the same time because of their unequal approaches to the formal and the informal sectors. These development approaches divide the cities, dividing the spatial contexts in two and consequently manipulating the prospect of integration and compact cities. The development process entails the phenomenon of economic and social
dynamics. However, in addition to development initiatives it involves the application of physical alteration via spatial configuration (Wapwera, 2013).

The significance of spatial planning is that it can solve the issue of imbalances by creating an environment that promotes equilibrium and equity in decision making; equal access to facilities; sufficient cost related benefits for both sectors; spatial viability and integration; equal opportunities and resource provision, etc. This will ultimately be beneficial for both the formal and informal sectors (South Africa Department of Economic Development and Tourism, 2012). On the other hand, it could further the existence of the informal and formal sector related issues, exacerbating the existing imbalances and socio-economic instabilities through biased decisions and further spatial segregation and spatial limitations. The formal sector is consequently pressured by the informal sector due to competition, production flexibility and cost efficiency in goods and service provision. This creates a political controversy in which the formal sector has the upper hand in opposing the informal sector. This tampers with production levels and affects the GNP (Gërxmlani, 2004).

3.6.3. Case in Europe: Denmark profiling

The Kingdom of Denmark is a European sovereign state and a Nordic country south west of Sweden and south of Norway (bordered by Germany to the south). Denmark is 43,000 square kilometres in size and when compared to the individual states of the United States it is smaller (not including the self-governing regions of Greenland and the Faroe Islands) (Statistics Denmark, 2015). Denmark has a population of 5.5 million and a population density of 127 per km² (World Atlas, 2013). There are some settlements with 200 inhabitants, and 82 per cent of the population live in those settlements (Statistics Denmark, 2015). A further 14 per cent of the population live in smaller villages and the countryside, and 1.85 million live in Greater Copenhagen. The country is ranked very high on the international platform in respect of living up to the target of 0.7 per cent GNI which is prescribed by the United Nations (UN). Denmark is a country driven by a new agenda of a green economy. It is characterised by low levels of corruption, and social balance and equality. There is a high rate of employment, people can move easily between the different sectors of the economy and a high number of people earn minimum wages. Education is free and there is easy access to health care facilities. The country comprises of 406 islands and 75 of them are inhabited. Sixty-seven per cent of the land is used for agriculture as an approach to promote their green economy, 10 per cent is used for transport systems and urban zones, 12 per cent is dedicated to forestry, and 11 per cent is zoned as semi-natural areas (World Atlas, 2013). There are four large cities and the population in these cities ranges from 82,000 - 296,000 (World Atlas, 2013 accessed on 09/09/2018), see figure 3.2 below.
Hill (1989) states that 60 per cent of the workforce in Denmark is supplied from the informal economy, and there are various countries that recognise the importance of the informal economy and what it contributes towards the economy. The 15th International Conference of Labour Statisticians (ICLS) (ILO 2000, p. 3) defines the informal market as follows:

"informal sector enterprises on the basis of the following criteria: 3. They are private unincorporated enterprises (excluding quasi-corporations), i.e. enterprises owned by individuals or households that are not constituted as separate legal entities independently of their owners, and for which no complete accounts are available that would permit a financial separation of the production activities of the enterprise from the other activities of its owner(s). Private unincorporated enterprises include unincorporated enterprises owned and operated by individual household members or by several members of the same household, as well as unincorporated partnerships and co-operatives formed by members of different households, if they lack complete sets of accounts".

Countries in Europe have also encountered a rapid increase in population movement to cities for a better life (ILO 2000). Because the formal market is unable to provide new jobs for the increasing population, the informal economy in most countries, including developed countries, is absorbing the urban areas’ expanding labour force (McGranahan, 2016).
Denmark’s goal is for the informal market to expand and grow, and be influenced by the growth in the service sector employment experienced by other European countries. One of the objectives is to manage development at a pace relative to the population growth to avoid further economic and social issues. This is because the developing countries in Europe have difficulty in pacing their development with the rate of urban population increases. In conjunction with Denmark’s vision for the informal sector, the ILO took the initiative of establishing relevant projects in support of the informal operators’ training and social protection. The ILO also initiated local economic development programmes (Rezaei, Goli and Dana 2013).

a) Situation in Denmark
The informal market in Denmark is widely seen to be caused by the phenomenon of migrants. This is because migrants are unemployed and are usually excluded from the formal labour force. These migrants thus seek employment or pursue activities within the informal market as a means of survival (Potsiou, 2010). It is, however, difficult for these migrants to do this in Denmark as this country has very strict laws. People in the country either have legal status or they don’t, and if they don’t they do not have any rights and may be arrested and deported. The migrants who operate as informal traders lack representation whether they have legal status or not, as they do not have any connections to authorities and are limited to operating on their own. Migrants include former non-EU countries’ individuals, individuals with expired permits or no documents at all, seasonal workers, asylum seekers, etc.

Literature reveals that the informal workers are divided by various circumstances such as their individual legal status, social and human capital, isolation and laws. With the growing economy based on innovation in technology and capitalistic strategies in the country, there has been an increase in unemployment rates since 2003. This has resulted in people leaving the formal economy and entering the informal economy. The government’s observation of this trend of economic instability has resulted in the implementation of a series of legislative laws and regulations that act as barriers and place limitations on the informal market (Rezaei, 2008). The ideology behind migration is the individual’s belief that the informal market has the ability to provide an economic environment that is sufficient enough to accommodate their socio-economic needs and provide capital for them. This creates a discourse in which a better life is built upon economic success, especially for the underprivileged, and this attracts more people to enter the informal market and more migrants to migrate into urban areas in Denmark. The growth and expansion of the informal
sector is thus determined and governed by the systematic functionality and operation of informal workers (specifically migrants). Rezaei (2008, p. 32) outlines the operational patterns of individuals who do not have legal documentation, stating:

“Migrants who are completely non-compliant cannot afford being selective in any case. They do what they get and have no priorities beyond that of making money and working at underground economy UWT 33 green markets, supermarket, pizzeria, cafes and taxi, construction sales etc.”

This reveals the situation at hand and this obliges the poor to resort to more pervasive activities such as young women selling their bodies for money for survival, exotic dancing, drug peddling, etc. (however, this research does not focus on such activities) (Potsiou, 2010). The imbalances mentioned above between the informal and formal economy result from the government’s self-interest are evidenced in Demark. With the lack of representative and legislative support the informal market is a risk to participants' investments. Formal actors such as trade unions are not trusted by informal operators, because they believe that unions do not work for the foreign migrants but rather for the Danish citizens and the formal sector. Migrants in the informal market are dependant and reliant on their own networks established upon rationality, common trust, and shared understanding of the authenticity of the informal market activities as a solution to the conditions of the poor (Gregor, 2008).

b) Government regulations and campaigns/programmes in Denmark

The trade and industrial policy performances in Denmark have attracted researchers in their divers stance and they have studied the informal economy in areas including Japan, examining existing informal market activities, opportunities, unemployment absorption capacity and production potential (McKay and Grant). Findings elucidate the government’s activities in Denmark, and it is seen that the government has been promoting the formulation of private cartels that operate via relational contracting amongst the informal and formal sector associations (Ibsen, 2012). The improved participation initiatives give markets (formal and informal enterprises/operators) access to decision making processes, the design and formulation of social and economic frameworks and involvement in the establishment of market and sector (problem solving) campaigns that are legally binding. The idea is to formalise the informal market by establishing laws intended to reduce informality in terms of crime and degradation. However there are various social and economic issues that still exist, such as imbalances and inequalities between the sectors caused by illegal informal governance by buyers and sellers who discriminate against informal activities (Tilton, 1994).
The government in the past few years has engaged in the implementation of a campaign that is equipped to reduce the informal economy. The intent is to strengthen the operational controls and increase sanctions against informal operators and employees that make regulatory offences. The regulations are strict and the campaign is titled “Fair Play” (Willem and Heerden, 2011). The campaign entails the rational cooperation of the police force, tax authorities and the employment ministry. Operational controls are carried out by the authorities as they have more scope within and outside the work environment. According to literature the government is prepared to increase the weight of penalties on companies operating in the informal economy and illegal workers will be indorsed with harsh sanctions. This action campaign is designed to manage and control the informal activities and put a stop to tax avoidance, illegal operations, unregulated social benefits and fraud benefits from unemployment (Willem and Heerden, 2011). The informal economy is diverse in Denmark and the trade unions support this initiative to reduce informal operations in such a manner. The trade unions encourage the legitimate regulatory controls of the illegal operations in industries such as hotels, construction companies, restaurants and retail shops. This campaign is supported by the large formal employers because it is seen as the solution to their fears regarding the unfair competition from the informal market. The competition is perceived as unfair because of the easy access into this market and its low costs of production and supply in comparison to the formal market.

c) Formalisation approach

The operations in the informal market are gradually being formalised and regulated to reduce the amount of informality, as explained above. This is being achieved using programmes such as the council approach established in West Africa, where five countries have adopted the same approach and have been supported by the Danish trade union development projects directory (LO/FTF). The council approach entails the development of training courses financed by the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Labour (Assens and Tabor 2015). In this programme informal operators are selected for entrepreneurial and technical training aimed at improving and developing their individual businesses, and the participants pay for some of the courses (employers or employees pay). The training includes skill development training and information concerning taxation and basic accounting. The informal market in Denmark is intended to be incorporated within labour legislation, with improved workers’ rights, provision for safety and security and accessibility to health facilities. This will establish a viable and efficient informal work environment (Assens, 2015). Short term adult occupational training provides the basis for the courses and they are continually developed and structured according to the Danish Federation of Small
and Medium-Sized Enterprises, the Danish Union of Education and the Danish Union (Assens, 2015). The courses are updated frequently and changes are made to meet the needs of and the necessity for the informal labour market.

3.7. SPATIAL PLANNING AS A POLICY

Spatial planning is a policy according to Connie Hedegaard, Minister for the Environment in Denmark (Østergård and Witt, 2007). It is a structure established within the country, placing local policy decisions as key. It answers questions like ‘what should be built and where? Which services should be built and for who? Which natural and environmental resources should be protected and which can be used and why? Planning entails the use of legislative instruments and regulations, and the adequacy of these elements is important for good planning initiatives. Comprehensive planning has been the Danish government’s responsibility since 2007 (Østergård and Witt, 2007). Responsibilities include the formulation of comprehensive spatial planning for both country and city levels. This has resulted in regional spatial development plans being overseen by new regional councils, thus spatial planning is being reformed and national planning is seen as being strengthened.

The Planning Act, Consolidated Act No. 813 of 2007 reveals that Denmark’s planning strategy involves a participatory process that requires the community to be involved. The spatial planning system is a decentralised system with a division of tasks. The nature of the Planning Act is that it only incorporates the participation of individuals who have “legal status”, excluding individuals without a legal status. Land-use-regulations are formulated and put together by municipal councils at a local level. The land-use-regulations consist of legally binding guidelines. Each region in Denmark has constructed a strategic spatial plan that outlines developmental goals in that region, and the individual plans are constructed by the regional councils in each region. At the national level the Minister of Environmental Planning is responsible for coordinating the national planning as a means of achieving the national interests. The development application phase requires a proposal to be published where organisations and the community can respond to it. Rules on the participation of the public are outlined in the Planning Act.

3.7.1. Spatial planning focus in Denmark

Changes in society have imposed new development requirements and transformative planning (Feola, 2015). Denmark has been focused on creating new social and technical infrastructure, although this infrastructure does not benefit everyone within the city. Social inequalities and underhand dealings by the state have resulted in continuous systematic transformation and change in spatial planning legislation and instruments (Galland, 2015).
Denmark’s Planning Act (Act No. 813 of 2007) is now focused on promoting strategic planning; improving industrial sites that have been abandoned and converting them into urban district mixed-use sites; improving participation in planning; and protecting town centres and coastlines that are vibrant.

The informal environment is excluded to a certain extent thus the Planning and Development (Act No. 6 of 2008) does not speak directly to the improvement and development of the informal market, even though Denmark does recognise the importance of this sector. What the government is concerned with is the informal sector operating within its legal boundaries and authenticity. The planning is not designed for everyone seeking a better life, but rather just those with the proper legal status and those already economically fit. Growth and development of the informal sector is thus limited and as far as the informal sector is concerned, the government is more interested in restricting unlawful activities and entry into the market to those who are legible.

3.8. SOUTH AFRICA AND SPATIAL INCLUSION OF INFORMAL MARKETS
Susanne et al. (2012) discuss the government’s initiatives towards the incorporation of the informal market into development systems. The authors allude that over the last years both national and local governments have recognised the value of the informal market in economic development (in African countries to be specific). Authors petitioning on behalf of the poor state that policy frameworks and spatial strategies focusing on the informal market must be developed without interfering with the potential for economic growth. However, the realisation of the challenges that the government faces in the formulation of these frameworks and spatial strategies is still a widely debated topic. The debate entails the subject of spatially inclusive and supportive frameworks. These frameworks should recognise the value and functionality of the informal market and the people working in the field. Lema (2013) in his journal titled ‘assessment of the informal sector and its impact on the economy in Tanzania: the case of Arusha Municipality’, highlights the contribution of the informal economy (SME’s and SMME’s) to the economy of Tanzania. The research mentions the policy inclusiveness of the informal economy, stating that the government developed a national policy that aims at triggering the potential capabilities of SMMEs via the private sector. Literature claims that the African continent is very concerned about the welfare of the poor and takes a ‘hands on’ approach with the improvement of its economic platforms, although it struggles to reach its desired goals and objectives with regards to the informal market’s growth and sustainability.
3.8.1. Informal markets in the South African spatial context

The post-apartheid era spatial frameworks were dependent on a design approach that was abstract, characterised by the use of nodes and corridors which became a standard form of South African planning (Todes, 2006). The approach was coordinated by the ideology of urban compaction which was focused on indicative guidance for spatial development. The author reveals that land use regulations and comprehensive planning were static and incapable of dealing with change. With the footprint of apartheid spatial planning was neglected and in the post-apartheid era planning still neglects the concept of the informal market. The current spatial framework planning in South Africa is thus still lacking, as various critiques outline (Watson, 2016; Todes, 2008; Harrison, Todes and Watson, 2008).

Literature debates that spatial frameworks are too utopian, contradicted by national policy, neglected in site decision making, and they do not align with land use management systems including infrastructure planning (Todes, 2006). However, the author reveals that some municipalities move beyond criticism towards plans closely related to both infrastructure and land use management approaches. Many spatial plans remain concept based, and planners need to obtain knowledge and understanding of urban economic space to see how planning relates to markets, including the informal market. Writers also suggest a strong incorporation of infrastructure planning, revealing that traditional planning attempts to bring into line infrastructure planning with land use planning and that infrastructure planning was intended to follow spatial planning (Biermann, 1998; Graham and Marvin, 2001). Charman and Petersen (2015) contend that the informal markets in townships are located throughout the townships, and the spatial pattern is irregular in that businesses are situated in what one would expect to be the prime business areas. Thus the authors argue that spatial frameworks should promote the township economy by coming to terms with the reality that already exists.

Scheba (2016), in the article ‘growing the informal economy: regulations and other obstacles to the spatial integration of informal enterprises’, states that official city policies declare government support for the informal market, and that national and local municipality by-laws contain spatial integration of the informal market in the city. The author suggests a more realistic and flexible approach that is inclusive and which will enable growth and transformation of the township economy and informal market (Scheba, 2016).

3.8.2. Legislation on the informal market’s situation

The Department of Economic Development and Tourism (DEDT) (2012) in the topic ‘policy for the informal economy of KwaZulu-Natal’ divulges the information that legislation
concerning national and provincial government areas of jurisdiction is ignored in the informal market. Responses to the informal market are instead unstructured policies and legislative interventions. The DEDT (2012) research states that the government only focuses on formal legislation for economic development at the national level. It discusses the creation of a spatial framework that supports economic growth in the informal market, the repealing of laws that limit governmental roles in regulating the informal market, and the research also talks about a policy framework that repositions the informal market into the country’s mainstream economy. Vermaak (2017), in the article based on social developments in the informal markets, states that the existing developmental polices struggle to bring about growth in the informal economic sector. Added to this, the informal economy is also characterised by tax evasion, illegal activities and corruption (Bernabe, 2002). Because the informal economy is not integrated into a formal framework it and is not properly regulated and aligned for development the, lack of economic growth is not unexpected. In some parts of the world the evidence of uncertainty within the informal economy has led to debates on development policy for this sector, and Vermaak (2017) goes on to expound on the importance of these policies and the types of development policies required for the sector.

In South Africa past policies, namely the Group Areas Act and the Native Land Act had a great impact on shaping the spatial features of the informal economy by influencing the migrant rate. These policies did not encourage the informal market to move into the urban environment or indeed even focus specifically on the market; they restricted any such activities in urban areas altogether and denied accessibility to infrastructure and resources. With the abolishment of apartheid and these apartheid era policies, large numbers of migrants started moving into urban areas and establishing informal activities, without the guidance of the necessary spatial planning strategies and without the necessary infrastructure and resources to support their activities (Tengeh and Lapah, 2013). The abolishment of the previous policies and frameworks and the subsequent failure to replace them with specific new policies placed a heavy burden on the spatial form of cities and the current informal economy’s space, functionality and character. Vermaak (2017) mentions the development of the National Development Plan to rectify the situation but expresses uncertainty that the new framework will work sufficiently and effectively in attempting to increase the quality of life of all people.

3.8.3. Experiences in South Africa

South Africa, in a transformative phase, has aligned its resources to focus on instituting programmes for the development of the informal economy. These programmes are intended to deal with the previous discriminatory economy via deregulation and privatisation, with
capitalisation as the key factor to South Africa's economic production mechanism (Vuslat, 2006). African people (Blacks) were the majority native group that were denied the right and privilege to utilise the available resources to make a livelihood suited for them. They were denied land, the right to operate formal businesses via wage and tax barriers, and were denied efficient and effective human development. The development they experienced instead was artificial as it did not improve their livelihoods and kept them stagnant, both socially and economically. This is because all development experienced was imposed on them by White superiors as an exploitative and oppressive strategy.

In order to eradicate this and to encourage Black people and promote wealth creation within African communities, the new South African government formulated programmes aimed at promoting Black owned businesses outside of urban townships. A new spatial planning approach was set in motion as businesses were directed and located in industrial parks and thus considered to be semi-formalised and apart from informal production activities. The spatial concept, with respect to the location of these businesses, has benefited the economic development within the semi-formalised sphere. The strategic spatial location, with its accessibility to the relevant support facilities and resources (provided by the industrial park) and within an environment that is deregulated, has had an effective outcome in reducing the existing developmental constraints. These constraints include a lack of capital, lack of accessibility and restrictive regulations. Now these businesses have access to new opportunities and benefit from the development of the surrounding environment. Vuslat (2006, p. 103 cited in ITC, (2003) states:

"Similar cooperatives were established in South Africa, Nepal and Cameroon where self-employed women gather to overcome economic and social vulnerability by providing business trading, establishing contacts with other networks and designing export strategies for its members” (ITC, 2003b; 2003c; 2003d).

This initiative has created jobs with conventional informal sector activities and outlined the benefits obtained from a mutual relationship between the informal and formal sectors. This has also made way for the informal sector to see the competition as an opportunity to grow. Interactions between the two sectors have increased, with the most effective approach of subcontracting being seen to be a beneficial outlet, increasing turnover and constructing a new platform for enterprises that are more complementary to the formal sector. Literature reveals that this initiative has consequently created a reliable income path with increased assistance and a spatial context within industrial parks (Vuslat, 2006).
3.8.4. Spatial patterns in urban areas

The South African government realises the configuration of the informal market and its importance in providing for the previously disadvantaged and the poor. The significance of the spatial pattern within South Africa is an issue as the post-apartheid government inherited the apartheid and colonial spatial planning (Skinner, 2008) and it is a difficult task to alter the spatial setting which is characterised by widespread segregation. It is a social-class based environmental setting, with poor residents on the outskirts of industrial parks/city centres. The urban design is also unequally distributed and pavement and street space used for informal street trading activities is limited. Access to resources is limited. Currently, the South African government has a role to play in improving the livelihood of the poor by supporting the informal market through urban spatial configuration and deregulation, rather than providing tax incentives (Beall, Crankshaw and Parnell, 2002).

The inauguration of the new democratic government in 1994 set a new agenda to promote, encourage by encouraging, and support the Black community socially and economically. Attempts to connect the isolated townships on the periphery of the cities, via transport and land use planning, need two critical subjects for adjusting the spatial fragmentation that exists in South Africa (Skinner, 2008). The goal is to try and dissolve the prospect of isolation of Black communities from the cities’ industrial and city centre opportunities. Traders have been given the opportunity to access these strategic locations (with transport nodes and middle class consumers), however, they have not been included within the existing spatially planning frameworks in the cities. Although these traders have been given access, the process has not been inclusive, thus there is a need for them to be formally incorporated into areas of high congestion so that they may operate effectively (Skinner, 2008).

3.9. EXISTING FRAMEWORK ON SOUTH AFRICAN BUSINESSES

South African legislation is considered the best legislative framework, nevertheless, a problem arises with the implementation of legislative values. Programmes initiated to develop the informal economy were inspired and supported by South Africa’s constitution to promote socio-economic development, and improve informal enterprises’ operations along with the informal operations environments for medium to small size enterprises (NDP, 2015). A beneficial environment is meant to be created by the government for street traders and all small informal economic activities, at all levels (local, regional and national). New laws have been introduced in this regard and some are yet to be formulated. The majority of policies in South Africa do not directly deal with informal spatial obligations (such as the Business Act, No.71 of 1991). The Act transformed the perspective and approach towards the notion of
informal economy activities within the legal context. Previously, legislation saw informal economy activities as degrading to the environment and threatening to the country’s social and economic stability (Tshofuti, 2016; Brown and McGranahan, 2016). But in 1991 street trading was acknowledged as a business activity contributing towards the economy (Business Act No. 71 of 1991). The Business Act was focused on giving informal traders with rights to operate protection from local authorities and other counter acting bodies of privilege. The Act gave local authorities the role of regulating the industry, rather than controlling or managing it, however, there have been reports of traders being exploited, harassed and even evicted by authorities due to the absence of documentation.

In March 1995 the White Paper on the National Strategy for Development and Promotion of Small Businesses was formulated (White Paper on National Strategy, 1995). The Document outlines the role of government in relation to all categories of the informal economy. It sets out the initial role of creating a platform that assists and supports development initiatives (Chalera, 2007). Participatory approaches were constructed within the 1998 White Paper on Local Government, in which the community is included in the process of finding suitable strategies to attract economic and social resources for the poor to enhance their livelihoods. Various areas within the country developed in different patterns, and both the government and the private sector worked together on approaches for managing and facilitating, along with the community, the informal economy’s operational systems/environment (Chalera, 2007). Durban had an adaptable environment for informal operations since it had a government Department of Informal Trade and Small Business Opportunities, while Johannesburg had a wider platform for operation, presenting a wide range of opportunities and access benefits (Skinner, 2008).

Spatial inequalities in income, health, education and poverty present significant economic and political challenges for the local governments of many areas in South Africa. While evidence of the extent of spatial inequality in South Africa is still seen, a growing body of work has also documented the existence of spatial inequalities in many forms in various other countries such as Asia, Europe, and Latin America (Kanbur and Venables, 2005a, 2005b; Kanbur, Venables and Wan, 2006). Because rapid economic growth is often associated with uneven regional and urban development, policy makers are also concerned that development with irrelevant policy implementation is likely to exacerbate rather than reduce spatial inequalities. Despite these concerns, there seems to be little consensus on the causes of spatial inequality and how policy makers should respond to growing spatial inequalities. There are various spatial policies that have been implemented in South Africa that oversee development to ensure social and spatial justice in cities. The following table
lists the existing spatial legislation in South Africa, summarising their guiding principles and what they entail concerning the informal market.
<table>
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<th>Existing Legislation</th>
<th>Guiding Principles</th>
<th>Informal economy integrated/Less Integrated / Not Integrated</th>
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| **SPLUMA**           | - Provision of effective, efficient sustainable, comprehensive and coordinated system of spatial planning and land use management.  
|                      | - Spatial planning and land use management promote socio-economic inclusion.  
|                      | - Remedies the imbalances that exist as a footprint of past disabilities to ensure equity in the implementation of spatial development and land use systems.  
|                      | **Less Integrated:**  
|                      | Although it does not say anything specific about the informal market. |
| **SDF**              | - Ensure that the SDF is accessible to a wide audience; achieve support for the SDF from all stakeholders, and propose spatial interventions that will effectively address common spatial issues facing municipalities and assist with achieving the desired spatial form.  
|                      | - Be a spatial manifestation of government – wide programmes in accordance with the sound principles contained in Chapter One of the DFA.  
|                      | - Be central to the achievement of the vision and objectives of the respective municipality.  
|                      | - Facilitate alignment of various sector plans (strategies for facilitating alignment).  
|                      | - Address spatial inefficiencies.  
|                      | **Less Integrated:**  
|                      | Stakeholders in the preparation of the SDF include the following:  
|                      | - Civil society organisations such as civics, ratepayers associations, heritage organisations, business chambers, informal traders organisations and farmers’ unions. |
IDP

- Facilitate the urban/rural interrelationship and sustainability of rural areas.
- Poverty reduction.
- Sustainable municipal development.
- Sound environment.
- Better service delivery.
- Local economic development.
- Partnership approach.
- Spatial integration.
- Monitoring and evaluation.
- Implementation management.
- Capacity building.

**Integrated:**

(Different with various municipalities) *The policy guidelines related to promotion of economic growth, income and employment generation* have to be considered by:

- An analysis of economic structures, trends and potentials during the analysis, at least in category A and C municipalities (for smaller category B municipalities this task may be too ambitious);
- Involving the business community (including informal sector representatives) in the public participation process;
- Making sure that each municipality establishes an employment generation/LED strategy as part of its IDP (category B municipalities may be given guidance through joint district-level strategy workshops to comply with this task);
- Deciding on measures for improving the institutional framework for private investment and for informal sector activities; and
- Deciding on areas for municipal service partnerships and on measures to promote such partnerships. In other words: IDPs
have to include an LED promotion strategy.

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<td>-Provide adoption, replacement and amendment of schemes.</td>
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<td>-Provide for subdivision and consolidation of land.</td>
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<td>-Provide for the development of land outside schemes.</td>
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<td>-Provide for the phasing out or cancellation of approved layout plans for the subdivision, development, alteration, suspension and deletion of restrictions relating to land.</td>
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<td>-Closure of municipal roads or public places.</td>
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<td>-Enforcement of the Act and Schemes.</td>
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<td>-Provide for compensation.</td>
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<td>-Establish a tribunal.</td>
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<td>- Provide for planning and development norms and standards.</td>
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<td>-The active efforts of all South Africans.</td>
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<td>-Growth, investment and employment.</td>
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<td>-Rising standards of education and a healthy population.</td>
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<td>- Fighting corruption, transforming society and uniting the country</td>
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<td>-An effective and capable government.</td>
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<td>-Collaboration between the private and public sectors.</td>
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<td>-Leadership from all sectors of society.</td>
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96
- Highlight best practice and improve the quality of local area plans, especially in relation to their content and consistency with higher-level plans, thereby improving the quality, consistency, effectiveness and efficiency of decision making on planning applications and the quality of development in general.

Improve community and institutional participation in the process of preparing or amending local area plans.

- Enhance the co-ordination and provision of essential public infrastructure within the planning process.

- The improved connectivity networks, wider pavements and active market spaces will provide space for 80% more registered informal traders, increasing from approximately 8,000 in 2016 to 14,400, promoting sustainable local livelihoods through access to larger markets, smart city infrastructure and business support. All registered traders will have easy access to adequate facilities including clean ablutions, waste management and lockers for their goods.

- Increased legal informal trade.

- The emerging spatial responses designed to address constraints facing the informal economy are designed to support and protect the informal sector in suitable trading areas in identified:
  - Streets with wider-pavements,
  - Around public transport hubs and other facilities with high levels of pedestrian movement,
  - Market Space,

- In addition to support for the informal sector, these activities should be well managed to avoid conflict with other city users.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LED</th>
<th>Less Integrated:</th>
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<tr>
<td>- Developing a holistic strategy aimed at growing local firms.</td>
<td>- Strategy 7: Ensure optimal opportunities for development of the informal sector.</td>
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<td>- Providing a competitive local investment climate.</td>
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<td>- Supporting and encouraging networking and collaboration.</td>
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<td>- Encouraging the development of business clusters.</td>
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<td>- Encouraging workforce development and education.</td>
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<td><strong>LUMS</strong></td>
<td>Uses/rights permitted only with the written consent of the local municipality (Clause 22): Informal business.</td>
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<td><strong>SDBIP</strong></td>
<td>Projection for each month 1. Revenue to be collected by source and operational and capital expenditure by vote. Service delivery target and performance indicators for each quarter.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>PGDS</strong></td>
<td>The five national and six provincial priorities include the following: Job creation (Decent work and economic growth); education; health; rural development, food security and land reform; Fighting crime and corruption; and Nation-building and good governance (State of KZN Province Address February 2010).</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>DIEP</strong></td>
<td>A policy has the following purposes:</td>
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- Closely targeting inward investment to support cluster growth.
- Supporting quality of life improvements.

- Developing infrastructure for local markets.
- Support for the informal economy,
- Life support for local enterprises.
- Skills development to support local production.

- These rural service centres will include, and some have already emerged to include, a combination of the following activities:
  - Informal trading / market area,
- It makes local government’s approach and principles clear.
- It forms the basis for appropriate and workable legislation.
- It provides the basis for common action by different government departments.
- It provides the basis for making decisions about allocating resources for management and support.
- It provides the basis for making agreements with other stakeholders about what the roles of local government and other groups should be.

- A long term policy goal for some is to support the move of informal economy workers into the formal economy. However, it appears that the formal economy is informalising rapidly; the informal economy offers diverse opportunities for absorbing those who have lost their jobs, and for new entrants into the economy. The informal economy is here to stay, not only in Durban, but internationally.

- The formal and informal parts of the economy are mutually interdependent. The good health of one depends on the good health of the other. It is difficult.

- To promote growth of smaller enterprises, if the overall rate of economic growth is slow.

- Management of the informal economy in the past has concentrated on people trading in public places, such as street vendors, and in municipal markets. With the growing importance of home based and outdoors informal work, and changes (again internationally) in the uses of public and private space, local government has to revise its role and responsibilities.

- To date, much of the support for the informal economy in South Africa, through national SMME policy, has been focused on medium size enterprises and has not been very successful. Not enough support has been given to the poorer segment - the very small operators in the SMME sector, sometimes called
survivalists. At national level, the Department of Trade and Industry (DTI) acknowledges its lack of success overall in supporting SMMEs, and especially poorer ones. Private training and support providers in the city and region are nearly uniformly missing the poorer operators and survivalists.

- There will always be a tension, for local government, in reconciling its own formality, and rule-bound procedures, with the fluidity and change of the informal economy.
- Local government has to balance the need for job creation, in both formal and informal parts of the economy, with the need for orderly management of the city and of residential areas.

National Science and Technology Forum (YEAR); State of KZN Province Address February 2010)
3.10. LESSONS AND SUMMARY

The chapter presented literature about the informal market though the lenses of developing and developed countries, is literature based on different researchers’ theories and findings. Different authors base their work on what they see on the ground and they elucidate the nature and relationship of the ties between informal and urban spatial planning. They also include various conflicting factors that lead to the exclusion or neglect of the informal market by formalised authoritative institutions and exclusion from spatial planning framework agendas on a national and international level.

The way in which the structure of operational implementers is organised informs on how urban planning and economic drivers are interrelated. The complexity of economic drivers and planning is seen to be interrelated on an operational level and their interests on logical perspective. The goal to combine these spheres to operate systematically on the same platform is a challenging process. The main problem is with the element of power and authority being a major influencer of physical and legislative barriers, and limited resource availability unequally distributed. Physical and legislative determinants together focus on controlling urban operations within the urban spatial environment, it places measure that control accessibility to urban features which includes documentation that provide the ability to operate legally. In addition to this issue is that attributes of power and authority itself are unequally distributed amongst different operational implementers.

The key issue is with the unequally distribution of power is that it affects those who have little or no power. In most cases the effects are negative because authoritative organisations/institutions have a nature of self-interests. In the case of incorporating the informal market into spatial planning, different countries (developing and developed) have different power distribution levels, serving dissimilar interests and operating on diverse levels. The reality is that the informal market sector is not initially incorporated within spatial planning frameworks in urban areas. Legislation in the broader context is an important element in reinforcing control, management and stability within an urban operational environment. Legislation consists of factors that protect, provide opportunities and gives access to facilities and services at a basic level. However, majority of studies only look at legislation within the informal market in terms of raising tax revenues and eliminating informality, rather than coordinating the spatial context to provision for the people as in the case of Denmark.

The spatial planning perspective is not directly considered when it comes to informality. Urban social factors such as infrastructure, health, education and environmental protection have a set of standards ensuring support and resource allocation as means of promoting
urban formality. However, spatial factors such as strategic location, economic operational platforms and design, regulations concerning urban boundaries, and laws protecting users from urban spatial environment difficulties are not efficiently addressed, especially for factions who are considered and recognised as informal.

Government policy formulation is based on integrating the formal and informal sectors or factions via welfare policies and infrastructure, yet what actually happens on the ground differs from what’s reported on the policy in the research. This makes it clear that the government’s agenda is different to what is being proclaimed, especially in developed countries where they have the means to achieve their mandated goals, yet still have not achieved the prescribed goals. The same issue is difficult to measure in developing countries as resources are scarce as a result of colonial oppression and the exploitative systems of western countries. However, efforts made are seen on the ground and the focus of improving the informal economy is in evidence although the means to efficiently support the market are scarce. This scarcity limits the ability of developing countries to manage the variety of issues facing their countries, including the formalisation and integration of the informal market into spatial development initiatives.

Both developed and developing countries are aware of the importance of informal markets as safety nets for the unemployed. The difference is that the developing countries are more or less focused on developing both the formal and informal markets, even though the focus is not equal and their strategies and approaches lack the resources for a better result. The development of the informal sector is inclusive of everyone who is unemployed formally and of anyone who is in need of a means of survival. On the other hand, developed countries focus more on formalising the informal sector. The attempt to formalise the informal sector includes various exclusionary methods that focus on excluding a specific group of people, such as those who are economically unfit and those who are migrants, through legislative barriers and spatial limitations. More regulations are thus introduced on local and national levels to implement this agenda of formalisation. This initiative places more pressure on the poor, making it difficult for them to enter the informal market. Entry costs are increased, as are the costs of production, and operations become difficult as in the case of Denmark.

The inappropriate regulatory regulations and laws play a major role on investment potential as they place additional costs on the urban economy. The lack of investment in the informal economy affects the contribution of the market towards the GNP and the creation of new jobs, thus increasing poverty in the area. National governments in developed countries are more likely to treat the informal sector as an undesirable economy, creating entry barriers in an attempt to limit its operation. It is mostly new small enterprises that are subjected to
regulatory barriers and the result is limiting of the growth of the informal economy and its operations. The question that can be debated based on the observations and information in the literature is: “does the informal economy need deregulation or continued regulations”?

The informal economy does not need numerous legislative frameworks, rather it only needs an appropriate legislative framework that will impose spatial elements arising from physical, social and economic principles. The informal economy is capable of functioning efficiently and independently as a survival mechanism within the urban spatial context, as is the formal economy. Looking at the spatial patterns, designs, and strategic location of the formal economy, one can perceive a systematic spatial mechanism that manifests beyond the boundaries of arbitrary, and in most countries it does not compliment the informal market. Spatial compliments speak to factors that include the connectivity of different points, integration, and the recognition of various but interrelated components that make up the city.
CHAPTER FOUR:
THE CASE STUDY

4.1. INTRODUCTION

The phenomenon of cities’ economic activities in Africa is a complex and elastic subject within a wide spectrum of concepts and theories. The consistency and uncontrolled permanency of urban spatial planning and socio-economic structural transition (spatially structured on research and on the ground), due to innumerable trigger factors, is the foremost cause of the evolution, revolution, expansion and growth rate of the urban economic system within a fragmented spatial configuration. This dialogue has resulted in perplex new and emerging development paradigms, leading to misinterpretation and the conglomeration of new and evolved spatial, environmental, social, economic, political and cultural issues (Enrique, Joaquim and William, 2015).

The ideology of analysing the spatial structure of cities in the accommodation of the formal and informal economy is vital to govern the functionality of the city efficiently. To understand the variation of the functionality of the city from time to time, there needs to be a continuous examination of the city’s spatial planning. The focus needs to be on the expansion of the city, the extinction of land uses and the driving factors that trigger the ‘movement, change, transition, location, etc.’ of certain land uses in an area within the city (Briassoulis, 2000). Thus, this chapter intends to analyse the character and functionality of the informal economy/market within the city’s spatial planning context, concentrating on the area of KwaMashu within the Inanda, Ntuzuma and KwaMashu (INK) nodal zone, particularly the economic zone known as ‘Station’. This chapter will attempt to unravel the pattern of the transition and spatial configuration of the informal economy in the city, within the context of South Africa, by utilising urban spatial structure models, economic approaches and analytical techniques. The chapter will focus on critically analysing the area of KwaMashu, and ‘Station’ in particular, in conjunction with urban spatial planning models/theories and urban transitional driving factors that stimulate the previous and current state of the informal sector in the eThekwini municipality. The research will look at how the informal market has changed over the years, why has it been changing in this manner, and how has it been changing; focussing on how it has been affected by existing urban spatial planning and how this planning has effected the socio-economical state of the community.

The chapter consists of various themes which include the background of KwaMashu, which will give an overview of the city as a whole. The chapter will also look at the driving forces of
the change, such as the existing spatial planning, and the economic and social dynamics that inform the transitional phases of the informal economy in the area. The chapter will also look at the urban spatial planning structure model, attempting to analyse which model KwaMashu is using. The chapter will also discuss the internal structure and patterns of urban settlements and land use zones, including the reasons for their location and characteristics. It will consider factors influencing the morphological structure of a city, look at urban profiles and the various models of urban structure.

4.2. BACKGROUND: THE INANDA, NTUZUMA AND KWAMASHU NODAL ZONE

The Inner eThekwini Regeneration and Urban Management Programme (ITRUMP) and the eThekwini municipality show a variety of characteristics of the study area. They show that the Inanda, Ntuzuma and KwaMashu (INK) zone or area is a predominantly residential area located within the eThekwini municipality 20km North West of Durban’s Central Business District (CBD) (eThekwini Municipality, 2013. The INK is characterised by poverty with low rates of formal/stabilised economic activities, and it experiences common challenges within these three different areas such as a lack of employment opportunities, social conflict, crime, violence, informality, a housing backlog, etc. The INK area has residential nodes consisting of leaning areas and is one of the five areas with Area Based Management (ABM) and an urban renewal programme (URP). The area experiences a constant struggle with social and economic growth due to its lack of internal resources and thus needs to depend heavily on external areas (mainly within Durban) for resources for production and social stability.

The Inanda area is the oldest township of the three; it was established in the 1800s as a designated African people’s settlement (reserve) by the white regime. Ntuzuma was a planned African township with formal residential areas occupying the majority of the area; constructed in 1970. It was troubled by political strife in the 1980s concerned with tenure arrangements and the lack of service delivery. The KwaMashu Township is just like the other townships within the INK, and it is bigger in comparison to the other two. It was established for the purpose of accommodating African people removed from other areas such as Cato Manor (see figure 4.1 below). It comprises predominantly of formal housing and is considered to be an economic hub due to its economic activities within and outside of the major transportation corridors in the area.

The INK area is close to other commercial and industrial suburban areas (La Lucia, Springfield and Umhlanga) (Meyer et al, 2003). The area’s transportation system consists of bus routes, taxi routes and rail stations, mainly located in KwaMashu, and these serve as the
main transportation hub, 20km from the CBD, for the neighbourhood’s development programme (NDPG) for the eThekwini and KwaMashu hub, according to the eThekwini Municipality (2015) (see figure: 4.2 below).

Figure: 4.1: KwaMashu township within the eThekwini municipality
Source: eThekwini Municipality (2013)
Figure: 4.2. KwaMashu Township eThekwini’s NDPG urban network plan

Figure: 4.2 show the location of the economic zones within KwaMashu and their connectivity. The modes of transportation used by the public are vehicles to school, work and for local movement, and to and from the CBD. Thirty per cent of the INK community commute to the city via taxis, buses and minibuses, and the remaining 70 per cent use rail transport for this purpose (ITRUMP and eThekwini Municipality, 2015). Although KwaMashu is an area that is well connected to the city by taxi’s and buses via the KwaMashu highway, and trains via the railway, the travel costs are high, creating financial constraints for the commuters. The INK area is largely a residential area but it has shortages of land as the
area contains hilly terrain, with a low density of housing in these hilly areas. The housing is comprised as follows: 52 per cent is formal housing; traditional housing covers 5 per cent of the area and 43 per cent is informal housing in the form of shacks. Land is a scarce commodity in the area in general, and there are still some large tracts of land which are undeveloped within Inanda and KwaMashu and on the outskirts of these townships.

KwaMashu was established in 1958 and came into being following the mass forceful resettlement of the slum population of Cato Manor (Patel, 1995). It was one of the first townships in Durban that emerged with the implementation of the Group Areas Act of the apartheid period in the 1950s. The Act was meant to physically separate different races that had lived in places such as Sophia Town, District Six and Cato Manor. With the Act in place and the forceful movements of people to these areas, KwaMashu became home to many African people who had been displaced.

The rapid population growth within the eThekwini municipality in the 1950s created pressure on the Durban City Council (DCC) to reduce slums as a means of increasing security for White populated areas and to segregate urban areas (Krige, 1985). The solution put forward by the apartheid system was to implement housing projects for the African population within the city, thus in 1952 Cato Manor’s emergency camps were erected on a site and service basis (Maylam, 1995). The building of KwaMashu Township followed a long phase of planning and negotiations, and land was bought to accommodate African residency. Strategies and developmental approaches for the township had to be presented to the central government by the DCC for authorisation.

The DCC was responsible for both the removal of people of colour from their former residential areas to townships and for the construction of buffer zones between the African, Indian, Coloured and White terrains. The DCC established inconsistent linkage or connectivity of the transport routes between these different areas to help establish the buffer zones. KwaMashu Township’s development was approved in 1956 by the different parties involved and the price was the displacement of African people to the north of the city. The township’s plans were presented and approved by the Cato Manor Native Advisory Board. People who were not recognised as residents of Cato Manor were not allowed to participate in the decision making process for the formulation of policy or planning of the township assigned to them. Development occurred in the late 1950s and the movement of people was implemented (Manson, 1980).
The KwaMashu development was established in different phases and houses were erected that were to be utilised by Black people in 1960 (Martin, 1995). The population in the area of KwaMashu increased rapidly to 40,000 people by the year 1962, and the population increase continued even more rapidly when people from other cities were removed from their former locations and placed there. In 1973 the KwaMashu area was controlled by the Port Natal Bantu Affairs Administration Board (Manson, 1980). The process of relocation from the cities to areas further away from the cities caused many difficulties for people of colour. These people faced increased travelling costs and this impacted negatively on those who commuted to work. Accommodations near the city were also very costly and this increased the cost of living for some. During the process of re-planning the city there were many Blacks who disappeared, and they were estimated to comprise about 20 per cent of the population of Cato Manor.

4.2.1. KwaMashu’s location

South Africa has approximately 52-56 million people living in it, and is a country with nine states/provinces (Statistics SA, 2017). There are a variety of established settlement areas such as townships in the country, and variations of the different racial groups are concentrated in different townships and in different parts of townships, although, the majority of the people living in townships are Black African people. The population of KwaMashu consists of about 98 per cent (175,663) of Back African citizens, which is more than the average national concentration of this population group in one area. The national concentration is usually approximately 80 per cent, whilst the Indian/Asian concentration is usually 0.83 per cent, Coloureds usually 0.17 per cent and White people 0.08 per cent in an area (Statistics SA, 2017). KwaMashu Township is a residential development 20km north of Durban, within the INK boundaries. It is boarded on the south and west by Newlands East and West, and on the north it’s bordered by Ntuzuma. It is within close proximity to Durban North, Mount Edgecombe, Phoenix and Inanda (see figure: 4.3).
The area is 21km squared, largely covered by residential housing, and has a small portion of land dedicated to economic activities - ‘the market’, known to the locals as the ‘Station’ (eThekwini Municipality, 2016). The area is dominated by male figures who work in industries and different companies. Women usually tend to go and sell in the market area.

The KwaMashu Township is amongst the largest township developments within the eThekwini municipality's boundary, according to the eThekwini Municipality. Divided into more than ten suburbs widely known as ‘sections’ (KwaMashu A; B; C; D; E etc.), KwaMashu is managed via a single administrative unit under the INK Nodal economic development project (Molefe, 2009). KwaMashu is characterised by various economic activities, which include large and small retailers. The relationship between the informal and formal sectors is influenced by a perspective of structuralism. This perspective speaks to the idea that new nodes within shopping areas have the potential to displace or promote small scale retail sectors, and may positively or negatively affect the informal way of socio-economic stability.
The area is considered to be a prominent administrative economic hub on the north side of Durban. The caring capacity in terms of population is estimated at 173,568 citizens, according to the 2011 census. KwaMashu is known as an area with a ‘lively performing arts scene’. This is due to the fact that the area is filled with young people aided by the skills, resources and significant support from various organisations. The area is dominated by the spirit of music, dance, drama (with Uzalo, a South African series/soapy filmed at KwaMashu), a community radio station called Vibe 94.70 FM, and sports, most significantly football. KwaMashu is identified as one of the most well preserved townships within the eThekwini municipality (eThekwini Municipality, 2016).

4.3. FORCES UNDERLYING LAND USE MANAGEMENT

The apartheid regime played a huge role in the formation of South African cities. Even within the post-apartheid era, there still exist the notion and footprints of the apartheid system (Kabwe, 2008). The system goes beyond the built form of the city into the effects of the social dynamics of South African citizens. Conversely, the spatial framework of the post-apartheid era is reliant on an abstract design approach which is different from the apartheid era; and the design approach/spatial framework of KwaMashu seems to have been affected by social, economic and environmental factors (see figure: 4.4. below). The figure shows the strategic layout of the typical apartheid city, using the example of Pietermaritzburg. Hence, KwaMashu was subjected to the system and design of apartheid’s strategic planning and the model below explains the significant layout of the KwaMashu area. The ‘national state’ seen in the model represents KwaMashu.

![Apartheid city model showing the strategic layout of Pietermaritzburg](http://learn.mindset.co.za)
The model gives a broader picture of the spatial design of KwaMashu, which resulted from large scale migration patterns from rural areas to urban cities, as discussed previously. The high levels of poverty amongst the Black population in the rural areas resulted in them resorting to job searches in the urban areas as the urban environment had more realistic employment opportunities. The apartheid government, with the help of the Group Areas Act, managed to structure an environment that was characterised by a natural increase of formal and large scale informal settlements. The congestion of poor people in a concentrated environment, restricted from participating in production and the benefits of the CBD and the formal economic sector, resulted in these people looking for economic alternatives. The people attempted to stabilise their disadvantaged livelihoods by engaging in informal activities/trading in and around KwaMashu. More significantly, people began providing their informal and unregulated services in the market area known as 'Station'. This initiative by the community stimulated a rise in the number of people involved in informal trading within and around KwaMashu.

KwaMashu’s informal markets struggled to be socially and economically sustainable, and viable functional operations have been a challenge over the years. The spatial fragmentation has been a hindrance and a burden to those under its restrictions. KwaMashu, having taken the approach of eradicating the footprints of the apartheid system and spatial defragmentation within the area, developed its own mechanism of reconstructing its spatial form. New local developments were proposed; some were carried out, some remain incomplete and others were disposed of. Areas that reconstruct their spatial form generally do so gradually and at their own pace (Watson, 2016).

Nevertheless, the area took certain initiatives through infrastructural development including transit systems, formal retail developments and informal trading containers, although done on a moderate scale. There have also been various settlement developments within the area in the past years and these are ongoing. Roads were built and currently there is a public transportation route that is being constructed, and although it has little to do with the development initiative of the informal market, it will assist some traders in terms of transportation costs being lower.

4.3.1. Income levels

Income levels are one of the major drivers of the functionality and operation of a certain area, and the income levels determine the efficiency, types of services and types of land uses located in the area. This line of thought is reasonable, but not in an environment with large numbers of poor people. In an area like KwaMashu, for instance, there are people from...
different social groups, with different sized families, different jobs, etc. Although most of them struggle financially, when one of the many families ‘makes it’ or becomes more affluent, they move out to more CBD centred zones. This family is then, in turn, replaced in the township by more poor people moving into the area. Nevertheless, the line of thought of incomes determining the efficiency, types of services and types of land uses located in an area is applicable in more CBD centred areas. This notion brings about the theme of income levels in terms of high; middle and low income recipients within CBD centred areas.

1. High income class: uMhlanga, Kloof, La Lucia, Hillcrest, Durban North, Mt Edgecombe Estate, Winston Park etc. (in close proximity to the CBD).

2. Middle income class: Durban CBD, Durban South, Pinetown, West-ridge, Umbilo, Montclair, South Beach, etc. (The majority of the residents are White people, and these areas are also divided into the richest and the rich. These areas are outside the CBD).

3. Low income class: Cato Manor, uMlazi, Chestervle, the INK area, Newlands, the majority of parts of Phoenix, Adams Mission, Isipingo etc. (These areas are on the periphery of the city).

As is evident, the location of different socio-economic groups is determined by their income levels, however, this is not the case in KwaMashu Township. In the township of KwaMashu there are a variety of social and economic issues that have led people to participate in informal services and trading, and the spatial design of the area has increased the living costs for many so the design has been deemed inaccurate for the area (eThekwini Municipality, 2016). This has resulted in poor services, poor infrastructural maintenance, disuse of civic property, and so on. Corruption at the authoritarian offices has further hampered the economy in the area for both the formal and informal sectors due to a lack of capital. This has created additional strife between the two sectors, concluding with the informal sector being exploited by the formal sector. It is well known that the formal sector always has the upper hand over the informal sector in everything due to rights, accessibilities, resources and skills which are largely denied to the informal sector (eThekwini Municipality, 2016).

The informal sector is economically unstable and battles to maintain itself. There are many competitors and limited options place pressure on the market, meaning that many people struggle make a profit that will sustain their basic needs. The costs of products in the informal markets have increased as a result of the economic recession. The Rand has been devalued and this has resulted in prices rising. Informal traders only have small plots of land on which to maintain one sub-regular residential unit and a small open space for
environmental fairness. Some squeeze in an extra room at the back of their houses, well known as ‘Umjongdolo or backyard shacks’. There is no space for agricultural production to support their little vegetable trading service at the market; instead they have to buy vegetables from formal stores at high prices because they do not have the money to travel to farms or farm markets to buy cheaper fresh vegetables (eThekwini Municipality, 2016).

There is also little to no space for children to play, thus the majority of children tend to play in the streets. There have been numerous reports of car accidents in townships and a significant number have involved children. This trend of tragedies has added a clinging pain to the community. Crime has increased and hate between religious organisations within the township areas has festered. Strife between neighbourhood boys has led to students stabbing each other, gang wars, and transport feuds. This has all resulted in the continuous killing of brothers and sisters of the same womb of KwaMashu.

The pain of struggle is widely expressed and experienced within informal markets, because everything begins in the economic sector and life has been reduced to Darwin’s ‘survival of the fittest’. With aims to survive in ‘free confinement’, people turn to petty crime as a quick way of getting money, circumventing the ‘hard work less pay’ strategy of living for the ‘less work more pay’ alternative (eThekwini Municipality, 2016). However, there is no excuse or justification for, or dignity and purity in immoral actions, regardless of the thought processes behind the immoral acts. This rationale applies equally to both the rich and powerful, and to the poor and powerless. Justice is to be served to both and all should be held accountable. There are crimes where it is ‘expected’ that uncivil activities might occur, and crime increases as unemployment increases.
Income levels in the eThekwini municipality affect the urban form by controlling the location of certain market forces (figure: 4.5 above). Due to lacking marketing skills and resources in informal markets, the quality of the products in these markets is automatically reduced in the eyes of their customers and community. Thus informal traders resort to decreasing their products to below market price as a means of trying to keep their businesses afloat. The formal market is at an advantage as it can afford to secure retail spaces and the appropriate platforms in the marketing of their products. Areas with high income people suggest that
quality products and services are provided in close proximity to the people. The proximity of the economic services provided is created by the nature of the city’s transitional phases, which affect the design of the urban environment.

Companies that are capital intensive change the land uses, hence, the transition of the urban form is encouraged to be consistent with the prevailing economic, social and environmental factors that are prominent within the eThekwini municipality. When mentioning the economic factors, the informal market is under performing and struggling, while on the other hand the formal market is performing normatively well, so the formal market is favoured by capitalists, funders, investors and the private sector. Consequently, capitalists will further appropriate the current situation of economic instability and inequality (Stiglitz, 2017). Due to the interlinked relationship of various businesses, if one business is established another will be brought closer, so as to create a close relationship with each other. This also applies in KwaMashu Township’s ‘Station’ area and surroundings. However, when more formal businesses are established there, neglecting the informal market’s functionality and operation, informal traders are pushed out into an insufficient spatial form. Despite this though, more informal participants are finding refuge within the informal sector. This however affects the income levels for these participants and decreases the livelihood standard of the community. The community of KwaMashu does contain households with individuals who are professionals and who have a fair salary base, but they also struggle financially as their jobs are far away in the city, resulting in increased travel costs for them. In addition, cash flow within the community is distorted; money is made but it does not stay within the community due its outflow to other areas.

4.3.2. Social development

KwaMashu has several educational institutions within the area and on its borders. The community plays a major role in primary and secondary training, and in general skill development as it has a set of pre-primary, primary and secondary schools, as well as a few basic and civic training institutions. The educational sector previously consisted of prestigious basic educational institutions, both government and private (see figure: 4.6. below) (eThekwini Municipality, 2016). Other vital factors contribute to the change and transitional process of the city, or of KwaMashu to be specific, and these factors include the cost of travel, high numbers of health issues, high levels of educational dysfunction and households’ inability to sustain themselves financially. Crime and unemployment, etc. also play a role Nevertheless, the city has attempted to remedy these problems and this has led to the improvement of transports routes, however little has been done to improve the transport systems. Clinics, schools and civic centres which are widely accountable for job
creation have been provided so that people have employment opportunities and can be closer to their jobs, although job opportunities are insufficient.

Figure 4.6: 1-2 Crèches and primary schools, 3 Secondary schools, 4 Colleges
Source: Google Maps, 2018)

4.3.3. Transport

KwaMashu Township’s development mechanism includes spatial planning stimulation, with the implementation of corridors and nodes for its reconstruction and regeneration. This is the same national strategy that has become a standardised form of planning in South Africa (Department Provincial and Local Government, 2015). The hub of KwaMashu (and the INK in particular) is well connected to the northern, southern and central areas of eThekwini via the railways that exist, but also via roads and general civil infrastructure. There is currently a Bus Rapid Transit System (BRT) under construction which links KwaMashu directly to the...
western major parts of the eThekwini municipality, where there are employment zones all the way to uMhlanga. Unfortunately though, this system is not currently operational (figure: 4.7 below).

The initiative and value of the KwaMashu development projects implemented should be acknowledged, as they are good and show an appreciation of the area’s requirements. Once all developments have been completed the following questions may be asked: ‘did the project achieve its objectives or not?’ And in this case, ‘did the informal market benefit from all this development, and in what way?’

Figure 4.7: The Bus Rapid Transit System currently under construction
Source: eThekwini municipality (2017)

There are indications that the post-apartheid transit system’s design and approach in the planning of the city of Durban has positively affected the landscape operational systems of peripheral townships such as the KwaMashu Township for the sack of the study area. These development mechanisms and their design approaches have determined the changes to the current spatial planning form and land use management system in response to the improved and new corridors in KwaMashu. Land uses have essentially transitioned into
something else, and that’s the essence of transit systems; the changes have affected the location of the economic zones, which is said to be in the best interests of everyone (see figures: 4.8 and 4.9 below).

As KwaMashu develops and expands, there are certain points within the KwaMashu area that will change in use and focus. This change is stimulated by the spatial planning implications (e.g. transit system) and later by the responsibility of the community leaders in addressing the principle of ‘satisfying the needs and wants of the people’ every time. Unfortunately, the provision of services by community representatives is not the means with which to pull the community out of poverty; rather these services ‘give just enough to manage and maintain the standard of living by satisfying the prescribed needs of the people’.

Were these service developments in fact the means by which to pull the community out of poverty, there would not be a higher than average percentage of people of colour living in these communities as they would have escaped their former oppressions. The growing topic and theme of “the rich get richer and the poor get poorer” is still very much in effect in this area and only time will tell if effective change can be accomplished. “We pray”, as a widower filled with faith would say, that this will be the case. It remains obvious at this point that in Durban communities are still living under the yoke of inequality and it grows continuously.
Figure 4.9: The different types of transit systems in KwaMashu (existing, new and under construction)
Source: eThekwini municipality (2017)
4.4. LOCATION OF LAND USE ZONES

Figure 4.10: Land use, land zones and land ownership in KwaMashu

Source: eThekwini municipality (2017)

Economic zone (commercial, retail, etc.)

Urban settlement formal (43%)
Underdeveloped land (17%)
Industrial areas (15%)
State/institutional (7%)
Urban settlement informal (4%)

LEGEND

Private (30%)
Municipality (26%)
Government (18%)
LTD companies (13%)
CC companies (5%)
Parastatals etc.

Existing street
Extractive industrial
General industrial
General residential 2
Government and municipal
Place of worship
Public open space
Residential 2
Residential
Special industrial
Special residential

LEGEND
4.4.1. Economic zones

Economic precincts within KwaMashu are primarily concentrated in KwaMashu’s primary town centre/town hub due to the fact that these land uses are the heart of KwaMashu’s economic sector (see figure 4.10 above). These zones or precincts are identified as being KwaMashu’s busiest areas with a high density of businesses. As with a big city and regardless of any differences in layout patterns, the ‘Bid Rent Curve’ model (figure 4.11 below) of economic science also applies in the township (Bochnovic, 2014). What this means is that the services in the area close to an economic hub are expensive, as explained by Alonso’s Bid-Rent-Model.

In the context of economic activities the model mentions that the closer you are to the central border of a district/area the higher the rent you pay (Bochnovic, 2014). This is due to increased accessibility to the market and to customers, and the fact that there is a mixture of economic zones which are dominated by commercial activities (low and high order activities). The figure below shows the strategic layout of the city, in keeping with Alonso’s description, so KwaMashu’s strategic spatial layout falls under this design. However, this research only concentrates on the KwaMashu town centre hub (high rent to be closer to the town hub centre).

![Bid Rent Curve](https://www.e-education.psu.edu/geog597i_02/node/585)

*Figure 4.11: Bid Rent Curve representing the consequence of land use*

*Source: https://www.e-education.psu.edu/geog597i_02/node/585*
4.4.2. Industrial Facilities

Heavy industrial facilities are located on the outskirts of KwaMashu due to excessive pollution production, which is liable to contaminate the environment in a negative manner. One of the areas in which these facilities are located is Phoenix, just outside of the township, and another reason for this location is the traffic congestion that occurs around these facilities. They are located on land that is flat, has ready access to bulk transport and is cheap to rent since it is far from the CBD (eThekwini Municipality, 2016).

Light industrial facilities are located within KwaMashu itself, near the town centre/nodes. These small zones can be categorised as unplanned due to the fact that the majority of the service providers are informally active and have occupied land that has not been allocated for light industrial use. The light industrial zones are also close to residential areas, with some actually in the residential areas. This economic initiative has also affected the transition of KwaMashu, as houses are now being sold, renovated and changed to serve a different function of mixed occupations that is more related to light industrial activity, producing business opportunities for the community.

4.4.3. Other business zones

Other business operations within KwaMashu consist of isolated clusters of stores separate from the main town centres. These neighbourhood centres provide accessible services to the citizens who find it hard to access the services in KwaMashu’s primary town centres due to distances that they have to travel to reach them (Msunduzi Municipality, 2016). The location of these businesses forms secondary nodes in various parts of KwaMashu (secondary meaning less economically active areas). These secondary nodes also form a ribbon of less important, commercial and retail developments around KwaMashu’s outskirts. Planned local shopping centres or malls are found within the borders of the town centre hubs, making these neighbouring centres secondary nodes on the outskirts of the main town centres.

Usually these economic activities on the outskirts are distanced from the main primary centres, as mentioned above, and their location results in their rent being lower than that of businesses within the town centres’ borders, although it works differently for informal activity participants (Trussell, 2010). These outlying centres are one of the key causes of land use changes (transition of the urban form) as they act as business opportunities for various individuals. These local neighbourhood centres turn into focal points of attraction, and this
results in neighbouring land uses gradually changing in response to the social and economic needs of the people in that particular location.

4.4.4. Residential zones

High Income households are identified by their extended houses on land of the same plot size as the rest of the community. There are very few open spaces in the community for uses related to housing dynamics. The area is a high density area and residential units are built on small plots with an approximate average residential erf size of 200m². Bigger plots of land are usually found outside the KwaMashu area due to the fact that there is no space within the area to accommodate larger plots for single detached residential units. Within the township one finds rental high-rise buildings, rural urban suburb units in many parts of the area and informal settlements in parts once vacant. These are little informal housing structures, informally titled as ‘shacks’. In most cases they are made out of wood and zinc, services are limited in terms of sanitation, electricity, water, etc. and they are often found in the backyards of formal houses.

There is no middle or high income residential housing, however, there are various units that could be considered as middle income units. Their designation as such is mainly based on price and not the area in which these units are constructed (price is usually determined by investments made by the owner of the house via extensions and renovations to the unit). In recent years households have been relocating and coming closer to the CBD so as to be closer to places of employment. This usually occurs as some family members manage to find a good job and then take responsibility for their families (eThekwini Municipality, 2016).

4.4.5. Rural-urban fringe

KwaMashu Township is experiencing various transitional factors that involve the rural urban fringes being included within the operational stance of the township. A change is emerging where the township's urban income functions are invading the rural areas, including the informal settlements in the surrounding environment. This results in the maximising of profit, expansion of the township limits into valued space and population, and exposure to a lateral platform for employment opportunities and small business ventures.
4.5. URBAN STRUCTURE MODEL

4.5.1. The Hoyt Sector Model and KwaMashu Township

The Hoyt Sector Model explains the expansion of a city and urban form by stating that land use zones develop in sectors around a singular focal point in the centre (Kivell, 1993). There is relevance and similarity between the Apartheid Model and the Hoyt Model's (see fig. 4.12). Both the Hoyt Model's and the Apartheid Model's characteristics can be identified in the structure of KwaMashu Township. However, focus will be placed on the Hoyt Sector Model's layout form, limiting the Model's principles in terms of the nature of the area of KwaMashu (land is largely designated as residential), and on the basis of describing the nature of the strategic urban pattern and spatial planning structure of KwaMashu.

One principle of the Hoyt Model is that people tend to segregate on the basis of income and social position (Kivell, 1993). In KwaMashu people were segregated from each other right from the start and still are today, however, the nature of this segregation is complex and the social differences between the different parts of KwaMashu (e.g. KwaMashu A, KwaMashu B, KwaMashu C, etc.) provide a diverse explanation as to what triggered this segregation. Although there is evidence of social segregation in the township, income segregation is not a major topic within the township as the entire community suffers the same lack of employment opportunities and the people are thus all in very similar financial positions. Even if a community member has a bit more financial freedom their options are still limited as there is no better place to move to within the area. Instead these individuals revamp their homes.

The differences between KwaMashu’s different parts, known as 'sections', are related to social instability concerning factors such as crime. Due to the lack of job opportunities, large scale rural peri-urban migration occurs in response to unemployment, thus there is a natural increase in the formation of formal and informal settlements on a large scale which occupy vacant spaces around the town centres. KwaMashu’s large scale residential built form limits the comparison of the area to the Model, however, the form and structure of the area resembles the structure presented by the Hoyt Sector Model; with the town hub in the middle of the areas' built form, surrounded by different zones and activities (see figure 4.13 below).
The apartheid displacement left people with low levels of basic services and accessibility to jobs. Figure 4.13: shows the similarity between the two models, and as can see the figure detailing the displacement of Blacks, Indian and Coloured people, this highlights the second characteristic of the Hoyt Model which outlines that these displaced citizens live on the most undesirable land located alongside physical barriers such as railway lines, and commercial and industrial areas act as buffer zones around their areas (Kivell, 1993).
Figure 4.13: Development surrounding town centre hubs
Source: Google Maps (2018)
4.5.2. Spatial planning transitional process

The emerging development paradigm shift is evidence of the current agenda which attempts to eliminate the apartheid urban form footprints. The challenge that emerges is the symbol of the previous existence of the urban structural form, thus there is a need to understand how KwaMashu’s boundaries came about and what conditions and issues the community and municipality are trying to address.

KwaMashu consists of different sections (A-N), and development in the 1950s occurred more within the CBD, particularly in the central grid of Durban (eThekwini Municipality, 2016). The residential location subsequently called KwaMashu was declared in 1956 and the boundaries of this area and sections remained unchanged while development took place in the CBD. And as means of keeping people of colour in the township and away from so-called White areas, the apartheid governmental policies separated the area into an administrative entity that limited Black people in all spheres of livelihood. Investments in the area were limited to maintenance and infrastructure, which ultimately led to the deterioration of the residential areas.

Indanda, Ntuzuma and KwaMashu were previously functionally and economically separate and although the interconnected areas were planned and developed in isolation of each other they were still connected. As time went by KwaMashu and the other areas were incorporated into the one area as they expanded, and thus the creation of the present INK area brought about a change in the formation of the city and other areas including Phoenix, Newlands, etc.

4.5.3. Changing urban patterns and land use

KwaMashu’s spatial patterns and land uses have been changing as a result of population growth, social dynamics and a democratic society that consistently influences the spatial form. The Northern SDP land use map of 2014-2015 (figure 4.14 below) sets out a spatial framework plan that focuses on an urban development principle that includes: densification; integration; compacting; spatial restructuring; achieving land use needs; and identifying areas where there is economic development potential (Todes, 2012). The approach adopted by the eThekwini Northern SDP was for the entire spatial area within the Northern part of the eThekwini municipality (areas mentioned above including KwaMashu). The plan was to integrate area plans to a certain level of integration and rationalisation. With the implementation of the plan, some areas within the INK area transformed into primary nodes and with this plan in motion the upgrading of certain tourist routes and bypass routes was to
be implemented so as to ease congestion around and in the primary node (eThekwini Municipality, 2016).
Figure 4.14: Northern Spatial Development Plan land use map
The planning scheme and development principles which have been implemented in KwaMashu/INK are influenced by local needs and transition of the spatial form. These include the location of the new school, business zones, nodes, malls, facilities, transport routes, etc. The N2 freeway is important since it gives high levels of accessibility between the major urban centres and neighbouring communities, and the INK area also reaps the benefits provided by this route, with Queen Nandi Drive as a sufficient connection route (still under extension and construction). KwaMashu is identified as the local capital within the INK area, with a pair of primary nodes within the area. This is due to the presentation of the developmental patterns and the relationship amongst employment areas and residential areas as they provide facilities and services to the community (eThekwini Municipality, 2016). Major transportation systems like Queen Nandi Drive and the M25 are focused on distributing traffic to district areas within the Northern region, thus providing connectivity between the peripheral areas, but local distributors like the M21 and Dumisani Makhaye Drive /Mt577 Route road.

The SDP aimed at restructuring the radial form of the Northern region by initiating additional mobility with arterial roads for the process of creating a more functional road frame. This created permeability, with alternative options promoting access to areas which were formerly marginalised from the local economic areas of activity. The prospect of communities being within a reasonable travelling distance of services is implemented via the establishment of a series of nodes located in the INK area. Mixed land uses are meant to extend limited accessibility and reduce the distance from the CBD (eThekwini Municipality, 2016). Activity spines are located in focus areas along the major routes and placed in positions that will not undermine the main function of mobility.

The proposed locations of new residential developments are outside KwaMashu e.g. the housing development scheduled for Avoca Hills. This initiative is within urban growth boundary plans so as to prevent urban sprawl and creates a compact and efficient area, however, no new housing developments have not been implemented thus far. The majority of land uses occur along the main routes because of accessibility. Figure 4.14 above shows the various categories of land uses such as: mixed use development; housing densities; industry; agriculture; commercial, etc. Even though nodes and corridors have been constructed, development remains consistent with the Hoyt Sector Model. Development is driven by social and community activities and the plan which has been initiated is to connect the INK and the surrounding areas via the establishment of nodes and with the use of transit systems, done based on the existing levels and patterns of community development stimulus.
4.6. LESSONS AND SUMMARY

The notion of urban compaction is broadly based and focused on guiding spatial development. In the context of KwaMashu, the spatial structure has been identified as a reaction to the former strategic spatial planning carried out under the apartheid regime. This form of planning and the transitional process in motion is trying to remedy the predominance of prescriptive land use regulations that enforced poverty in KwaMashu by separating activities based on their level of accessibility.

Development in the area remains slow and the spatial framework adopted for the development of the area has been questioned in terms of its efficiency. Although research has been carried out to determine the way forward, little physical action has taken place. There are still a large number of economic and social issues that exist within KwaMashu. Critiques have shown the proposed spatial framework to be too broad and utopian, and contradictory to national policies and the prevailing market (informal and formal). Most of these critiques mention the spatial framework neglecting site level decisions, the misapplication of land use management principles and poor infrastructure planning. Nevertheless, various ideas have been suggested by the municipality and stakeholders to strengthen the spatial planning in the area. First is for planners to understand the complexity of the socio-spatial dynamics of townships in South Africa. Second, planners need to understand the market of the city and its economic factors. And finally, infrastructure and spatial planning are interlinked factors that need to be considered more intensely.
5.1. INTRODUCTION
This chapter presents the data that was collected in the field related to spatial planning and its implications for informal market activities. Data was collected from the community of the ‘Station’ area in KwaMashu, and the participants were those practicing informal trading in this area. The chapter focusses on the extended discourse of the study and provides an analysis of the advantages and disadvantages of including informal markets within the spatial planning of urban areas.

A thematic approach was used to allow for a more logical data collection process, which allowed a clear analysis and met the objectives of this general research of eThekwini’s spatial and economic situation (see Chapter One for the research objectives). Information was also received from the relevant eThekwini municipality departments (Department of Land Use Management, Development Management and Spatial Development) and it has been presented in relevant themes; where the information given attempts to answer the research questions which were informed by the research objectives.

The chapter analyses spatial elements and their relationship with the current trend of unemployment and the emerging scene of informal markets as a major employment net for the unemployed and poor. The chapter attempts to intersperse the raw and refined data obtained, based on the subject of spatial and economic factors. Data obtained on the ground and from the literature research will be analysed and discussed.

5.2. WHO WERE THE INFORMAL URBAN TRADERS?
Informal traders were well identified when information such as gender, employment status, age and background was clear in giving insight into who was eligible for being considered as an informal trader/participant. When engaging with community members in the KwaMashu area of ‘Station’, the fieldwork carried out clearly exposed the practice of informal trading in urban areas and in close conjunction with past and current spatial planning framework designs (at a district and city level). The act of informal trading was practiced by both male and female community members of different ages, from the old to the very young. All of the people accessed were from the INK, from within the borders of KwaMashu’s ‘Station’ area. The ratio between genders was not balanced in the informal market since the trading activities operated in an informal manner were practiced more by females than males.
5.2.1. Gender ratio of the informal traders in the Station area

The gender ratio for the informal traders was 20:5, meaning that for every 20 female traders there were five male traders in that area, according to the data collected. Twenty percent who practiced informal trading were males in comparison to 80 percent found to be females. Their ages ranged from below 15 to 85+ years (see Graph 5.1 below) and this pattern within the community was not a usual pattern as most households were headed by females. This was due to the fact that males’ life expectancies were shorter than those of females, many worked away from home and many were drunkards, etc. As a result most homes had no male figures and women had to take a stand and provide for their families, keeping them fed. With few job opportunities in urban areas and even fewer jobs prescribed for females, many females found themselves unemployed and thus tended to utilise the informal space to participate in the informal market to generate income.

Graph: 5.1. Gender distribution in the practice of informal trading activities.

Source: Survey Results (2018)

5.2.2. Educational levels in informal markets

One of the factors that influenced the practice of informal trading activities was educational status, and most of the participants within the informal economy were people without a matric certificate or university degree. Of the informal trading participants interviewed in KwaMashu, 82 per cent had a primary education but no matric certificate, only 10 per cent of the informal market participants had a secondary certificate, and only 8 per cent had a tertiary education.
The data in Graph 5.2 above provided evidence that there were tertiary graduates who were active in the informal market due to a lack of job opportunities in the formal sectors. Only 2 (8%) people out of the 25 that were interviewed had a tertiary education and were working in the informal market. The graph also shows the high rate of traders who worked in the informal markets. The market is dominated by people who have primary education which is at a percentage of 72, and people with only secondary education are only 20 percent. This illustrated the nature of the economic state in South Africa and the level of economic growth is gradually declining. On a larger scale there is evidence that cities are not able to produce jobs, even for educated people, and the informal market was a safety net where unemployed individuals acquired an income regardless of a person educational stance but ability and capacity.

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This information showed that the informal market was an environment that catered for everyone regardless of their colour, social stature, level of education, etc. The argument could be made that the informal market was transitioning to be a better and more convenient option for employment, even for tertiary degree graduates, since employment was not linked to an individual’s education status, but rather to their income levels and capacity to complete tasks. In the future the transition could involve the use of relevant knowledge and information from tertiary institutions in the informal market operations. For the most part, however, the educational levels of the informal market participants were very low. Additionally, people did not have ready access to educational institutions, and there were very few programmes that were willing to provide skills and information to trading participants.
5.2.3. Income earnings of informal participants

Ninety-five per cent of the people participating in informal market activities were within a low income bracket group, earning less than R5000 per month. This perpetuated the idea that informal market participants were people whose incomes were low. Even those who earned more than R5000 per month lived in poverty because they all faced the same poverty related issues, just at different levels. The other 5 per cent were employed in or operating businesses that provided unique services for which the demand was high and which had less competition. The type of structure that the business operated from also played a role in the income level.

Graph 5.3. Type of business premises

Graph 5.3 above shows the types of business premises/structures occupied, which informs the reader that the type of structure determined the participants’ income brackets, giving the traders access to the specific spots where they traded. The graph reveals lack of infrastructural resources catering for traders. A 48 percentage of workers use tent because there are there is no shelter (most of them are new and recently workers). 28 percent of the population in the area do not have any shelter. 16 percent of the population had shelter such as containers and government properties, which are either legally accessible and some are occupied illegally. Only 8 percent of the population have access to infrastructural resources for daily work which is appropriate for trading and these include old workers (structures are provided by the municipality). In these buildings and legally occupied spaces, rented was
paid for every six months and the prices differed according to the type of structure (table 5.1 below). People trading within buildings were considered to be earning more than R5000 a month, thus they paid more for the location of their businesses. However, there were some employed individuals who hired employees to trade for them in the informal market as a means of maximising profits, and they were. Informal activities in the study were very closely linked to income levels and employment status, as mentioned above. Most informal activities were practiced by community members who were not otherwise employed and these made up 92 per cent of the respondents interviewed.

Table: 5.1. Business rental prices

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Types</th>
<th>Price</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Buildings</td>
<td>R750.00x2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shelter</td>
<td>R450.00x2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tent</td>
<td>R250.00x2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nothing</td>
<td>R0.00x2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Survey results (2018)

Participants who had been involved in trading operations for years were the ones who rented areas in buildings and paid more for rent each month. According to two of the respondents (Respondents: 1 & 2), they had independently located trading places for themselves, but had subsequently been moved by the municipality to a building that it had constructed for the traders to use as their trading posts. This clearly showed that the government had only taken the initiative to construct a building to be utilised by older participants. Those who were new informal traders struggled to obtain proper shelter, let alone trading posts that were spatially integrated.

The increased population and activity in the informal market was clear evidence of the low income levels in townships resulting from poverty and a lack of job opportunities. This lack of job opportunities did not only apply to formal employment by the government or private companies; there was also a lack of opportunities to gain entrepreneurship skills and resources for business creation. Self-wealth creation is a principle used widely in different nations, where households make a living out of growing a business that the household members have created. At some point these household members would have been employed as professional workers by the government or by the private sector but they were still able to create, manage and grow a business without major difficulties.
a) Spatial planning for economic benefits

Apartheid’s influential prescription for town planning affected the model and current spatial design of cities in South Africa, and it specifically affected communities where people of colour were concentrated, such as those in townships. This spatial pattern was determined by the segregation ideology which was integrated within the planning. The planning of townships such as KwaMashu deliberately separated these communities from economic, social, environmental and political opportunities. This was done specifically to manipulate the potential and abilities of the people of colour, to keep them from independently improving themselves. Instead, the plan was to keep these communities stagnant and deny them growth which would be beneficial to them. Any access to resources and skills development which might have improved and increased their capacity for creating wealth was denied through these acts of segregation. This apartheid initiative was thus an impediment to Black communities as its physical attributes created a rooted imprint on the daily livelihood activities.

The imprint was clearly revealed and seen via its works within Black communities, with evidence of the existence of economic poverty affecting the social aspects of communities where people of colour resided, and social instability affecting their economic outcomes. Self-wealth creation was limited to very few people, even after 20 years of so called ‘democracy’ and a free rainbow nation. There were still high levels of inequality and corruption was unmanaged. The rich were getting richer and the poor even poorer, and those who were poor were the same people who were oppressed and still operated and lived according to segregated spatial patterns. Self-wealth creation as a means of generating adequate income for a better livelihood for communities subjected to apartheid’s footprints was a limited practice for people of colour, due to a number of factors imposed with the aim of stabilising prosperous growth in Black communities. These included:

1. Reinforcement of the law upon poor people by the government through the actions of the police.
2. Lack of laws to protect and improve the livelihood of such communities, and the application of laws designed to subdue people of colour by means of social, economic, political and spatial streams.
3. Physical barriers were major strategic tools that were still being used by the rich to separate, exclude and isolate Black communities from easy access to resources, skills and knowledge/education. This strategic enactment made it very hard to eradicate and remedy the apartheid footprints. It entailed the use of transport routes, buffers such as industrial areas between White people’s areas and Black people’s
areas, natural barriers like rivers, and the provision of small houses in high density areas and on plots too small to plant gardens for personal use, forcing people to work for money to get food.

4. Since the CBD was far from the residential area of KwaMashu, people who had jobs usually worked in the CBD or in places far from home. This meant that these people had to pay more for travel costs, which reduced their monthly income which could have been used to improve their lives. Instead a large portion of their income was used for transportation costs.

5. This tells us that the majority of people were thus limited to pursuing an income from informal activities, even though the informal market offered little to participants due to its operational constraints and barriers that included spatial insufficiency. No universal elements had been put in place to manage, control, regulate and improve the spatial design of informal markets. This was very likely because of informal markets’ nature in terms of emergence, formation, operation and functionality; they remained misunderstood in various ways because they were always in a revolutionary and transitional state.

What had been done in KwaMashu thus far was an attempt to see to the needs of the people by modifying the spatial design that already existed on the ground. There is no particular spatial design which incorporates informal activities, so the local government modified the current spatial design slightly as a means of accommodating the needs of the people to trade. This was done by allocating potential areas within ‘Station’ for the location of traders’ operations. Buildings were constructed for this purpose and some individuals were moved to these new trading posts. These individuals were moved from their unofficial trading posts on the pavements and pedestrian walkways, however, the majority of traders still used the pavements and pedestrian walkways for their business operations.

It was clear that the original constructive design did not include space for informal market activities, and this suggested it was not an objective of the municipality. The current government was also failing dismally, despite the resources and skills it possessed, as the spatial pattern and design of KwaMashu Township’s informal market operations was still not inclusive and did not cater for all of the informal traders. Informal traders were still occupying space planned for activities other than informal trading activities. This resulted in uncontrolled, mismanaged and crowded activities within a confined environment, with spatial insufficiency for these businesses, and this was not beneficial for social and economic growth in the area.
b) Lack of developmental resources

The status quo of the participants who engaged in informal trading was revealed by the study's findings. The vast majority of the participants (92%) were not formally employed and carried out informal activities as a means of earn a living. The remaining 8 per cent of the participants were formally employed but were also involved in informal trade activities. These participants employed other unemployed individuals to work for them at the market.

The concepts that female persons dominated the informal market environment and that the majority of those who participated in informal trade activities had no secondary or tertiary education gave rise to the notion that males in the area were given better educational opportunities than females. Those who had a secondary education were considered to be learned persons amongst the traders in most cases, although their knowledge was not beneficial to them as most of it was not applicable in their informal work environment.

The paradigm was thus that many of the community members were females and unemployed; they received a low income; had low educational qualifications; and were more likely to participate in the informal market. The operations in this area could be excused by the prior system’s planning of the area, with constrained development and restricted access to opportunities, including education. Bantu education provided for Black people was of a low standard and degrading to the nature of their being.

The lack of education in Black communities directly contributed to their poor opportunities for employment and thus affected the levels of income for the people in KwaMashu. Since the advent of democracy nothing much had changed, since the image of informal trading was still presented as obscure to the many who were not in the same position (suffering from poverty, lack of education, lack of social values, lack of accessibility, lack of direct and precise attention from the state/ government/ municipality departments) etc. Many people had been involved in informal trading for decades and were still socially and economically stagnant, with no better livelihoods or prospects. In fact, their situation was worsening because as more and more people worked to move out of the township area towards the CBD or outside the municipality their customer base became smaller. New people moving into the area would also not necessarily always buy from the informal traders and become consistent/loyal customers due to their loyalty to the formal sector. Some participants had been involved in informal trading for more than 60 years and they had still not seen any beneficial changes in the informal market (table 5.2).
Table: 5.2. Household income of informal traders in KwaMashu

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>Trader’s income (in Rands)</th>
<th>Number of traders</th>
<th>Number of traders (in %)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Marginalised</td>
<td>0 - 1500</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urban poor/low income</td>
<td>1 501 - 5 000</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle income</td>
<td>5 000 - 10 000</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>25</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Fieldwork results (2018)

5.3. VITAL FACTORS TO UNDERSTAND THE INFORMAL MARKET SPACE

Positive or negative change in society is driven by various elements, and in KwaMashu there were a chain of elements that determined the way the township functioned. It was evident that the majority of the people in KwaMashu were not employed and struggled to create businesses on a small scale due to the inconsistency of the spatial framework in meeting the needs of the community with regards to their access to and growth in the market. The people understood that the democratic freedom of 1994, under the leadership of the late and former President Nelson Mandela, had been hard fought for, to permit people to roam around the city without disqualification by any force. However it was more than that; it was about wealth creation for the previously deprived society, without any disqualification from the state or any other authority unless by a valid decree. Accessibility, viability and equality were just some of the factors/elements needed by African peoples to reach their objectives of improving their lives. However, these factors/elements were still denied to the people in KwaMashu, which explained the current state of negative changes in society in KwaMashu and the INK area.

Of those who were employed, the majority of them worked jobs that offered low pay, yet they worked far from home. This created tension in their households, with the need to add new income sources for survival. The informal sector was the best option for many and it acted as a safety net for them. It had already been established and acknowledged that KwaMashu was a low-income residential area and as such the social and economic dynamics observed were not surprising. It had been proved true that the community in the KwaMashu area had been deprived of growth and universal development in the past, and was a product of that deprivation. As the years have passed by and generations have come and gone, almost nothing has changed in terms of these underprivileged people’s social welfare. Those most likely to participate in the informal market were people of colour who had been deprived in the past of any economic and social welfare and were now underprivileged and vulnerable. This vulnerability aspect further elucidated the relevance of the respondents’ complaints and
issues left unsolved for many years and also their inability to expand and grow (table: 5.3). To draw attention to the point once again: the spatial design of KwaMashu ‘Station’ area provided clear proof that the community had not been involved in the planning and designing of the area.

5.3.1. Community issues and the planning process

To some extent some researchers could argue that the community had never been involved or consulted in the process of planning, thus the current spatial design compromising the planned uses to accommodate informal trading activities was of little use in trying to help a broken people. Since there were no potential alternatives for people to grow sufficiently through economic means, hope had been placed on the informal market since informal trading had become the major means by which the society could sustain their livelihood standards. Participants operating within the informal market and the spatial design of the area had various issues, some of which had been heard by the municipality and others not, but several of these issues remained unresolved. A number of these basic issues were mentioned by the study participants, revealing the level of community exclusion in the current operation and planning of the area. The type and variety of issues affecting the informal market in KwaMashu indicated how responsive the municipality was towards the informal markets in the area (table 5.3 below). One of the issues raised was the need for basic resources that would be beneficial for the traders operating within the current state of planning. The area was consistent with the planning ideas used to design it; planning that excluded informal activities by spatially planning an environment that promoted buying and selling of formal sector businesses.

Table: 5.3. Issues and complaints of informal trader respondents in KwaMashu.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participants concerns</th>
<th>Detail</th>
<th>Number of respondents</th>
<th>Percentages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Poor safety</td>
<td>No security, safety from cars</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crime</td>
<td>Theft</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Privation of infrastructure</td>
<td>Pipes, buildings dilapidated, construction is bad, more buildings needed, Victims of bad weather</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>40%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Privation of services</td>
<td>Water, toilets</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>40%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The table above shows the extent to which the municipality and the area’s planning affected the people’s informal activity operations at a basic level. The table also illustrates issues that they faced within the area, over and above their economic and social constraints resulting from the strategic spatial planning of KwaMashu.

### 5.3.2. Safety

Safety should be a priority for workers, especially when a number of people are involved and have one objective in common. The government should be responsible for keeping the community safe from natural, technological, health and criminal calamities. Due to the nature of the spatial form, traders were forced to occupy areas planned for another use, such as pavements, pedestrian walkways, bridges, vacant space, etc. this occupation compromises of people viability within the area. Their spatial location exposed traders to becoming victims of crime, and the places which they used to trade had no safety measures provided to
protect them from accidents and various precarious elements such as bad weather. Some of the respondents interviewed mentioned the following:

I. “There was one incident were a car crashed into one of the tents and damaged the trader’s tent, but luckily no one got hurt”.

II. “We do not have proper structures to work [in] thus we are frequently victims of bad weather, which damages our products and affects operations”.

III. “There are criminal activities in the area, where people steal our products and there is no one to report to, except chase that person if you can with help from others”.

However, people mentioned that though working within such conditions, there was no other option but to carry on trading as they did not have the income to care for their households. And since the informal market acted as a safety net to gain income they were pressured to stay there, with or without positive outcomes.

a) Crime

The area was a place where people lived in poverty. This meant there were high levels of crime in this area as people resorted to crime to try and survive. The lack of education and employment created a social issue that increased crime amongst the young people. This affected the community negatively because it was a setback for those who had fallen victim to the criminals, and those who wanted to expand were discouraged from doing so. They were fearful of bringing more products into the market area for sale as the products could be stolen. Although the area had facilities such as a police station and a community forum, the community explained that these were not effective in attending to the traders’ issues.

5.3.3. Privation of representatives

Another factor that respondents mentioned was the lack of mediators to represent informal traders at meetings with the municipality in an upstanding manner. This meant that there were no organisations and institutions at municipal and community level who pursued the interests of the workers and with whom workers could consult and address their complaints. One respondent said:

“There are organisations and institutions designed to usher in the matters of economic provision for the disadvantaged, like Asiyetafuleni and Sizakal, but they could not help”.

Some respondents mentioned the informal trading market committee and attending meetings with them, however, they did not see them as their representatives because the committee hardly resolved anything that was an issue in the market place. Municipal officials
projected the idea that informal market participants should be self-organised and create their own organisation, rules and principles to adhere to. This was because the municipality claimed that it did not have the budget, guidance and skill to manage informal market operations.

5.3.4. Privation of finance

The informal market participants in KwaMashu’s ‘Station’ area mentioned economic factors that caused constraints for informal business growth and expansion; factors such as financial instability and capital insufficiency. Firstly, the issue of financial instability was challenging for people who had not yet entered the informal marketplace as they were restricted from doing so. Secondly, capital insufficiency which affected people who were already participating in the informal market prevented them from growing or expanding due to an insufficient flow of capital. Financial instability was one of the key factors that limited communities of African descent in anything. For such communities it was hard to get a better livelihood if not born into it by chance. In most cases households needed capital to survive; they needed capital to come out of poverty e.g. establish a small business; look for work, and to achieve stability when working or in business.

Ideally cash flow needed to be consistent; with a person being able to save 40% of his/her income while 60% was allocated for all expenditures. However, in townships this was not applicable in the majority of households. In the case of informal market traders, their cash flow was insufficient and this limited their ability to invest in their businesses and take care of their families at the same time. It would be farfetched to imagine/conceive that these disadvantaged participants were able to better their households while operating their businesses successfully as most of them were only just able to survive with the level of cash flow. Another respondent stated that they could not get financial help from financial institutions because the majority of them did not meet the requirements of the institutions. Thus they tended to borrow money from loan sharks when things got too challenging and when they had to pay the loans back with high interest rates they struggled to maintain their businesses.

5.3.5. Legislation

In the case of legislation and regulations, all respondents stated that there was no legislative framework that supported their activities and the spatial planning in existence did not show any representation of informal market inclusiveness within the planning of the study area. Some respondents recognised the KwaMashu Forum as an action force that offered the informal marketplace legislative support to a certain extent, although it was not legislatively
authorised. The municipality provided a list of policies and legislative frameworks that spoke of development, integration, spatial justice, economic and social development, employment creation, informal market provision, etc., but the question was ‘what, when, who and how’ were they manifested on the ground. The list of legislative and policy frameworks that supported the informal market mentioned by the authorities were discussed in Chapter Three under legislation (table form) and the frameworks have been discussed here in section 5.3.

5.3.6. Privation of resources

Resource privation came from the lack of support in terms of capital, resources, skill development and education, as mentioned above, and the informal market could not function efficiently without the relevant resources. In KwaMashu there were no educational facilities that provided the relevant knowledge to promote local production and increase the capacity of the informal economic growth within the community. Resource provision would allow the relationship between the formal and the informal market to be coordinated and interlinked. This would promote governmental involvement, investments, public and private participation, consistency and a strong systematic bond between the economic means of production.

In the study area there were no skills development institutions and residents had limited access to financial institutions for loans. This was unfortunately insufficient for the needs of the informal market as traders did not have access to these opportunities locally. Thus, the study area was affected very much by the lack of access to resources. The municipality confirmed this by stating that ‘there were high numbers of participants in the informal market but that resources were limited. This meant that some would get resources and some would not’. It was unclear how the decision would be made regarding ‘who was more privileged’ to receive assistance. This created iniquity in the market, which would later lead to bribery and corruption as people tried to outbid each other for this favoured position. This caused conflict and dispute amongst the committees and participators. The municipality’s strategy to provide what they could was not sustainable; they could only provide resources for a few, and the resources that were provided were not provided consistently in KwaMashu. As a result people had to come with their own resources, including tools such as tables, cages, tents, etc.

5.3.7. Privation of infrastructure

Infrastructure is a vital basic component for people to function, and in the informal market it is a requirement just like in any other urban activity zone. Service provision is entailed in the delivery of infrastructure, and services provide support to social and economic growth,
promoting capital intensity and labour productivity which reduces costs and increases profits. Infrastructure is an integral element in informal markets. The infrastructure in the ‘Station’ area should have promoted viability and mobility, however, this feature was lacking in the area as the infrastructure that existed was not designed for trading. This was one of the major issues that KwaMashu traders experienced. There were very few infrastructural elements that responded to the informal activity operations and most of them were insufficient since those that existed had a small carrying capacity and were only beneficial for a few who had access to them.

The majority of the people who had access to the available infrastructure expressed that the infrastructure was of little benefit to them as it had not helped them grow and expand their businesses. In addition to the lacking infrastructure, traders complained that the buildings provided for trading were dilapidated and were becoming dangerous as there were numerous cracks within the building. Buildings also had water drainage issues and unfixed pipes, toilets were damaged, etc. This issue was reported by 84 per cent of the respondents in the field, stating that these infrastructural problems resulted in drawbacks to their daily operations and development on a small and large scale.

a) Privation of services

There was a lack of services in the area; the majority of the participants, along with other people who were involved in the different market activities, used the same toilets and they were designed to be used by taxi rank people. Since there was a shortage of such services people all used the same services, creating overcrowding and more damage to the infrastructure and services. There was a lack of electricity and water in most areas within the ‘Station’ area and this created a pattern of hardship for traders to accomplish their daily activities and benefit their businesses.

b) Privation of space

Spatial factors within the area were key factors that needed configuration to the specification of the operations and functionality that existed in the area. Policy frameworks provided a tool in this context to be used in the general restructuring of the space, in an attempt to provide for the necessary needs of the community and make life better for them. The Spatial Planning Land Use Management Act (SPLUMA) was endorsed on the 5th of August 2013. The body responsible for the formulation of this Act was the Department of Rural Development and Land Reform (2013). This was done after a wide range of discussions with pertinent stakeholders which included South African Local Government Association (SALGA) and different municipalities. Nevertheless, SPLUMA was considered in effect on
the 1st of July 2015. Key stakeholders in the on-the-ground implementation of SPLUMA were municipalities. Although SPLUMA was still considered relatively new, there should have been signs of the implementation of some of its policies and principles in previously disadvantaged areas such as KwaMashu. This was, however, not much in evidence.

5.3.8. Potential benefits of spatial configuration

The purpose of policy and legislation in the likes of SPLUMA, spatial development planning, land use management schemes, land development management systems etc. is to provide a structural framework for land use management and spatial planning in South Africa. It focuses on specifying the relationship between the spatial planning and land use management system with other forms of planning such as infrastructure, and social and economic projections. It ensures a systematic form of planning for space and land use management towards social and economic inclusion. This is regulated by principles, norms and standards, facilitating the notion of sustainability and efficient use of land. It also provides a direct relationship between intergovernmental relations and it addresses the imbalance of the past, trying to ensure equity and stability (Barnes and Nel, 2017).

Section Three of SPLUMA sets out the objectives of the Act that include: i) the provision of a uniform, effective and comprehensive system of spatial planning and land use management for the Republic; ii) ensuring that the system of spatial planning and land use management promotes social and economic inclusion; iii) the provision for development principles and norms and standards for the sustainable and efficient use of land (important development norms and standards entail: spatial justice; spatial sustainability; efficiency; and spatial resilience); iv) and the provision for cooperative government and intergovernmental relations amongst national, provincial and local spheres of government in an attempt to create an interlinked relationship between the governmental spheres, making it viable to redress the imbalances of the past and to ensure that there is equity and efficiency in the application of spatial development planning and land use management systems. Spatial legislation is applicable in the whole of South Africa (urban and rural areas) as it governs land use in all settlement types.

5.3.9. Land inadequacy for informal operations

The lack of land was an issue that existed in a number of areas apart from the study area. The study area was challenged by a lack of available land within the area to accommodate both the number of informal market participants and the formal market activities at the same time. The study area was inconsistent with the different activities that were provided (e.g. retail, commercial, light industrial, etc.). Most community members were not concerned too
much with where they were located within the study area, although this was raised, rather, they were more concerned about the availability of land and space for the establishment of businesses. The issue was mentioned by respondents with regards to the availability of land and its feasibility for business purposes. This issue challenged all informal workers in the study area as it limited their operations by causing crowdedness, vast amounts of competition threatened their profit levels, criminal activities had increased, business expansion was impeded, etc.

However, the prospect of land scarcity was a complex one and a necessity to many actors in the market who were willing to take measures to seize a piece of land. For the poor it was a chance to make a living and that was why at times they occupied land without permits from the municipality. However, when traders occupied land in the study area, whether with a permit or not, they occupied spaces that had a different purpose and the area became mismanaged and expansion unplanned. This expansion could be regarded as unplanned because urban planning is defined as: having coordination amongst buildings and space, there is a level of formality and the monumentality of the layout must be consistent, there is a geometric mandate, and access and viability must be maintained. Urban planning also acknowledges the importance of standardisation in an urban environment, speaking of the formation of a sufficient and effective urban design through urban architecture inventories, metrology, coordination and spatial layout which includes everything happening within the area. All of the above was under stress in KwaMashu (Smith, 2007).

a) Less planned for urban areas

Smith (2007) described the concept of more planned and less planned cities and by looking at the situation in KwaMashu it was evident that this was a less planned urban area. Smith explained that a less planned area referred to a lesser degree of standardisation and coordination in the planning. KwaMashu was lacking in all of these features, not only functionally but also in its expansion. There was no specific area other than the informal market that played a major role in empowering its users (the poor) and improving their livelihoods. The issue of the lack of land was one of the reasons why it would be a challenge for more people to participate in the informal market, receive permits, be assigned proper spaces and location, and have their businesses expand and grow. The municipality has argued that the study area was never spatially designed to accommodate informal trading. Additionally, the design of the area was complicated to redesign and the land scarcity meant that there was no land that could specifically be allocated to this function. The informal trading activities occurred where formal businesses and trading were supposed to be, and they had not been included within the spatial framework of the study area. There was next to
no evidence that there was a legislative framework supporting, controlling and managing the informal market activities in the study area.

The activities taking place were thus unsuitable and led to inefficiency. Informal business was being practiced everywhere where there was a space to work; these traders occupied land that was under government authority and land that was not. Trade took place on any land that was accessible and available for operations, such as on pavements and walkways, land owned by private owners, railway reserves, open spaces and roadsides. Some traders had containers as the structures allocated to them within the study area, but without permits. The nature of the increase of informal activities was argued to be completely based on off-plot trading.

The issuing of permits did not mean that traders were spatially included within the design of the area; they only allowed them to occupy and use the area for their economic operations. However, people trading without permits were evicted on a regular basis and given penalty tickets to render to the municipality for occupying spaces not allocated for their disposal. The researcher has acknowledged the initiative shown by the municipality in showing recognition of the informal market and the support given to its basic functionality, although spatial planning did not include informal market activities nor give land for its operation. The issue of land was diverse in various disciplines of thought, and within the municipality the issue also extended to housing initiatives to solve the housing backlog.

b) Land scarcity vs beneficiaries and stakeholders

Land availability was a challenge that was argued by various actors, beneficiaries and stakeholders to be a complex theme for debate. Town planners were inconsistent in their decision making and decisions depended on who had more valid reasons, rather than on equality and what was best for the community. People were categorised into different categories in terms of housing, business and employment (capitalists), agriculture, environmental management, etc. Competition for land was very high, and within each category there was competition between the different sectors (e.g. business: industrial, commercial and retail participants). Since informal activities were practiced on land not designed for such activities, traders were restricted from exercising their rights on the land they occupied as they felt that they could not complain too much. They opted to use what they had as they felt that their personal enclosures were insignificant and feared reprisals from the municipality. The issue of land ownership also affected potential investment within the informal markets for fear that investors would not be able to make a profit as working in the area was potentially high in risks.
Municipal officials have commented on the fact that there was no clear legislative framework at a national level or formulated at a local level supporting informal traders and their activities. A legislative framework would be used to control, manage and support informal market activities in the area. In addition to the lack of a legislative framework for use by the municipality, there was also no legal or policy instrument given to traders which would play a role in including them in spatial planning decision making, and that could be put into practice to protect them. All of the respondents mentioned this lack. A policy instrument for environmental usage and protection exists, namely NEMA (National Environmental management Act). The policy gives guidance on the use of the environment and specifies principles to protect the environment from exploitation and degradation. However, in the informal market this policy and its principles don’t exist, and the people use space and land that is accessible and available without permits from the municipality.

5.4. SPATIAL PLANNING AND LAYOUT OF THE ‘STATION’ STUDY AREA

5.4.1. Environment responsiveness

The spatial planning concepts of KwaMashu’s environmental responsiveness and performance (legibility, permeability, variety, personalisation, richness, visual appreciation, robustness) were achieved through various aspects including policy and legislation. The area’s spatial spectrum concepts could be described as follows: There was little legibility in the study area since there were few clear visual characteristics that existed, but the community members could not miss them. The environment was easy to understand due to its linear form of design which comprised of one major road, and a few buildings that acted as landmarks. These could be spotted at a distance within the study area and were easy to interpret and understand. There was a node like the ones in a mixed use zone with various stores. The roads were straight with signs and certain marks that could easily be understood (Bentley et al, 1985).

There was reduced permeability in the study area for customers and vehicles/transport since although the roads were straight and had two lanes, there were very few access points. Therefore, if customers with vehicles missed a point, they had to go around circles to get back to that specific point. Customers also had to go a specific distance to get to a place that they could identify. The conclusion was thus that the study area did not offer a number of alternatives to use and it was not highly accessible, thus customers’ freedom of movement was restricted. With respect to the pavements and walkways in the study area, they were also not permeable since no alternative routes were available and there was no space for
freedom of movement as the pavements and walkways were occupied by traders. Customers needed to walk a long way to reach a certain point due to that fact that the paths used had barriers such as fences and access points were not clearly visible and easily identifiable for users to pinpoint.

There was variety in the study area, provided by the variety of informal activities at an average distance apart. Things such as clothing, food, workshops, cosmetics, hardware and various services (offices) were available, although the majority of the traders were not given specific market places where people could buy and sell. The study area did not have a park for social interaction, places for formal and informal meetings, and places for educational purposes. There were no residential areas and hotels, and the area was not restricted to one particular use but rather explored a variety of services and activities (Bentley et al, 1985).

Personalisation of the environment was evident within the study area. As community member forced their way into informality as a means of earning income, the image of informal activities was clearly identified. People had taken the space available and made it into a place of work and trading although it was not designed for it. When observing the area’s functionality and operational system the researcher found a number of people walking around the study area interacting with others and conducting their daily business, and concluded that people had personalised the area and thus felt safe and comfortable do to anything at any time, regardless of the situation (Bentley et al, 1985).

The visual appreciation of the study area was confusing and not clear or easy to grasp. People did not easily understand the use of a certain building because the building structures had changed in use over the years and the land uses had been manipulated to suit the needs of the people. It was therefore not easy to identify what the building and land uses were for, whether for shops, residents or offices, and whether regulated or not, etc. The majority of the existing land uses and structures within the study area thus had no meaning and did not make sense to the observer due to the mix of uses in the confined space (Bentley et al, 1985).

The robustness of the spatial layout was provided by its multiple mixed uses; people were not limited people to a single use but rather had multiple choices to explore. The area was characterised by the large degree of social interaction that occurred, as people could interact with customers and socialise with each other easily because the area was so crowded. In addition, it provided an informal market place where people were able to trade. The environment alone was robust since it provided various activities in one place, such as social interaction, work, business, etc.
5.4.2. Performance and sensitivity analysis

Performance and sensitivity analysis looks at the strengths and weaknesses of an area. It evaluates the benefits of the area’s strategic location and what it offers. The Lynch Analysis overviews the opportunities that an area provides and identifies the main features that describe the nature of the area in terms of the activities taking place within it. The analysis looks at the vitality, fitness, accessibility, control, sensitivity, identity, structure, meaning and congruence of an area. The ‘Station’ area lacked vitality since it did not embody ecological elements such as the use of air circulation modems and vegetation/trees by providing parks and open spaces, or provide adequate water. The area did not allow biological activity by the people as they lacked freedom of movement, although the municipality was trying to clean the environmental pollutants (Lynch, 1981).

Fitness speaks to the visual structure of the area and the fitness was not consistent with the functionality of the area. The observer was not able to identify the use of a structure from observing the form of the area (residential from residential, commercial from commercial, business from business). According to Lynch (1981), the creation of congruence between form and patterns of behaviours makes people feel comfortable.

Accessibility in the study area was adequate, to a certain extent. The study area provided directions, signs and information to allow the observer to reach a point that they wanted to reach. The study area was accessible to transport in terms of criteria used abroad, however, in the local context it was not suitable. This was due to the level of congestion by vehicles and people as there were no proper walkways and accessing certain points was difficult, although the area offered a degree of choices and diversity (Lynch, 1981).

Control of the environment was not fully in the hands of the people. Rather the area and the municipality had the upper hand. If a trader wanted to expand his/her area of work they could not due to the space constraints and there were no other alternative sites. Traders could not choose a suitable position to work in and there was no strategic planning within the system. The flow of customers was consistent and some traders were disadvantaged due to their positioning. However, certain points were controlled by the people by changing/bringing facilities to within a walkable distance, (Lynch, 1981).

Sensitivity was evident in the area as community members from different cultures and backgrounds operated within the study area and demonstrated sensitivity to each other’s
cultures and backgrounds. Sensitivity to each other’s requirements also allowed different people to work and provide the services that they wished to provide, regardless of the location, although it did limit traders on a certain level. Everyone had a small plot to work on and these plots sustained their trading (Lynch, 1981).

The structure of the study area was a linear structure, which was less compatible and inclusive. The sense of compatibility was lessened by the way buildings were structured. The perception that land uses were closely linked to the transportation system was hardly accounted for in the structural planning of the area. Offices were not located ideally, according to the researcher, as their locations interfered with the idea of viability and freedom of movement (Lynch, 1981).

The Congruence of the environment was not ideal due to the inconsistency of ‘space and function’ it provided. Land uses were poorly allocated, inadequately accommodating participants but benefiting their businesses on a small scale. The area’s spatial form was designed to accommodate formal businesses, people and vehicles. In addition, it accommodated the working class, and office spaces were congruent since they accommodated the needs of the users. However, the majority of the area did not provide parking spaces for workers. Informal market activities’ functionality was dependent on space configuration and availability, therefore, the environment had to provide space for these uses (Lynch, 1981).

5.4.3. Responsiveness of the municipality and town planning systems to informal markets

Municipal and town planning systems aim to ensure that planning is coordinated and proper; they focus on all district and local municipal aspects of planning. The South African Constitution (1996) Section 156 (1), read together with Part B of Schedule 4 specifies that certain activities of government are reserved for municipalities. These include schemes and strategies that focus on a specific area. The municipalities thus determine and distribute the rights on how land may be developed and used.

The Spatial Planning Land Use Management Act: SPLUMA Act No. 16 (2013) was formulated in 2013 and enacted in 2015. It states that spatial planning and land use management provision must be effective, efficient, sustainable, and comprehensive coordinated by planning systems. It further states that socio-economic inclusion must be promoted within spatial planning and land use management. The Act also focuses on fixing the effects of apartheid planning on current spatial planning layouts. However, although the
The intention of the Act to remedy the injustice of spatial planning for the underprivileged is good, the Act does not directly say anything about the support of informal markets as an economic hub for the poor. In this respect, the Act does not give guidance or make reference to the needs of the communities within informal markets through strategic spatial planning.

Spatial Development Framework: The SDF seeks acceptance from different audiences and stakeholders. This already suggests that its focus is to serve its intention rather than the needs of the people. The framework discusses proposals of spatial interventions that deal with spatial issues in municipalities and support the development of adequate spatial form. It also entails principles in the Development Facilitation Act 67 of 1995 on the concept of spatial manifestation. It also discusses a variety of ideas such as the vision and objectives of a municipality, sector plans alignment, that spatial inefficiencies be addressed and the establishment of a relationship between rural and urban areas. This Act is not relevant to the situation within informal markets although it touches on them a little, stating that stakeholders in the preparation of the SDF include the following: civil society organisations such as civics, ratepayers’ associations, heritage organisations, business chambers, informal traders’ organisations [and] farmers’ unions. The Act is thus not relevant and currently does not function in the context of the study area, which means it indicates a lack of knowledge of what informal traders need and what challenges they face.

Integrated Development Plan: according to the Local Government: Municipal Systems Act, 2000 (Act 32 of 2000), the IDP focuses on a variety of issues and challenges that the municipality has identified as crucial. It mentions the following: better service delivery; reduction of poverty; local economic development; a partnership approach which means that investments are made; spatial integration which entails inclusive measures towards specific principles; evaluation and monitoring consisting of standardisation and management; implementation establishment; and extension of the urban spatial sphere. The IDP has an understanding of the needs of the poor since it specifically mentions poverty reduction. The IDP, however, gives too much hope of spatial transformation and socio-economic development, and although it has the potential to reach its objectives of development, it needs support and access to important resources. Unfortunately, the accessibility to resources is limited to municipal reach and this hinders the government from adequately implementing planned for. Nevertheless, the IDP has an interesting objective concerning the informal sector and its developmental plans. It talks about the establishment of employment opportunities and growth in income generation through an analysis of economic structures, potential and trends within markets for business within the categories A and C in the municipal business catalogue. The IDP acknowledges the inclusion of public participation within urban spatial planning processes and decision making. It speaks of involving
community businesses and including informal sector participants. It attempts to establish an employment generating local economic development plan that promotes both formal and informal sectors, taking measures that improve investment for informal sector activities. The IDP has the potential to achieve its objectives concerning economic development and improving informal market trading efficiency. However, it is imperative to conclude that the IDP does not include informal markets within planning, and has flaws as it loses sight of the needs of traders in the spatial and land use management context.

Planning and Development Act No. 6 of 2008: The PDA (2008) speaks of scheme amendments, land subdivision and consolidation, development outside schemes, cancellation of approved plans, closure of services and public places, implementation of schemes and Acts, the establishment of regulations and standards, etc. These principles of the PDA are sufficient and adequate to remedy the spatial layout in KwaMashu’s study area as a means of revitalising the area with inclusiveness of the informal market. Nevertheless, the Act does not mention anything with regards to informal trading and operations. This suggests it does not deal with issues directly affecting informal markets within the eThekwini municipality/study area, although it would be effective if its principles were directly intended for planning for the informal market in an urban environment with high rates of poverty and unemployment.

National Development Plan: The NDP does not focus on municipal level issues but rather looks at issues on a national scale. However, the issue of informal markets being underdeveloped and often neglected in spatial planning frameworks is a national issue, as it affects people across South Africa. As unemployment rates increase in South Africa the NDP brings attention to the point that we all need each other and should unify in the developmental process, collaborating with different sectors and including the community. The NDP entails employment agendas, and growth and investment potentials. The NDP places emphasis of education promotion and corruption reduction. But the NDP does not mention the informal market as a means of employment creation opportunities, which makes the NDP inadequate in solving spatial issues as that level (National Planning Commission, 2015).

Local Area Plan: The LAP is focused on addressing issues that occur at a local level. The LAP is a more accurate area plan that tries to mandate plans to develop communities and their area through its emphasis on effective planning practices and energy to improve the community’s quality of livelihood. The LAP attempts to implement consistency, content, effectiveness and efficiency in urban planning and spatial designs. It emphasises community participation in planning and local area plan amending, mediating for co-ordination and the
provision of public infrastructure. The LAP is a relevant plan of legislative frameworks toward the informal market’s integration into urban spatial planning. To show its inclusiveness of the informal market into spatial planning the LAP entails principles of improving network connectivity, the provision of space able to accommodate more than 80 per cent of the informal traders who are registered by providing wider pavements (around facilities and public transport hubs, streets must have wider-pavements), and active market spaces. The LAP emphasises accessibility to larger markets as a means of improving sustainable local livelihoods. Business support and smart city infrastructure is seen as important for economic development and viability. Services are to be managed, such as storage containers and waste management, and all should entail easy access to adequate facilities. Registration for informal market participation contains legal rights that protect participants, which will increase legal informal trade. In addition, the LAP talks about the emerging spatial responses designed to address constraints facing the informal economy are designed to support and protect the informal sector in suitable trading areas (Department of the Environment, Community and Local Government, 2013). The LAP shows its inclusiveness of the informal market in its agendas of spatial development planning. The effects of the LAP’s principles and characteristics in planning are slightly realised in the study area but they operate without adequate coordination, control and management prospects. Nonetheless, it is evident that the study area itself is not a product of the LAP.

Local Economic Development: This is a local economic development programme intended to address developmental agendas within the economic sector at a local level (developing a holistic strategy aimed at growing local firms) (Department Provincial and Local Government, 2011). It entails competitive investment provision, the promotion of collaborative approaches towards development, along with support and networking. Business clusters are encouraged with skills development and education accessibility. The improvement of the quality of life in the community is the main objective of the LED, via economic initiatives. With respect to informal market activities, it does not include too much direct focus on the issue of informal markets, though strategy seven of the LED speaks on the development of the informal sector and ensuring optimal opportunities in that field of economic development.

Provincial Growth and Development Strategy: The State of KZN Province Address in 2010 by Mkhize discussed the PGDS and it recognised of the importance of education, health, food security, countering corruption and crime, nation-building, good governance and job creation for the achievement of economic growth. This strategy has a legislative configuration and although it is a regional level development strategy it entails the developmental priorities for the informal market. The PGDS directly addresses informal markets by including the provision of an overarching framework dealing with strategies
aiming to ensure support, promotion and growth initiatives towards economic activities. Infrastructure intervention and skills development for local markets are encouraged to support local production.

Durban Informal Economy Policy (2001): The DIEP is one policy that is directly focused on addressing the informal economy and it pertains to the specific local area/municipality of Durban, which makes it the relevant policy for the discourse of this research (EThekwini Unicity Municipality, 2001). The DIEP has the following purposes: i) it clarifies government principles and approaches towards economic growth, forming the basis for legislation that is efficient and suitable; ii) it encourages government departments’ collaboration by providing the basis for action that is common, such as decision making and the distribution of resources for economic support and management; and finally, iii) the DIEP provides the basis for stakeholders to reach agreement concerning the roles of local government in the community and in urban planning.

The DIEP speaks of informal market operation on the basis of policy goals. It states that the goals are long term goals that aim to support the growth of the informal market and its workers into the formal economy. The policy identifies the challenge that is emerging concerning the rapid de-formalisation of the formal economy, thus the policy recognises the importance on the informal market to those who are unemployed, stating “the informal economy offers diverse opportunities for absorbing those who have lost their jobs, and for new entrants into the economy. The informal economy is here to stay, not only in Durban, but internationally” (DIEP, 2001: 2). The policy recognises the interrelationship of the formal and informal markets, ‘one being dependent on the other’. It supports the equal distribution of market resources so as to grow both sectors effectively. The initiative towards the promotion of smaller enterprises is emphasised, which will be accompanied by management strategies that will focus on people trading in public and private spaces, leading to a platform where the expansion of informal market perimeters is possible and effective. South Africa’s informal economy has not gained sufficient support through tools such as SMME policies, which concentrate rather on medium size enterprises.

The DIEP identifies the challenge informal markets are facing, stating:

Not enough support has been given to the poorer segment of the economy, the very small operators in the SMME sector, sometimes called survivalists. At [a] national level, the Department of Trade and Industry (DTI) acknowledges its lack of success overall in supporting SMMEs, and especially poorer ones. Private training and support providers in the city and region are nearly uniformly missing the poorer operators and survivalists (DIEP, 2001: 3).
This shows the level of inclusiveness informal markets had in the past in terms of spatial planning and developmental growth initiatives, thus, the DIEP is attempting to increase the level of inclusiveness by encouraging support in terms of capital, resources, skills development and education. Also, the coordination and redefined roles of government actors are required to achieve the objective. The main aim is to balance the necessity of job creation in both formal and informal sectors of the economy through adequate management. The policy is precise and provisional for many of the informal market’s needs, and even with all its qualities and appropriate strategies the DIEP seems to be ineffective in KwaMashu, so it’s possible/probable that the implementation process was not initiated or the policy was never implemented properly.

5.5. SOCIO-ECONOMICS AND DYNAMICS

The emergence of informal markets in the study area remained an ongoing process. The first people to operate in informal activities were people who were the first to settle in KwaMashu as a result of the forceful removals in the 1950s (Molefe, 2009). The economic perspective of the operation was vast and still increasing, with a yearly growth in the number of informal traders who hoped to reap economic benefits and social empowerment through employment, accessibility to facilities and services, etc. The informal market was passively and negatively changing within the adaptation process into a new spatial, social political and economic force.

The informal market operation in the KwaMashu market was seen as a ‘people-enabled and controlled commodity’ that was intended to meet the shortfalls of the economic sector (Mthembu, 2017: 63-65). From a social view, accessibility to and participation in the informal market was perceived to be a response to the quantitative and qualitative rate of unemployment in the country. In the municipality, in this case of KwaMashu, the informal trading activities were a means of enabling productivity by allowing people to participate in socio-economic development on a local scale, through the provision of a spatial platform where economic opportunities for the poor emerged. The municipality supported this by enabling a spatial platform for community members to operate in a space that was not designed for that use. This initiative was proposed by developers (although informal activities already existed in contravention of the laws in place) within the third sector such as Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs). NGOs’ principles do not include generating profit, so advocacy for informal markets’ support and inclusion into spatial frameworks should be effective since the informal market is recognized to be a platform for the poor, disadvantaged and unemployed people, and the NGOs have nothing to gain personally.
5.5.1. Participants’ population dynamics

Informal activities in the study area were clustered separately within close proximity to each other, refer to figure 5.1. This figure showed where the activity zones of the traders in the study were, and it showed how the activities appeared to be all spread out in three phases alongside the local and access roads. The phases included: firstly, zones with regular traders who had permits and operated within government boundaries, some with proper structures and services, some without any proper structures and services. Secondly, there were traders outside the boundaries of the municipality and they were denied assistance from the municipality. Some had a good place from which to conduct their businesses because they had used a lot of space (using containers). And finally, traders who operated their businesses out of constructed buildings. The study had participants from all three zones. However, there were zones of activity, where the observer could not differentiate the pattern of zones and because the sampling method was a random sampling it allowed the researcher to continue asking randomly.

Figure 5.1 used circles to illustrate the trading zones and the sizes of the circles represented the number of trading activities within different spatial zones. The bigger the size of the circle, the bigger the number of trading activities in that zone. Each spatial zone consisted of different activates and services. The population group dominating the zones was Black people of different ages and all faced poverty. The method for counting these zones was the use of the dot (yellow) system on an orthographic picture. Population participants of the study were community members of the INK that were living in the INK area and surrounding areas. The number of individual businesses in the zones ranged from approximately 5 to 50 traders, assuming each trader owned one trading post (see table 5.4 below).

- 6.6% = 0.07  
  25 population= 380 x 0.07
  100
The 6.6 per cent (≈ 7 per cent) sample of the population comprised the 25 informal participants interviewed. All activity zones’ capacity loads equalled 25 people x 6.6 per cent = 1.65 capacity load for each person. The sample of respondents in the area was the sum of the informal trading participants within all activity zones put together, and the population reached 380+/-, which was the sample size of the informal trade participants. Ninety-two per cent of the 25 respondents were informal market participants who were unemployed, as was mentioned above. Considering the numbers of affected population in the study area which has determined the relationship between informal traders in KwaMashu and the development policies, programs, finances and resources of the municipalities economic and
spatial development departments, it was vital that the required assistance be adequately delivered for the socio-economic benefit of the informal market participants.

Table: 5.4. Each zone's approximate capacity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Traders per zone</th>
<th>Number of zones</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50+/-</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>150+/-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>16</strong></td>
<td><strong>380+/-</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Fieldwork Results (2018)

5.5.2. Local department initiatives

The local government budgeted to have sufficient funds in place for socio-economic development in the area. At the time of the study the services provided were water and electricity, although these were not adequately distributed amongst the zones and this perpetuated the lack of access for many. Services were subsidised for participants who had access to them but they struggled to pay for them due to the low profits from their businesses. The government had taken the initiative to provide services such as shelters and space for trading, to fix the toilets and to improve safety in the area. The aim was to enhance the socio-economic perspectives of the community members through spatial and structural attempts; merging the economic needs of the community with the environment/area’s beneficial factors by connecting people to the area spatially and giving them access to services on a local-scale. This mandate was mentioned by respondents, who stated that they had been promised by the municipality that they would be provided with space, shelter and services for operational purposes. One respondent stated: “we do not have permits to legally participate in activities, but the municipality promised to provide us with permits and give us space to participate in economic activities in this area”.

5.5.3. Influence of transportation on economic development

The study area had a high degree of interconnectedness between the informal participants and the area, as these people had transformed this area spatially designed for formal activities into an area dominated by informal economic operations. Both formal and informal economic dynamics were reliant on the sub-structure of transport systems, the number of customers, the formal market’s location and the availability of social facilities and infrastructure. The majority of people accessed the study area using public transport (taxis
and buses) which travelled along the local distributor. This provided adequate linkage to those formally employed (formal businesses) but less so to the unemployed informal traders. The number of people/customers varied everyday even though the transport system was adequate. Some of the participants complained about customer flow and the lack of economic attractors. The study area thus had the characteristics of low development and lacking resources in relation to spatial accommodation, provision of services, and the lack of urban and economic opportunities.

5.5.4. Adapting to the spatial design

Informal activities within the study area struggled to adapt to the spatial planning of the area. The environment was transforming but it did not efficiently accommodate their occupations. The data collected showed that the number of job opportunities in KwaMashu were low, as most of the informal participants were not employed. The first day that the researcher went to the study area to collect data was a week day (working day). The majority of the informal activities participants agreed to participate in the research and only one of these informal traders refused to participate. One of the respondents stated: "here in KwaMashu there are no job opportunities that would cater for all of us, I don’t work in the meantime as I lost my basic job due to the distance I had to travel to work in the CBD. And the majority of people are not working because of many social problems such as lack of education and unemployment like me". Table 5.5 and graph 5.4 below explain the employment status of the 25 respondents.

Table: 5.5. Employment status of respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Employed</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unemployed</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Fieldwork results (2018)

Graph 5.4 below showed the percentage (8%) of people employed at the time and who employed workers to trade for them (*NB: their employees represented them). The graph also showed the number of people who were unemployed (92%) and traded as owners of their businesses.
The table showed that for every one person who was employed there were six people who were unemployed. Therefore the scale of employment was 1:12; this meant 92% per cent of the people interviewed did not have jobs because of the lack of education and other social issues. This meant that the spatial framework in existence had failed to increase or enhance the informal economic dynamics within the study area. The spatial platform in which the informal market was based made informal operations struggle to adapt and this may have caused many implications for the study area itself. The lack of economic facilities to cater for job opportunities was a strain on the community and the informal market itself. Poverty could not be alleviated, regardless of the fact that adequate services were provided, as people were not capable of paying for these services and could thus not access them sufficiently. This issue could also have caused crime to increase within the area and degraded the structural form and the good social image of community.

5.5.5. Physical services

The study area was not fully serviced in accordance with its needs, as according to respondents there were needs that had not yet been met. There was an insufficient supply of water and not everyone was able to access the water. Only those traders located inside buildings had access to electricity and traders had to pay their rent twice annually, even though these services were subsided. There was an established road structure within the area which caused concern for traders in terms of their safety as they occupied pavements and the vehicles posed a risk to them as the roads were used by taxis and buses. The study area did have some physical services for the community as toilets had been installed inside
buildings and water was piped into the buildings for the traders and their customers (see table 5.6 below).

Some respondents were worried for their safety and for their customers’ safety because of the design of the roads and their proximity to the trading stands. The main road was too narrow, it had pavements for pedestrians but they were used by traders, and there were no speed humps. “It is not safe for us here as cars are fast in this area” one respondent said. There were no other areas available for economic interaction with customers, other traders and formal traders. The adaptation process was thus inflexible (not easy) as the people in the area were not equipped with the resources and skills to effectively adapt to the changes.

Table: 5.6. Services available in the area

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Available</th>
<th>% Respondents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Water</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Electricity</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Stores</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Traffic flow</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Sewerage</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 Access/Roads</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 Land for trading</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 Toilets</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5.6. Services available in the area

Source: Fieldwork results (2018)

Graph 5.5 below showed the services that were available and how accessible were they to the traders. This information, together with the table above told the reader of the extent to which the municipality was involved in support, and also told the reader how traders perceived the vitality of these services in the area. In other words which services they considered the most important to their operations and which ones were the least important, and this was seen from their complaints and the mentioning of the services. This information above showed which services impacted the functionality and operational perspectives of the informal activities. From observations of the study area, the land used for the informal activities was one of major influences of the community’s livelihood due to the fact that people used it as a means of economic production. This provided them with an opportunity to earn an income and save money as the land was close to their homes. It appeared, however, that the majority of the participants were more interested in getting jobs which were associated with the urban environment, and that was why the urban form should have included them spatially. This issue of spatial exclusion on its own created problems and increased the level of poverty in the community, because with all the services that the
government had provided, the community was still not equipped to grow economically and the government was not eager to employ them.

The municipality stated that some services were delivered to the community in KwaMashu, but the issue was that not all of the services required had been provided, and some of the participants operated outside of the area where the services were provided. With the services that were provided, the issue of maintenance arose as there were too many people using these services in too concentrated an environment. This information revealed that some services were absent within the study area and this affected the informal economic growth and sustainability of the area. The distance from some of the required services had a negative effect on traders; because they were unemployed and did not earn enough from their informal trading, they could not afford to move closer to where the services were available and could not afford to pay for the services anyway.

**Graph: 5.5. Complaints from respondents in the informal market.**

![Bar chart showing complaints from respondents in the informal market.](chart)

*Source: Fieldwork results (2018).*

### 5.6. LESSONS AND SUMMARY

The informal market’s slow development impacted the community in a number of ways. Although the area has influenced the prospects of the traders by offering an open environment where the poor interacted and traded as a means of employment without
discrimination on the basis of race, religion or income, there were still a variety of limitations such as the lack of infrastructure and service delivery for the development of the area. The objectives of the SPLUMA, 2013 were to construct a feasible economic environment in which a transformative planning programme was to spatially stabilise the urban economy for both formal and informal markets, reducing high levels of deprivation and isolation. Although there was an improvement in the quality of life, the issues that remained within the study area had the negative potential of concentrating the economic and social problems e.g. ‘furnished’ poverty, an upsurge in crime, deterioration of buildings due to lack of maintenance, and poor services or poor service delivery.

Civic and financial support facilities were scarce resources. Other economic zones and existing development within KwaMashu were a long distance away. Formal markets or operations were located within the same area as the informal markets, and both markets acted as focal factors that attracted business (customers). There were also driving schools, food parlours, workshops, barber shops, etc. accessible within the community but the people who owned them were not qualified. Educational facilities, skills development facilities and marketing platforms were absent in the study area and this limited the informal participants from reaching their maximum potential. Nevertheless, the fact that informal participants of the same area used the same space was also good in a way. This promoted social inclusion and cohesion between the participants, which promoted the exchange of ideas and methods. It also promoted the sharing of communal and economic knowledge, and built unity and respect within the community and the informal market.

The environment, although not ideal, had not totally prevented participants from earning a living and growing economically. The economic situation of these informal traders, however, limited their ability to contribute towards the development of the area. The participants and the community as a whole seemed powerless in the face of the authorities and spatial planning, and the government did not consider their situations as they were not considered as part and parcel of life improvement. The community was thus not able to express their concerns and take part in decision making and planning processes. Ideally more and more people should contribute towards the development of the market by exercising their rights. This will promote more transparency and more of a response from the municipality in tending to the needs of the market. In addition to this, wealth will be created for society and for individual persons.

_________________________________________________________________________
CHAPTER SIX:
RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

6.1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter provides a brief summary of the general aims and objectives set out in Chapter One. The chapter focuses on elucidating recommendations based on the researcher’s findings from the literature review and the interviews conducted with the relevant stakeholders and beneficiaries. The researcher has clearly outlined the focus of the research topic in the previous chapters, namely the relationship between urban spatial planning and informal markets. The researcher has also observed the factors that sustained the connection between them and the implications thereof.

The aim was to study the involvement of spatial planning in poverty reduction via informal market inclusion into spatial frameworks. The basis of the study encompassed the review of international research findings on the matter of urban spatial planning and informal markets, looking at relevant theories and literature from previous and current debates. This chapter set out recommendations to be formulated and implemented as a remedial strategy for the existing issues, to cater for the potential growth of the informal market and the improvement of the livelihood of the urban poor. The chapter conclude and summarising the general research in an attempt to remind the readers of all learned thus far and brings into focus whether the hypothesis was true or false, and whether or not all objectives and aims were reached.

The research concentrated on the clarification of the relationship between informal markets and spatial planning frameworks. The research attempted to find the role of spatial planning frameworks within the eThekwini municipality’s informal markets, in stimulating sustainable development and providing socio-economic growth potential for the South African poor. The aim to understand the frameworks from a development perspective played a significant part in determining the capacity for and level of integration of the eThekwini municipality’s spatial planning frameworks in informal markets. The rationale of the study outlined the discriminatory aspects of the spatial form of the urban environment towards informality, and the various factors affecting the layout and design of eThekwini’s operational patterns.

The study has come to a general conclusion of this aspect of the city, finding traces and evidence of a fragmented spatial form that limited the socio-economic development of the poor on a vast spatial scale. The study attempted to unlock the importance of informal markets by looking at various aspects of the urban space, focusing on social and economic factors that had major implications on the economic growth and improvement of the poor.
The importance and level of recognition of the economic and social issues of the poor within the municipality determined the extent to which the informal market was included within the spatial planning frameworks and the degree to which these frameworks were implemented. The importance and recognition of the market entailed research about the roles of the different stakeholders concerning the informal market and the degree of commitment, support and accessibility they offered for the betterment of the situation. The research was led by objectives and questions which it attempted to answer:

a) To assess the extent to which the informal economy was integrated into spatial planning frameworks in the eThekwini municipality.

The existing spatial planning frameworks within the eThekwini municipality (adopted and locally formulated) did incorporate the concept of informality, at least some of the frameworks did (see table in chapter 3). However, the extent of incorporation into the frameworks was very limited and lacked implementation, support and representation when observed on the ground (see Chap. 2, p. 103 and Chap. 5, p. 146).

b) To identify the efforts made by the municipality in eThekwini to integrate the informal market into spatial planning frameworks.

There was a level of municipal service for the poor, and compromises had been made regarding land uses and space within the urban form for the benefit of the poor so that they could trade and operate, although it was on a small scale. Accessibility to these small municipally allocated spaces was limited to a few individuals and control measures such as permits had been put in place. These permits were evidently not easy to acquire and were supposed to bar people from trading, however many of the informal market participants traded without them. This led to some traders being violated and evicted from their trading posts. Spatially incorporating the informal market within the urban form was a challenge and an issue that still needed focus and municipal effort. This was evidenced by the nature of the experiences that the urban poor involved in trading faced, trading without any sufficient spatial layout, and without any significant spatial legislative framework that protected, promoted and encouraged the activities involved.

c) To identify the roles informal traders could play (or did play) to assist the municipality in integrating the informal market into spatial planning frameworks.

Informal traders faced different challenges that hindered their participation in decision making, and most of them were power/authority related issues. The level of participatory and collaborative approaches within planning was insufficient. Government representatives were
not supported adequately enough for them to sufficiently implement community based discussions, share relevant information based on the market’s needs and provide equal support for all spheres of informal activities. Hindrances also occurred as a result of a lack of access to the relevant representatives, resources and services. Participants clarified that they had participated in municipal meetings but that their participation had been limited and the results of the meetings poor. This meant that informal traders were not given a very big role to play, which led some individuals to take their own measures to integrate themselves into the urban spaces (see Chap. 3, p. 76).

d) To identify the challenges that informal traders had in practice, linked to the current existing spatial planning.

There were numerous challenges that informal traders experienced (see chapter five), and they included the lack of appropriate spatial layout, lack of capital and access to resources, a lack of information and an advertisement platform, and a lack of formal institutional support.

e) To identify the challenges that the eThekwini municipality came across when attempting to integrate informal markets into spatial planning frameworks.

There were various factors that the general research outlined concerning the challenges that the municipality experienced when attempting to integrate informal markets into spatial planning frameworks. These included the lack of planning tools, urban land availability, urbanisation, rapid increases in the unemployment rate, and limited resources in the face of unlimited wants and needs, (see chapter 5).

f) To identify approaches and methods that promoted the integration of informal markets into spatial planning frameworks.

The researcher observed international and national strategic approaches that helped in identifying relevant solutions that could be implemented within the South African context. International literature revealed that informal markets had been incorporated within spatial planning to some extent and provided research to support this, in practice and on the ground. Recommendations are now provided.

6.2. RECOMMENDATIONS

6.2.1. Increase informal market business accessibility into industries

The municipality’s initiatives to increase credit accessibility and limit entry barriers are two of the most important roles and supportive systems the government needs to initiate. The credit market for informal markets has a variety of funding programmes and financial schemes in
South Africa. Both the public sector and the private sector are involved in building and expanding informal markets by providing help with credit accessibility through funding agencies. Although there are a number of convenient funding programmes, the public’s awareness of these programmes and the responsiveness of these programmes has been very low with various entry barriers, particularly for government supported schemes (DTI, 2008). Rejection rates for the existing programmes have been high for informal market enterprises that have applied for finance, particularly for bank sponsored schemes. This suggests that even registered micro-enterprises are less likely to have access to credit.

The ability of informal market enterprises to mature and develop and be formally established within the eThekwini municipality’s urban environment relies on their accessibility to capital. The majority of informal market enterprises have to use their own funds and assets to serve as collateral for banks when applying for credit. This is a hindrance as the majority of the informal market participants do not have sufficient assets to secure credit. The fact that the attainment of assets is complex and takes time makes it difficult for the market participants to access timeous credit from the various financial support programmes. Guidelines that try to help by catalysing the establishment of informal market businesses do exist in eThekwini although only a limited number of traders get access. There are, however, certain principles that need to be reviewed and amended and new policies need to be formulated to reduce the barriers to financial assistance, to promote capital accumulation for the poor.

a) Industrial Development Corporation for informal markets

The Industrial Development Corporation programme (IDC) in South Africa places emphasis on cuts in interest rates, the provision of subsidised credit and a significant capital base for financing both small and medium-sized manufacturing and industrial enterprises (Ndlovu and Thwala, 2007). This tool can be of assistance to the informal market initiative to grow capital resources, as the inclusion of the informal market in the IDC programme will mean access to credits resources without the pressure of interest rates compromising the growth of the businesses. The IDC is an ideal institution for channelling subsidies to small scale businesses, and this action will benefit the poor by limiting their financial loads that would otherwise stifle their business growth and affect their ability to pay back their loans. However, the IDC overlooks various factors such as the tools used for strategic spatial planning and the capacity of the eThekwini municipality to accommodate a number of informal market business activities in a congested spatial form. It also overlooks the availability of representatives, activities in the city, and the processes involved in establishing a business in the informal markets within the eThekwini municipality. These are important factors that the municipality has to focus on, to improve and upgrade its operational systems.
and make them available to supportive institutions such as the IDC. Once the structures are in place they will support informal traders in their applications for financial assistance.

The programme outlines business operations and SMEs as enterprises with assets below R60 million (Ndlovu and Thwala, 2007), but the National Small Business Act (1996) describes an enterprise with assets of up to R18 million as medium-sized. Thus the IDC is still targeting large enterprises with large assets and there is a R42 million gap between the National Small Business Act (1996) and the Industrial Development Corporation’s standpoints. Various informal enterprises and SMEs tend to hire their assets at an early stage of their business’ development but the government rarely provides them with opportunities by providing the services required, and the informal market tends to need and value their services. Larger enterprises take advantage and are repeatedly given opportunities by the government such as tenders due to their formality, limiting the growth of informal and smaller enterprises.

Therefore, the IDC programme should be encouraged to consider informal market enterprises more so than the SMEs it currently serves, lowering the asset value requirements to accommodate informal market enterprises. Moreover, by doing so, it will allow informal, small and local enterprises to efficiently access credit at affordable rates through subsidies and decreased interest rates. The important factor is the ability of the programmes to work hand-in-hand with planners and the municipality, promoting the urban spatial quality in terms of accessibility and provision. The urban form should promote the productivity and interaction of informal business with formal business, increasing market capacity and building sustainability within the economic sphere.

b) Access to assets for financial assistance

The insufficiency of small businesses accessing credit within the eThekwini municipality is regarded as an administrative cost/threat inhibiting the initiation of small loans to informal market businesses. The cost/threat principle is triggered by a high risk of business failure, low profit rates and the inability of banks to accurately assess the level of risk inherent in an informal market business transaction. This is due to the lack of collateral owned by the informal enterprises, especially those of previously disadvantaged entrepreneurs. Also the lack of formalisation of the market in terms of business registration is a hindrance. This delays enterprises from attaining credit from the various formal and approved institutions. The need for informal market businesses to have assets and collateral is essential for the growth of the market and business development.
The study area contains a diversity of individuals with different backgrounds and from different areas, and the majority of the individuals involved in informal activities have not been exposed to business protocols due to their lack of information on the subject, support and collateral, and due to their limited access to education. Therefore the notion of failure arises when a person from a disadvantaged and deprived background attempts to become involved in informal trading. Although the eThekwini municipality is one of the biggest municipalities in an urban context in South Africa, it does not have enough financial institutions with different standards to accommodate the different kinds of small informal market businesses. Ndlovu and Thwala (2007) reveal that previously disadvantaged individuals’ efforts are often thwarted when trying to establish and maintain informal market operations while dealing with issues surrounding their lack of access to capital and those related to not having adequate access to formal financial institutions. As a result these informal market business owners are obliged to pursue relatively expensive (and often inadequate) credit from alternative financial intermediaries, sometimes illegally.

c) Investment as a key factor

The Small Medium Manufacturing Development Programme (Department Trade and Industry, 2010) is a programme aligned for the promotion and encouragement of small and medium sized enterprises to invest, and in return these investors are offered rebates on a certain percentage of the investment acquired over a period of time. This programme has potential for providing previously disadvantaged entrepreneurs (informal traders) with access to credit, suggesting that through investments more assets can be achieved, resulting in better access to credit. However, entrepreneurs who were previously disadvantaged have difficulty accessing it and as for obtaining finance for the initial investment, this is a complex process on its own. This is why participants are eager to obtain access to affordable credit for the purpose of acquiring access to financial services. Therefore, there is a need for greater cooperation between commercial banks, the SMMDP programme and the IDC, so that an integrated support package can be developed for the benefit of the urban poor in business establishment.

The World Bank survey states that there is likely to be a greater demand for credit in Gauteng (i.e. the Ekurhuleni Metropolitan Municipality, the City of Johannesburg Metropolitan Municipality, the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality and the Sedibeng District Municipality) because it has the largest number of informal market participants in comparison to the other provinces in the country. This means that the greater the number of informal activities and participants within a spatial layout, the greater the potential for increased production and profit. This equates to a greater demand for credit to be accessible
for greater expansion and the markets’ economic growth will eventually create a greater employment platform for the unemployed.

Within the eThekwini municipality the environment of business activities includes informal market participants wanting to buy equipment and expand their premises as part of their investment. Owners of SMEs in Gauteng have a better chance of accessing credit due to the Business Sophistication Model (BSM) employed by the Gauteng government, where these SMEs are regarded as type seven and eight businesses with a higher rate of success (Mahembe, 2011). With regards to eThekwini’s enterprises, however, it is more likely that the informal and microenterprise type businesses will have difficulty accessing finance. As discussed above the informal business operators in the eThekwini Municipality study area have limited financial literacy and education in general, so intervention with the provision of this knowledge is needed. Taking into consideration the average minimum level of education and the school pass rates, the concept of investing does not occur to most people as they do not know how to, and in most cases people live from hand-to-mouth and can’t afford to invest. The level of education provided to the people who were previously disadvantaged by the apartheid regime is demeaning to many people, and the current pass rate in KZN in recent years has not been promising either, so education levels remain a problem. Lack of investment limits accessibility to credit for the majority of the eThekwini Municipality’s informal market business owners, especially since the majority currently live a hand-to-mouth existence.

6.3. TOWARDS A NEW SPATIAL POLICY FRAMEWORK

The racial segregation of the urban form in South Africa via urban spatial planning played a very major role in the configurations of social and economic systems although Nezar AlSayyad (2004) argues that it is absurd to believe that spatial ecology produces social processes (urban informality as a new way of life). Nevertheless, in South Africa the physical barriers (buffer zones, mono-functional land uses, disintegration, urban growth patterns based on racial division) were designed to limit access, growth and development within the Black community, thus, denying these factors of design existence would be to neglect the basic principles of resolving the current social and economic issues. These spatial planning factors that are still in evidence and the lack of frameworks that protect communities within developments contribute to the current impacts that create dysfunctional structures within the economic and social spheres of the urban poor. There is a persistent growth rate of financial pressures, poverty and inequality in most municipalities, and these issues complicate the initial goal to develop and grow South Africa’s socio-economic status quo. The White Paper Research on Local Government forwarded by Moosa and Gordhan (1998,
p. 33) places focus on nine categories that need development initiatives: agri-villages; dispersed or scattered settlements; villages; informal settlements; small towns; urban cores; ‘betterment’ settlements; and urban fringes. And there is lack of information concerning economic development within the informal markets.

The need for spatial planning framework formulation concentrating on economic development is essential. The spatial frameworks should entail the principles of spatial reconciliation (desegregation) and reconstruction that focus on integrated spatial development planning, with input into the different area activities provided by different departments (to limit conflict of certain departments and a convoluted planning system). Although the democratic government initiated a few developmental frameworks such as the Urban Development Framework (CoGTA, 2016) that discussed emerging urban spatial structures in SA cities, and the Development Facilitation Act No.67 (DFA, 1995) dealt with restructuring spatial environments (promoting city building planning principles for compact cities), these frameworks failed and led to the formulation of the Spatial Land Use Management Act No.16 (2013). However, the creation of these frameworks was not focused on improving the urban poor’s economic issues in post-apartheid South Africa. Instead their main focus was on the provision of RDP housing.

6.3.1. An urban development framework for new spatial structures

The construction of a relevant South African model that is concerned with postmodernism is a complex matter, but the opposition of the model of apartheid within the eThekwini municipality is essential. The formulated framework and model should be unique, looking at the shape, scale, historical legacy, form in structure, guiding policies of the city and the socio-economic factors that contribute to the national GDP of the country. The spatial planning framework required should consist of a planning process that attempts to interpret the eThekwini municipality’s place and spatial context, and should plan towards integration. This integration should not only involve the spatial/physical sector of the city but integrate the relationship of the informal and formal into a coexisting environment, limiting conflict and exploitative activities. It should also focus on improving infrastructure with the aim of improving urban economic development and viability with institution accessibility and delivery. Factors and principles that are vital are urban transportation; rebuilding and upgrading; integrated planning; planning for higher density land-uses and development and environmental management (CoGTA, 2016).

The initiative to formulate a relevant framework consists of a combination of various factors that are to work together for a common purpose. This initiative should comprise relative
principles of compaction within the informal market spatial planning initiative, making reference to transport route and corridor development. The concept of mixed-use land uses is a subject that planners must consider in the planning process. Compaction principles entail revitalisation, regeneration, and the facilitation of space to reduce urban sprawl. Mixed-use land requires nodes linked with transport routes, increased accessibility to services and institutions, corridor development and employment opportunities.

The growth and development of the urban poor will be influenced by the number of decentralised areas in different areas within the urban form, linking different urban uses and activities. The Land use policy must be inclusive of the informality of the urban form, and AlSayyad (2004) and Wacquant (2016) argue that the spread of informality is perceived as a new urban way of life and is being seen in lower-class and middle-class areas which include professionals and employees. A land use policy focusing on mixed land use legacy remedying and land control and management is essential, especially in areas where informal economic activities are prominent. These areas include backyard shacks, home-based businesses, squatting traders, street traders and all informal non-agriculture activities. Policies should promote accessibility via control measures to decentralise nodes within the local contexts.

6.3.2. eThekwini’s spatial plan
Alonso’s economic (Alonso’s bid rent curve) perspective depicts that every business wants to be closer to malls and shopping centres and Alonso concludes that this model is a better modelling spatial development approach in urban environments (Bochnovic, 2014) However, in the eThekwini municipality, the bid rent approach should function differently since the surrounding areas are already zoned for specific land uses and have already been leased to formal business owners and various enterprises. The spatial planning design is defined by the price for which a business can rent space, and space/property which is closer to malls and shopping centres has an increased value for those who are willing to sell and buy. Alonso’s model is specific to formal businesses and places less focus on informal traders and the amount of space that informal market traders occupy.

The informal traders that form food chains should be located outside the malls and shopping centres, rather than be within the malls’ and supermarkets’ spatial contexts. In the South African context this is an expected occurrence as these centres are local community centres with high permeability so these food traders seek to attract passing walking and motorised patrons.

The aim is to allow for traders to harness foot and vehicle traffic passing to and from the big retailers. To allow growth, traders should be given access to spatial ownership to enable
them to negotiate for lower rental prices per unit area as they try to anchor their business entities. Spatial planning frameworks should not be class-centred. Rather they should adhere to the level of priority given to the different economic sectors’ needs and market systems. Collaboration, participation and the analysis of socio-economic needs are essential. An equivalent approach to dealing with planning issues is to acknowledge and take cognisance of citizens’ experiences in an area, rather than focus on planning theory. The frameworks should explain the functionality of the market and the needs by planning around market experiences, so as to reach a commonality with the different market goals.

a) A new approach

A few general components should be incorporated within the formulation of a relevant spatial economic framework that is inclusive of the urban poor’s economic activities. First is coordination, which is described under five headings by Michael E. Smith (2007), namely: arrangements of buildings; formality and monumentality of layout; orthogonality; other forms of geometric order; and access and visibility. The second component is standardisation, which is based on Ellis’s (2000) definition under four headings namely: urban architectural inventories; spatial layouts; orientation; and metrology. With this information and planning approaches, there must be clear discussion entailing information concerning the diverse number of urban activities among the economic sectors. Some sectors are defined by specific urban traditions which exhibit a higher level of planning than other general sectors. This is the reason why some sectors are given more preference, thus promoting inequality in terms of spatial distribution and support. Sectors with a high degree of economic concentration show a high number of large scale development initiatives and a type of planning in their respective areas that fosters ease of economic development, growth and expansion.

The spatial planning frameworks should determine the power of capital activities in that area of market operation, and where the administrative role playing and functionality should be concentrated. Emphasis should be placed on architectural planning and strategic infrastructural operations. The built environment should incorporate three levels of meaning to describe the essence of the functionality and operational factors of the economic environment: sectorial symbols that may be encoded in buildings; deliberate information about operations and the status communicated between formal and informal markets; and how the built environment amends the connectivity of the environment, improving channels of accessibility which will direct a sensible behaviour and movement within the city for both the informal and formal sectors.
6.3.3. The role of government

The eThekwini municipality needs a set of spatial planning instructions, guidelines, tools and strategic instruments with policies that consider the urban environment and the functionality of the urban area as a whole. These must cater for poor people’s socio-economic growth. Looking at programmes such as the Khula Credit Guarantee Scheme in the context of eThekwini; this scheme should be revised and its spatial standards expanded significantly to facilitate greater efficiency of the scheme and access to job opportunities for the poor and disadvantaged in the informal sector. A lot of emphasis has been placed on the support for spatial planning institutions and frameworks, but no large scale implementation of these frameworks has taken place to benefit the informal economy. Emphasis should also be placed on spatial planning support services’ expanding and increasing the informal market’s capacity and accessibility, as this will increase employment opportunities by improving the tailored framework of spatial mediation between the formal and informal sectors.

There is a great need to facilitate the increased accessibility to land and to provide equal spatial distribution for informal market entrepreneurs. This will create a platform where informality and job creation can be accessed reasonably and effectively (Ndlovu and Thwala, 2007). Equal spatial distribution should influence the productivity, growth rate, development and the efficiency levels of small and informal enterprises through comprehensive spatial policy equity programmes. It should also influence the formalisation of informal market businesses, allowing them access to capital for early stage and start up equity investments. It should also allow for the investigation of tax incentives, for institutional investors to develop investments in informal businesses through equity funds. The spatial framework should also allow investment into the urban spatial structures, such as investments into infrastructure, business relationships and partnerships, services, and property as assets. This will boost the prospect of the public and private sectors’ support for incorporation into economic development initiatives within the eThekwini municipality, encouraging traders and external investors to invest in their spatial fragments at an affordable rate and with reasonable tax incentives. This will allow the management and viable control of the informal market without limiting productivity and entry, while giving access to institutions that build skills and provide information.

a) Potential strategies

A model that will impact on a larger-scale should be established in Durban, accommodating the urban poor’s spatial needs by providing financial services and capital assets. To make this strategy functional, an investigation must be conducted to establish a procedure for capital rehabilitation for the poor who are underprivileged, have limited access to support
systems and with bad credit records listed. Provision must be made to provide an integrated support package of assets, services, infrastructure and finance to those with a bad credit history. This will give those who are already participating in the market an opportunity to redeem their businesses, however, they must be given subsidies and training, access to financial counselling and marketing assistance and in addition to all of this, business premises and technological assistance, as previously suggested by Ndlovu and Thwala (2007). Capacity building support (training, workshops and conferences) should be delivered, grounded on local best practices in areas such as the individual loaning methodologies of substitute and formal financial organisations and informal/small scale start up equity investments for equity financiers. There should also be an evaluation of the impact of interest rates on enterprises, and their contribution to business failure.

With regards to accessibility to affordable credit and accessibility to information, it is vital that support programmes are provided. The important information is knowing which programme will best assist the type and complexity of a business. Table 6.1 below shows the various programmes involved with SME credit and financial support/accessibly. Support programmes are categorised into three broad categories and these programmes give access to finance, market access and business support. There are a wide range of support schemes that are available in South Africa, although some are not accessible within the eThekwini municipality. These support schemes can, however, be applied within the local context, according to Mahembe (2011). These support schemes are aimed at small business owners in the areas of exports, marketing, research, tourism, development, manufacturing, and business co-operatives (Ndlovu and Thwala, 2007). The informal market has potential in all these areas, and the majority of these support programmes are in the form of incentive schemes that give grants to business owners. They are given access to credit, with either half or a large percentage of the project costs being funded by the applicants themselves. This initiative should be inclusive of the informal market and should provide informal market traders with information concerning these support programmes. This information can be obtained from various sources, but the most comprehensive source of information is the DTI website which contains the DTI’s National Directory of Small Business Support Programmes (DTI National Directory, 2010).
6.3.4. Constraints of small-scale industries and their integration into the value chain and markets

a) Information

A value chain consists of various sets of activities which different firms in different sectors, operating in specific industries, implement with the objective of delivering a valuable product or service to the market. Thus for the development of effective involvement by informal markets within the eThekwini municipality to occur, understanding of the sector and what adds value is vital. One of the constraints informal businesses face is the lack of information and knowledge on how to connect with the market. With this lack of information and understanding, businesses tend to focus on short term goals and are driven by the prospect of money; neglecting the notion of sustainability, goals and objectives for the long run. Due to the lack of opportunities and the limited spatial capacity for activities within the eThekwini municipality, informal businesses often get involved in the activities of different sectors, therefore convoluting the understanding of the main sector that the informal market is defined as, and in return produce products of little value or nothing. With the lack of understanding, there will be specific challenges faced by informal market participants and they have to deal with those challenges.

### Table: 6.1. SME support programmes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Programme category</th>
<th>Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Key national support programmes</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business competitions awards</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Credit indemnities/guarantee</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exhibitions</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Export development</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finance - national</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finance - youth</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finance - women</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finance – provincial</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Incentives and grants</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Incubation</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industry – specific programmes</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Linkage and partnership</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mentorship</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Networking</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other support programmes</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Premises</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technology advice and transfer</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industry specific support</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training and technical assistance</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Venture capital</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Women enterprise programs</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: The DTI National Directory (2010)*
b) Accuracy of data

Accurate statistics is a vital element for the success of informal businesses, and the problem of the inaccuracy of statistics in the eThekwini municipality is a major obstacle to SA's attempt to improve policies that are operative and support schemes for informal/small enterprises. Informal/small business development initiatives must be on a platform where informal market businesses actually operate with factual spatial, social and economic statistics. These statistics must be targeted precisely at value chains, and be specific to the informal/small businesses' localities so that they can effectively address their varied competition, constraints, opportunities, characteristics and needs, (Mahembe, 2011).

c) Environment

The environment and climate changes are also part of the constraints affecting the informal market at large. For non-agricultural production, the value chain has stalled due to various factors lacking within the eThekwini municipality. Firstly, land capacity is a major component for urban areas involved in non-agricultural production, and space within the eThekwini municipality is very limited. The vast demand for land for housing to amend the issue of the housing backlog creates significant conflict with the demand for land for business purposes, as the urban poor who participate in the informal market for economic stability also seek space to in which to operate. As a result the value chain of the non-agriculture sector is affected: production is limited in terms of quantity and quality.

Secondly, climate change, global warming and air pollution affect production levels, the value chain and operational viability. They contribute to dilapidation of the infrastructure and physical distortion of the environment, which affect the well-being of the markets' participants. With the limited amount of urban space, activities that are not agricultural in nature are affected as the majority of people are unemployed and the space becomes overcrowded. The element of the value chain within the informal market being disconnected by spatial factors affects the supplier and consumer relationship, and influences the economies of scale; where the balance between demand and supply is unequal and prices are affected. This will eventually lead to prices becoming increasingly high and businesses will be restricted to buying and selling at unprofitable rates.

d) Public support and technical capacity

Public support is vital for informal businesses’ success. People often neglect informal/small businesses for big corporations, and this issue creates financial constraints for SMEs as they struggle to generate enough income to keep their businesses going. The majority of informal/small businesses lack technical capacity even though it is effective, primarily
because technology is expensive. This discourages business owners from buying technological assets, therefore their production is limited, quality is decreased and the business tends to fail in the long run. In some instances, business owners lack knowledge concerning recent technology and how to use it efficiently to improve their businesses.

e) Telecommunication services

Telecommunications is a term derived from the Greek word tele, which simply means over a distance, while communication simply means the sharing of information or messages between two or more entities. Putting the two terms together to form telecommunications refers to exchanging or sharing information over a distance, between two or more entities (Dean, 2003). Telecommunication services enable access to information and communications technology. For this initiative the ninth Sustainable Development Goal (SDG9) should be analysed (Statistic South Africa, 2017). The aim of this goal is to significantly increase access to information and communications technology within the eThekwini municipality. The authorities and the community will be able to communicate better regarding spatial planning, amongst other issues. An assessment should thus be conducted on whether or not to provide universal and affordable access to the spatial planning of the city and include the poor economic development initiatives.

f) Communication technology

The eThekwini municipality has attempted to improve its utilisation of communication technology by providing free municipal newspapers in every municipal department and Sizakhala centre. The Metro Ezasegagasini newspaper which is published and distributed fortnightly includes information detailing job opportunities and events that will take place in the city. Sizakhala is a subdivision of the eThekwini municipality which provides communication technology such as computers with free internet access, which people from all occupations can use to look for employment opportunities and skills-based events that they can attend to empower themselves and add value to their businesses.

The eThekwini municipality has been making progress in terms of transforming Durban into a ‘smart city’ by converting 85 libraries into internet hotspots with the necessary infrastructure. These initiatives could be of great value to informal participants, as members can utilise computers that belong to the libraries, or bring their own wireless enabled laptops to connect and browse the internet for educational and entrepreneurial purposes. Although there has been some progress in terms of installing telecommunications infrastructure in the libraries in Durban, this has not been rolled out on a larger scale in the eThekwini municipality and further work is needed. This installation has been made possible by the US
funded Carnegie Project, which uses the city’s fibre-optic infrastructure (Department of Economic Development and Tourism, 2017). Libraries were initially chosen for the provision of affordable connectivity to the community, due to their pervasive presence as educational nodes throughout the city of Durban.

A shortfall in the implementation of this telecommunications infrastructure around the eThekwini municipality, especially in peripheral area libraries, is that not all of the library staff have been trained on how to use the equipment and not all library members know how to use these computers and the internet. There are also not enough computers for the number of people requiring them, hence the municipality promotes that people bring their own wireless enabled laptops to the library. However, there are few people who have their own laptops and there is a large concentration of crime in the city so people who own laptops might not be comfortable carrying their laptops to the library for safety purposes.

Whether or not the eThekwini municipality will be able to achieve the ninth Sustainable Development Goal by 2020 is questionable since there is gap that needs to be addressed; programmes need to be implemented to assist people to use this information and communication technology (Department of Economic Development and Tourism, 2017). The attempts made by the libraries to ensure that everyone has the opportunity to use the computers by restricting the time that each person is allowed to use the computers and internet have been effective to a certain extent. At least everyone has the opportunity to use these facilities at the libraries, even though they have to wait their turn since access works on a first come first served basis.

In terms of the newspapers that are made available for the general public: they do assist those seeking employment as they have all the relevant information regarding how to apply for positions and which channels to follow. However, there remains the need to assist illiterate and disabled people who cannot read. There is a need to make information and communication accessible to them, by using other means such as radios or television. The municipality may install software that disabled people understand or invest in providing newspapers printed in braille for those who need them.

It may not be feasible to provide those in the surrounding rural areas of the eThekwini municipality with computers and internet access, since most of the older generation do not own or understand communication technology such as computers and laptops, and it is the older generation which comprise the majority of the informal market participants. Communication and information in the city is dominated by digital resources whereas in informal markets people still rely on word-of-mouth, radio and newspapers to get information. Thus the method selected to communicate information should be structured...
according to the community members’ abilities. Lastly, affordability should also be considered, since data is expensive in South Africa and people still prefer purchasing newspapers since they are cheaper.

6.4. CONCLUSION AND SUMMARY

South Africa has developed in various sectors and has contributed to a significant number of economic development projects. Along with the numerous factors that affected the growth and improvement of the poor with respect to their socio-economic wellbeing, there was also a lack of spatial planning initiatives within the informal sphere of the municipality. This occurred because the extent to which the informal economy was integrated into the spatial planning frameworks in the eThekwini municipality was limited, although some frameworks attempted to accommodate informal economy development. The government has placed insufficient focus on the matter of poverty reduction via spatial framework formulation. With its recognition and importance evident in research, implementation of spatial frameworks remained a problem that persisted as economic issues continued to rise in South Africa.

Efforts made by the municipality within eThekwini to integrate the informal markets into spatial planning frameworks did not provide significant improvement as there were limited legislative instruments, tools, guidelines and strategies available for such development. However, the political aspect of development entailed political initiatives that encouraged informal traders to engage in political aspirations so as to reduce their exclusion and increase their accessibility to the market. In some cases this resulted in strikes and riots by the participants and those who supported the initiative, although the majority of the participants did not have significant power or authority to conduct any initiatives or take decisions.

The initiatives and projects implemented to increase job opportunities seem to have failed as surveys pointed to a rapid increase in unemployment amongst the youth, graduates and retrenched workers, predominantly from the private sector. The roles that informal traders played to assist the municipality in integrating the informal market into spatial planning frameworks were constrained by various factors. Factors that hindered the roles of informal traders included the high rates of corruption in authoritative positions and the numerous cases of money embezzlement. The fact that no one had been held accountable, and that no action had been taken against the perpetrators pointed to a weak judicial system or a weak implementation strategy. Added to this, the lack of municipal policies that protected, distributed and managed the urban spatial distribution was also a consistent constraint towards an adequate participatory development approach for the urban poor; their role was limited to participating in meetings yet they had no power to participate in decision making.
Spatial inequalities limited progressive development for the poor and their accessibility to sufficient resources was fragmented due to the various spatial factors that reflected discriminatory development systems.

Many informal market participants were afraid to complain or represent themselves before municipal authorities as their operations were viewed as a privilege and they were afraid of eviction. This also contributed towards their problems as they lacked a voice to raise their issues so could do nothing about their lack of space, the over-crowdedness of the market area, the degraded infrastructure and the health issues, etc. These challenges faced by the informal traders were linked to the existing spatial planning, and they were aware that they had no legislative framework to protect either themselves or their spatial location within the urban environment. This knowledge then led the people to identifying their spaces in the area without any authoritarian consideration. Thus, a legal and community based movement within markets and government institutions, as a collaborative and communicative approach, should be formulated as part of spatial frameworks, allowing informal participants and previously disadvantage people to provide information, make decisions, be involved in planning processes, and access market resources and supportive systems at no additional cost.

Challenges that the eThekwini municipality came across when attempting to integrate informal markets into spatial planning frameworks related to the initiative to assist informal traders to access the market viably and continue to grow and expand their businesses, rather than fall behind into a static economic vehicle. Various actors and stakeholders were inconsistent with their supportive strategies due to fact that they themselves did not receive enough support. This was over and above the various cases of corruption within the municipality which deprived the communities of numerous resources.

Actors should be supported as they are part of the on-going commitment to develop the eThekwini municipality. This initiative is beneficial for all beneficiaries in the informal market since most of them are struggling to obtain relevant support and have no committed representative to play the role of advocate. Informal market participants should be allowed to manage their own environment and the properties that have become dilapidated due to the lack of maintenance. This would encourage the notion of ownership and responsibility. Traders can also have access to their own facilities, so that they may be aware of whether the market activities are improving, or not. South Africa is considered as one of the fastest growing developing countries in Africa compared to other developing countries such as Nigeria, Namibia, Kenya and Ghana, to mention few. However, poverty rates have continued to increase, urbanisation has remained rapid and this has affected the social and economic
sphere, thus steps taken thus far to reduce the size of the informal markets by incorporating them into the mainstream economy have been insufficient.

Town planners have to acknowledge the deep differences between the economic spheres of the formal and informal markets, and the difficulties which arise from them in terms of the planning process because they have to account for every detail, whether small or large when planning spatial layouts. Planning seems to imply the detailed inclusion of formal and informal economic factors, bringing them together to create a potential spatial environment for both markets. This will then create opportunities and the capacity for all to grow and develop, with an improved relationship between all of the actors. The actions taken by the planners should not present any undue impositions on one sector and its activities. Rather, planning processes and decisions taken should create a process that can be relied on to produce a justifiable outcome, taking into account that planning does not have a universal model that can create the right decisions all the time. Therefore, planning on its own cannot fix everything in such a diverse formal and informal market environment; it must have guidance to produce justifiable decisions and actions.

Planning is seen as a neutral ground upon which individual role players can bargain with each other to reach consensus on what is sufficient and beneficial for everyone. This can similarly reinforce the views that collaborative processes can arrive at decisions that will be mutually satisfactory (bottom-up approach). This brings about a sense of belonging to every individual/ organisation/ institution as everyone has a voice, and a degree of equality is given to every citizen who participates in the planning and decision making processes. But there are difficulties and disadvantages that can occur with this approach; such as power struggles, the neglect of outcomes, taking others’ decisions/norms for granted, unresolved conflict, etc. Deep-seated differences should be addressed and questions raised during the planning processes, so that decisions produced will be fully supported by all participants in open debate, and inequalities are reduced. All parties must be aware of the value of the decision-making process and that the process itself must serve the function of decision-making. This will give meaning to any consensus reached and direct the focus to outcomes in production. This is only possible through the formation of a relationship between professionals and the public or beneficiaries in the course of a public debate. Planning does not have a universal approach, instead it borrows from various disciplines. By involving different stakeholders, the increased knowledge that comes from different perspectives and appropriately situated, knowledgeable people might bring about better decisions in terms of spatial planning in KwaMashu’s ‘Station’ area and resolve the many differences that currently exist.
7. REFERENCES


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8. APPENDIXES

APPENDIX 1: Figure: 3.1. Tanzania and its economic and social dynamics
APPENDIX 2: Figure: 3.2. Tanzania and its economic and social dynamics
APPENDIX 3: Figure: 4.1: KwaMashu township within the eThekwini municipality
APPENDIX 4: Figure 4.2. KwaMashu Township eThekwini’s NDPG urban network plan
APPENDIX 5: Figure 4.3: KwaMashu location and surrounding areas
APPENDIX 6: Figure 4.5: The KwaMashu urban hubs/economic zones and transit system.
APPENDIX 7: Figure 4.6: 1-2 Crèches and primary schools, 3Secondary school, 4 Colleges

Names of educational facilities on the map

1. Mzokhonywa Crèche & Pre-School; Siphokuhle Creche and Pre School; Zamani Creche & Pre-school; bonginkosi Creche Pre-school. 2. Bheshlinga PS; Magadini PS; Nhulubantu PS; Dr BW Vilakazi PS; Buhebethu Public PS; KwaZi PS; Durani PS; Phethamphile PS; Phikiswana PS; Siyandlamzulu PS; Sikhawane Jr PS; Ngamama PS; Tholamandla PS; Phakama Sr PS Khuphukani P. 3. Nhlanhlavethu SS; JG Zuma SH; Dlakupu SS; Zoloe HS; Kwsethu HS; Isibongelo HS; JE Ndlovu SS; Nqabakazulu HS; Mlomantsi SS; Zeph Dlamini SS; Utzhoa Sr SS; Dr J. Dube HS.

4. Elangeni College. [Source: department of national treasury]
APPENDIX 8: Figure 4.7: The Bus Rapid Transit System currently under construction.
APPENDIX 9: Figure 4.8: Economic zones in line with transit routes in the KwaMashu Township.
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APPENDIX 13: Figure 4.14: Northern Spatial Development Plan land use map

NORTHERN SPATIAL DEVELOPMENT PLAN
LANDUSE MAP

Legend
- 100m
- 200m Slip Fault Zone
- DB LRDN (2005)

N_UDL
- National Route
- Proposed
- Provincial Route

Il_Landuse_141010
- Existing Residential
- Future Residential
- Rural Residential 1
- Existing Agriculture
- Existing Commercial
- Existing Mixed Use
- Intermixed
- Existing Office Park
- Future Office Park
- Future Airport
- Future Commercial
- Future Intensive Agriculture
- Future Mixed Use
- Future Business Park
- Future Tradezone
- Existing Industry
- Future Industry
- Existing Extractive Industry
- Future Airport Zone
- DTM OSS
- Dam
- Rail
- Dube Trade Port

NOTES
LAND USE ASSESSED AGAINST 2035 HOISE CONTOURS (REV. 2009)
APPENDIX 14: Informal activity zones in the study area