EXAMINING THE ROLE OF INTEGRATED DEVELOPMENT PLANNING ON INFRASTRUCTURE SERVICE DELIVERY: THE CASE STUDY OF KWANYUSWA, ETHEKWINI MUNICIPALITY

Siphamandla Francis Mzimela

A short dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for admittance to the degree of Master in Town and Regional Planning (MTRP) in the School of Architecture, Planning and Housing, University of KwaZulu-Natal (Durban)

December 2013

Declaration

I declare that this research is my own unaided work and has not been submitted before in the fulfillment of another degree at the University of KwaZulu-Natal or elsewhere. Use of the work of others has been acknowledged in the text.

Signed							
Siphamandla Francis Mzimela							
Dr R. Awuor-Hayangah (Supervisor)							
Mr. Lovemore Chipungu (Co-Supervisor)							

<u>Acknowledgements</u>

- I am so thankful to God Almighty. It is through his Mercy that I have managed to complete this dissertation.
- I am utterly grateful to my supervisor Dr. Awuor-Hayangah for her advices, assistance, motivation and guidance in her busy year during the development of this research.
- My special thanks also go to Mr. Lovemore Chipungu Co-Supervisor. Thank you very much Sir this dissertation would not be complete without you "God Bless You".
- The same gratitude goes to Mr. Celvin Nengomasha and Gofrey Musvoto. Thank you for your support and advices, your critiques have built me and kept me motivated.
- Thanks to my father Nkosinathi "Mathiti" Emmanuel Mzimela for believing in me in my childhood, your ambitions have kept my spirit burning.
- I am also thankful to my mother Nonhlanhla "Dwayi" Radebe and my grandmother Ngazi "Mandwadwe" Radebe for their patience and support during hard times "you are the best."
- I am also thankful to my uncle "the most important person in my life" Derrick "Mgwa" Khuphukani Radebe you have been like a father to me, "God Bless you."
- To Sibusiso Nxumalo and Anele Ndlela thank you so much guys you have been supportive not in Rhetoric but have placed resources at my disposal, Thank you for that.
- Last but not least, thanks to all participants from KwaNyuswa and eThekwini Municipality, I honour your contribution.

Abstract

This research sought to examines how Integrated Development Planning has been used as an approach for improving infrastructure service delivery in historically disadvantaged communities. It examines the extent to which integrated development planning has been used to facilitate infrastructure provision in KwaNyuswa. It identifies key development challenges that are currently faced by the eThekwini Municipality in its attempts to accelerate infrastructure service delivery in KwaNyuswa. Both secondary and primary sources of data were used to source information. Key experts and community members were interviewed to supplement data from secondary sources. It was found that KwaNyuswa has a large proportion of Durban Metro Open Space, riverines and steep divided topography which constraint infrastructure provision in the area. Nevertheless, EThekwini Municipality has to a large extent managed to provide affordable services such as water and electricity in KwaNyuswa. Despite this success, roads and transportation networks have not been upgraded especially in subsettlements called "Izigodi" and no Reconstruction and Development Programme Houses have been constructed since 1994. The study has identified a rural planning scheme, the affordable service delivery strategy, human capital development programme and nodal development strategies as solutions to enhance infrastructure provision in KwaNyuswa. Lessons learnt were identified jointly with recommendations to make Integrated Development Planning work in KwaNyuswa.

Content Page

Chapter One: Introduction and Research Methodology
1.0 Introduction
1.1 Research Problem
1.2 Objectives and Research Questions
1.3 Rationale of the Study3
1.4 Research Methodology4
1.5 Sources of Data4
1.5.1 Secondary Sources4
1.5.2 Sampling Procedure5
1.6 Data Collection6
1.6.1 Interview Process6
1.7 Data Analysis7
1.8 Limitations to the study9
1.9 Structure of Dissertation9
Chapter Two: Theoretical and Conceptual Framework
2.0 Introduction
2.1.1 Central Place Theory
2.1.2 The Growth Pole Theory
2.1.3 Industrial Location Theory
2.1.4 Modernisation Theory
2.2 Defining Concepts
2.2.1 Rural Area
2.2.2 Peri-Urban Area
2.2.3 Urban Area
2.2.4 Integration in the Context of Integrated Development Planning
2.2.5 Development in the Context of Integrated Development Planning
2.2.6 Planning in the Context of Integrated Development Planning

2.2.7 Integrated Development Planning	20
2.2.8 Integrated Development Plan	21
2.2.9 Integrated Development	22
2.2.10 Basic and Social Services	23
2.3 Chapter Summary	25
Chapter Three: International and Local Precedents on Integrated Development Planning and Infrastructure Service Delivery	t
3.0 Introduction	26
3.1 Contextual Understanding of Integrated Development Planning in Malaysia	26
3.1.1 Infrastructure Service Delivery Approaches in Malaysia	27
3.1.2 Lessons: Restructuring of Institutions for Improving Rural Infrastructure Service Delivery in Malaysia	
3.2 Brazilian Case Study	29
3.2.1 Three Generations of Rural Development Policies: A Transition to Integrated R Development and Human Capital in Brazil	Rural
3.2.2 The Success of Rural Development in Brazil	31
3.3 The Context of Integrated Development Planning in South Africa	32
3.3.1 Legal Framework Guiding Integrated Development Planning	32
3.3.2 EThekwini Municipality's use of a Spatial Development Framework to Facilitate Infrastructure Service Delivery	
3.3.4 Rural Infrastructure Service Delivery: Is it Practical in the EThekwini Metropolit Municipality?	
3.4 Summary	38
Chapter Four: Case Study-KwaNyuswa Settlement	
4.0 Introduction	39
4.1 Geographical Location	39
4.1.1 Regional Context	39
4.1.2 Local Context	39
4.2 Historical Background	40

4.3 Situational Analysis	42
4.3.1 Physical Character of KwaNyuswa	42
4.3.2 Population	42
4.3.3 Socio-Economic Profile	44
4.4 Community Livelihood Strategies	45
4.4.1 Agriculture	45
4.4.2 Rural Service Centre	45
4.6 Social Services	47
4.6.1 Educational Institutions	47
4.6.2 Recreational Facilities	48
4.6.3 Community Hall	50
4.6.4 Welfare Service Centre	50
4.6.5 Community Health Care	50
4.6.6 Road Network	50
4.6.7 Housing	51
4.7 Utility Infrastructure	53
4.7.1 Electricity	53
4.7.2 Water	53
4.7.3 Sanitation	53
4.8 Institutional Profile	54
4.9 Chapter Summary	55
Chapter Five: Results and Analysis	
5.0 Introduction	56
5.1 Understanding the Role of Integrated Development Planning in KwaNyuswa	56
5.2 Key Development Challenges to Improve Infrastructure in KwaNyuswa	59
5.2.1 Environmental Factors	60
5.2.2 Institutional Factors	61

5.2.3 Social and Financial Factors	61
5.3 Strategies to Improving Infrastructure delivery in KwaNyuswa	62
5.4 Chapter Summary	64
Chapter Six: Summary of Findings, Conclusions and Recommendations	
6.0 Introduction	66
6.1 Summary of Findings	66
6.2 Conclusion	70
6.3 Lessons Learnt	71
6.4 Recommendations	72
6.4.1 Community Planning and Financial Sustainability	72
6.4.2 Planning Education and Partnership	72
References	74
Appendixes	85

List of Maps

Мар	Title	Page Number	
1	Location of KwaNyuswa within	41	
	Durban Metropolitan		
2	Physical Environment of	43	
	KwaNyuswa		
3	State of Infrastructure Service	52	
	Delivery KwaNyuswa		

List of Photos

Photo		
1	Rural Service Centre:	47
	KwaSondela Trading Store	
2	Elangeni Collage Qadi	48
	Campus	
3	KwaNyuswa Primary School	49
	Sport Field	
4	Urine Diversion Toilet:	60
	KwaNyuswa	

Acronyms and Abbreviations

ABM	Area Based Management				
CDW	Community Development Worker				
CIF	Capital Investment Framework				
EMA	EThekwini Metropolitan Area				
EPWP	Expanding Public Work Programme				
IDP	Integrated Development Planning				
INK	Inanda Ntuzuma KwaMashu				
LADP	Local Area Development Plan				
LED	Local Economic Development				
LUMS	Land Use Management System				
MILE	Municipal Institute of Learning				
MSA	Municipal Systems Act				
NDP	National Development Policy				
NEMA	National Environmental Management Act				
NEP	New Economic Policy				
OWSDP	Outer-West Spatial Development Plan				
RDF	Rural Development Framework				
RED	Rural Economic Development				
RGCs	Rural Growth Centres				
RABM	Rural Area Based Management				
SDBIP	Service Delivery Budget Implementation Plan				
SDF	Spatial Development Framework				
SDP	Spatial Development Plan				

Chapter One: Introduction and Research Methodology

1.0 Introduction

Is Integrated Development Planning (IDP) an appropriate tool for improving infrastructure service delivery in peri-urban areas? This question is consistent with the broad objective of this research which seeks to evaluate how Integrated Development Planning has been used as a tool for improving infrastructure service delivery in historically disadvantaged communities. The main motivation of this research was the 2010 and 2011 Outer-West Spatial Development Plan (OWSDP) of the eThekwini Municipality which appears to be silent on the plight of KwaNyuswa. The Outer-West Spatial Development Plan is one of the key components of the eThekwini Integrated Development Plan which serves as a tool to facilitating service delivery in Outer-west settlements including KwaNyuswa (eThekwini Municipality Integrated Development Plan, 2011/2012). However, the delivery of infrastructure services remains erratic thereby failing to satisfy the needs of the people in KwaNyuswa (Cross, 2002). This has brought a number of questions since KwaNyuswa is part of the Outer-west Areas and the Outer-West Spatial Development Plan is by law required to ensure "citizens" rights to service delivery (OECD, 2008). It is therefore from this perspective that this research seeks to establish whether Integrated Development Planning is an appropriate tool for improving infrastructure service delivery in KwaNyuswa.

1.1 Research Problem

Infrastructure is internationally defined as a humanitarian necessity to improve people's quality of lives, raising their living standards at an aggregate level, and significantly contributes to advancing human development (Pavanello et al, 2008). In South Africa, the government defines it as a strategic driver to create better communities and transform spatial and economic landscape of cities (PICC, 2012). This research defines infrastructure into two forms. These comprise social and utility infrastructure. Social infrastructure is a subset of services such as schools, community halls and clinics with direct impacts to education, community mobilization and health whilst utility

infrastructure refers to basic services such as electricity and water and sanitation which are for the betterment of communities (Pavanello et al, 2008). To achieving this, IDP has become an important development intervention and policy by government to facilitate a balanced infrastructure service delivery (EThekwini IDP Final Draft, 2002-2006). As a development tool, IDP contains a Spatial Development Framework plan with significant role in addressing poor service delivery in rural and urban areas. within the IDP process, the SDF guides how development will occur spatially within the municipality and respond to the long term vision, goals and objectives of the municipality and sets out the desired land uses that guide planning and future infrastructural investment (eThekwini SDF, 2013/2014).

Nevertheless, peri-urban areas such as KwaNyuswa have received little attention in terms of infrastructure and this is particularly true as the survey conducted by the Valley Trust in 2001 indicate lack of social and basic services as one of the factors contributing towards the poor standard of living in KwaNyuswa (Valley Trust Survey, 2001). The researcher argues based on observation that the area has limited social infrastructure to support and encourage social, recreation and community mobilization. To this end, about 21.4% of young people have resort to criminal activities and drug abuse as means to occupy them and avoid distress of being unemployed (Valley Trust Survey, 2001). Service delivery remains questionable in the area and it is from this background that this research seeks to investigate whether Integrated Development Planning is a responsive tool for facilitating infrastructure in KwaNyuswa.

1.2 Objectives and Research Questions

The broad objective of this research is to evaluate how the Integrated Development Planning has been used as a tool for improving infrastructure service delivery in disadvantaged communities. The main research question is: to what extent can the integrated development plan be used as a tool for improving infrastructure service delivery in disadvantaged communities? The specific objectives and research questions considered by this research are presented in Table 1 below.

Table 1: Specific Objectives and Research Subsidiary Questions

Themes	Specific Objectives	Research Subsidiary
		Questions
Understanding the	To examine the extent to which	To what extent has the
role of Integrated	IDP has been used to facilitate	integrated development plan
Development	infrastructure service delivery in	influenced infrastructure
Planning on	KwaNyuswa (Outer-west of the	service delivery in
infrastructure	eThekwini Municipality).	KwaNyuswa?
delivery in		
KwaNyuswa		
Key development	To identify and examine	What are the challenges which
challenges faced by	challenges faced by the	eThekwini Municipality is
the eThekwini	eThekwini Municipality in its	facing in its attempt to facilitate
Municipality in	attempts to accelerate	infrastructure provision in
service delivery in	infrastructure service delivery in	KwaNyuswa?
KwaNyuswa	KwaNyuswa	
	•	
Strategies for	To identify strategies that can be	What strategies can be used
infrastructure	used by the eThekwini	by the eThekwini Municipality
service delivery in	Municipality to improve	to improve infrastructure
,	. ,	'
KwaNyuswa	infrastructure service delivery in	service delivery in
	KwaNyuswa.	KwaNyuswa?

Source: Researcher's Construct (2011)

1.3 Rationale of the Study

This research is motivated by an apparent inadequate effort which the South African government has made since 1994 to address infrastructure backlog in historically disadvantaged communities such as KwaNyuswa. It is not clear as to why service

delivery is not reaching KwaNyuswa whilst the area is part of the EThekwini Metropolitan Area (EMA). Therefore, the study seeks to identify factors which could explain the failure of eThekwini Municipality to provide adequate infrastructure in periurban communities.

1.4 Research Methodology

The research undertaken was qualitative. Qualitative research is usually flexible and it allows greater spontaneity and adaptation thereby allowing interaction between the researcher and the study participants (Natasha et al, 2005). Qualitative methods ask mostly "open-ended" questions that are not necessarily worded in exactly the same way for each participant. This allows liberty to different participants as they become free to respond in their own words, and these responses tend to be more complex than simply yes or no answers (Natasha et al, 2005). There are three important aspects of qualitative data in research. The first major aspect is that they disclose the reality with regard to ordinary happening, the second is that they have a strong potential to reveal complexity and such data provide "thick descriptions" which reveal the truth in the natural setting, and the third is that they are fundamentally well suited for locating the event, meaning, perception and assumptions to the social world around (Jukuda, 2010). Therefore, a qualitative research approach has enabled the researcher to source and elicit adequate information during interviews.

1.5 Sources of Data

1.5.1 Secondary Sources

Secondary sources of data accessed included books and journal articles which exposed the researcher to a number of theories and concepts that are relevant to the research topic. Relevant published and unpublished dissertations on Integrated Development Planning were used to inform the research which seeks to examine the role of IDP on infrastructure provision peri-urban areas. Other documents included eThekwini Integrated Development Plans from 1996 to 2013, Outer-West Spatial Development Plans (OWSDP) and Spatial Development Framework (SDF) reports were used to

ascertain the extent to which Integrated Development Planning has facilitated infrastructure in KwaNyuswa. Rural Area Based Management (RABM) reports also added a broad understanding of infrastructure backlog in the EThekwini Context.

1.5.2 Sampling Procedure

Ward community members were chosen according to their location in KwaNyuswa. The area is comprised of four sub-settlements which are called "Izigodi" referred to as community wards. In each sub-settlement, the researcher chose five ward committee members. The total sample was 20 participants from respective sub-settlements. Six key informants were selected because of their knowledge on Integrated Development Planning and background on KwaNyuswa. These are elaborated below:

- One planner from Cato Manor Rural Area Based Management (RABM) who has been involved in a number of integrated development planning programmes and projects based in KwaNyuswa was interviewed.
- ii. Another planner from the eThekwini Outer-west was also interviewed to specify approaches which eThekwini Municipality is using to facilitate infrastructure areas such as KwaNyuswa
- iii. The Integrated Development Plan Manager from the eThekwini Municipality Municipal Institute of Learning was also interviewed to establish challenges which the municipality is facing in its attempts to facilitate service delivery in KwaNyuswa.
- iv. One Community Development Worker (CDW) commissioned by Local Government to work with communities in KwaNyuswa was interviewed in order to identify community priorities in terms of service delivery.
- v. The local Councillor's Administrative Officer was also interviewed in order to identify the needs and challenges faced by KwaNyuswa in terms of service delivery.
- vi. EThekwini Municipality Chief Policy Analyst specializing on Integrated Development Planning and Infrastructure Service Delivery Programmes was also

interviewed to establish strategies that can be used to improve infrastructure in KwaNyuswa.

In addition, the researcher also made use of the information from a seminar presentation held on Mapping Water and Sanitation Services in the low-income areas of KwaNyuswa, Valley of 1000 Hill (Hlela, 2013). This was hosted at the University of KwaZulu-Natal, Howard College on the 20th of May 2013. A focus group meeting was also held in "Emagantsha" community court with a maximum of 20 ward committee members who were sampled based on their extensive knowledge on the needs and challenges of service delivery in KwaNyuswa. This has enhanced the researcher's understanding on the role of the IDP in KwaNyuswa.

1.6 Data Collection

1.6.1 Interview Process

Data was collected through interviews with key informants who had knowledge and expertise on respective issues which the study set to achieve. Interview processes allowed the researcher to obtain views from relevant stakeholders. Both structured and semi-structured interview schedules were used during data collection. These types of interviews were used in a quest to dig deeper into the topic and to rigorously understand different perceptions from community representatives and key informants. Semi-structured interviews enabled the researcher to obtain information based on themes set out. The researcher prepared an interview guide for key informants (see appendixes).

This created an order in which questions were asked and this occurred in a conversational way (Margaret et al, 2009). In so doing, interviewees had the liberty to express personal perceptions and views rather than predetermined responses. A purposive sampling was used to acquire information from relevant key informants. This was appropriate for the research to be undertaken. The snowball technique was used to identify subsequent interviewees as identified by the respective key informants. Observation was also used and it assisted the researcher to identify existing facilities whilst taking photo graphs in the area general activities therein. and

1.7 Data Analysis

Data was analysed using a thematic approach consistent with the research objectives and questions as summarized in table 2.

Table 2: Key Themes and Methods Used for Data Analysis

Theme	Objectives	Research	Primary	Secondary	Methods for
		Questions	Source	Source	Analysis
Understanding the role of Integrated Development Planning on infrastructure delivery in KwaNyuswa	To examine the extent to which IDP has been used to facilitate infrastructure service delivery in KwaNyuswa.		Rural Area Based Management and eThekwini Municipality Outer-west Planners, CDW and eThekwini Chief Policy Analyst.	EThekwini Municipal IDPs, Outer-West Spatial Development Plans and Spatial Development Framework reports. EThekwini Community Profile reports.	Thematic and descriptive analysis

Key	To identify and	What are the	IDP Manager,	EThekwini	Descriptive and
Development	examine	challenges	planners and	Municipal IDP	Thematic Analysis
Challenges	challenges	which eThekwini	Ward	reports, Rural	in connection with
faced by the	faced by the	Municipality is	Councillor's	Area Based	the research
eThekwini	eThekwini	facing in its	Secretary.	Management	questions and
Municipality in	Municipality in	attempt to		reports and Outer-	objectives.
service	its attempts to	facilitate service		west Spatial	
delivery in	accelerate	delivery in		Development	
KwaNyuswa	service delivery	KwaNyuswa?		Plans.	
	in KwaNyuswa				
Strategies for	To identify	What strategies	Chief Policy	EThekwini	Explanatory and
Infrastructure	strategies that	can be used by	Analyst, IDP	Municipal IDPs,	Thematic Analysis
Service	can be used by	the eThekwini	Manager and	Rural Area Based	in connection with
Delivery in	the eThekwini	Municipality to	Planners.	Management	the research
KwaNyuswa	Municipality to	improve		reports and	questions and
	improve	infrastructure		review of Outer-	specific objectives.
	infrastructural	service delivery		west Spatial	
	service delivery	in KwaNyuswa?		Development	
	in KwaNyuswa.			Framework plans	

Source: Researcher's Construct (2011)

1.8 Limitations to the study

The limitations encountered were that interviews had to be postponed or cancelled in some instances depending on the availability of respondents. The researcher had to make several trips and to supplement information from secondary sources. Other limitations were paucity of information on previous researches done on KwaNyuswa. This has made the presentation of historical background and situational analysis of the case study difficult. The researcher had to schedule interviews with local authorities such as "Izinduna" to ask about the historical background of KwaNyuswa. This was time consuming and costly.

1.9 Structure of Dissertation

This dissertation comprises six chapters. The first chapter presents the background and outlines the research problem, specifies the objectives and research questions leading to the presentation of subsidiary research questions, specific objectives, rationale of the study and the research methodology. The second chapter comprises two sections. The first section made use of regional and development theories namely the Central Place Theory, Growth Pole Theory, Industrial Location Theory and the Modernization Theory. The second give definitions of concepts which contribute the core in this research. These include definitions of what a rural, peri-urban and urban area is and related concepts which comprise Integrated Development Planning. The third chapter discusses international and local precedents on integrated development planning and infrastructure service delivery using Malaysia, Brazil and EThekwini Municipality as case studies. Chapter four presents the context and situational analysis of the case study: KwaNyuswa. Chapter five presents the results of the study and analysis of the research results. Chapter six presents a summary of findings of the study, conclusions and recommendations.

Chapter Two: Theoretical and Conceptual Framework

2.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the theoretical and conceptual framework for this research. The chapter comprises two sections. The first make use of regional and development theories namely the Central Place Theory, Growth Pole Theory, Industrial Location Theory and the Modernization Theory. These theories are presented in different perspectives. The central place theory offers a historical perspective to show what used to be considered when allocating infrastructure when cities were still uni-centre nodes.

The Growth Pole and Industrial Location Theory on the other hand consider spatial perspectives that inform the allocation of infrastructure in cities. These are discussed jointly with guidelines or planning standards for allocating infrastructure in cities. Modernization theory equally, further explains how such guidelines and standards have result rural-urban integration driven by processes of urbanization and migration. Finally, the second defines fundamental concepts which contribute the core in this research. These include definitions of what a rural, peri-urban and urban area is and related concepts which comprise Integrated Development Planning.

2.1 Theoretical Framework

2.1.1 Central Place Theory

The use of the central place theory in this research enhances the researcher's understanding of the distribution of services in rural and urban centres. It contains considerations which include the threshold population, demands for goods and services and the distribution of urban activities (Brian, 1958). The theory insists that the distribution of services should happen in areas with high threshold population and economic activities that can support an area (Bhandari, 2006). Brian (1958) argues that in recent years, goods and services used to be distributed in centres with greater population and herein, areas with low threshold were always subjects to elimination.

The central place theory emphasized areas to adhere to two principles which comprise the marketing and transportation principle. The marketing principle suggests the relationship between the income mechanism referring to markets and threshold population. It reveals that the functionality of the markets is the outcome of goods and services that it provides. In this regard, the population supports the services produced (Brian, 1958). In practice, markets attract great population from different geographies particularly those from villages and small towns.

The transportation principle of the central place theory makes the relationship between cities and rural areas plausible. Herein, rural population depends on the central places which offer the required goods to support their households. Consumers enjoy minimizing the distance through transportation system from their places of residence into central places (Clark et al, 1970). The spatial behavior pattern of population is contingent to this principle.

Equally of relevance, the current planning system continues to consider thresholds population "as the principle" to inform the allocation of services in cities (CSIR, 2005; CSIR, 2011). When allocating health facilities such as mobile clinics, clinics and regional services like hospitals within a city for example, a minimum of 5000 people per city is considered (CSIR, 2005; CSIR, 2011). To supporting this, there are guidelines that are followed. These suggest 0, 1 hectare to be demarcated per 5000 population whilst 0, 2 hectare per 1000 people etc (CSIR, 2005; CSIR, 2011). This means that the more population the greater the number of services in the city (CSIR, 2005; CSIR, 2011).

In a practical view, this gives an indication as to why some areas are with less if not without services entirely. The principles of the central place theory also apply in the allocation of cultural and administrative facilities such as libraries, community centres, churches and municipal offices in local government spheres (Brian, 1958; CSIR, 2011). The weakness on these principles is that they adopt a wall to wall approach hence this has an implication to cities such as Durban who is still characterized by rural-urban inequality. Nevertheless, the aforementioned standards are adhered to and inform

spatial plans in all levels. The growth pole and industrial location theory explains the concentration of infrastructure development in cities in detail.

2.1.2 The Growth Pole Theory

The use of the growth pole theory in this research has provided the researcher with a spatial perspective to understand planning guidelines and standards that municipalities use to allocate infrastructure in cities. To start with, the growth pole theory as originally formulated gives insight that infrastructure is polarized in geographies called nodes (Ganstho, 2008). The theory argues that growth does not appear everywhere at the same time, but it manifests itself in points where there are opportunities for growth (Ganstho, 2008). Bhandari, (2006) confirms that the theory has been the major source of economic and infrastructure development in developed countries such as Britian.

This theory regards nodes as suitable if not conducive points to deliver infrastructure and it acknowledges the need for technological innovation to sustaining the same. Ganstho, (2008) agrees that this has been the driving factor for structural changes in rural informal economies which has led to rural-urban migration. For example, in recent years, the societal consumption function in rural areas was mainly based on agriculture. Hence the advent of technology promoted changes on such patterns and eventually dissolved the practice of subsistence based economies (Bhandari, 2006). According to the growth pole theory, this created conditions related to income and market system so in order to achieve productivity in the area, two demands had to be met. These include the domestic investment and regional integration (Morgan, 1975).

The possibilities of achieving such demands depend on in-put (capital) and out-puts (production) in propulsive industries (leading firms) therefore profits could not only be influenced by internal economies but labor forces (Morgan, 1975). The theory regards areas with adequate labor mobility as targets for investment. Typically, these are cities or areas that are considered as urban. Although this does not guarantee investment in poor resourced communities however a relationship is eventually formed through the movement of the poor from the underdeveloped to developed areas usually urban (Gantsho, 2008). According to Gantsho (2008) urban areas are continuing to be the

backbone and motor of the wealth whilst supporting rural population with job opportunities. Furthermore, the growth pole theory insists that it is informed to examine guidelines and standards for the size, location and level of facilities to deem an area as suitable for investment (Campbell, 1972). Hence, this is applicable on the current planning system. For example, when eThekwini Municipality decides on nodal developments in 2002 (Pillay, 2007), the guidelines and standards for the planning of the social facilities were borrowed (CSIR, 2011).

Equally as tenets of the growth pole theory, the guidelines and standards for allocating services as per the CSIR (2011) put emphasis on the scale of facilities to map nodal points. The selection criteria for the build of KwaMashu and Umlazi Town Centre who are level-two on the eThekwini Social Facility Node Hierarchy have considered points with existing services along the Integrated Rapid Public Transport Network (IRPTN) close to points of social integration (CSIR, 2011). The population threshold of 400 000 or more within a 20 minute travel time was an additional criterion to direct and decide on the allocation of such nodes (CSIR, 2011). It is to this effect that the researcher argues that there is consistence on the principles of the growth pole theory with the guidelines and standards for the planning of infrastructure on cities. Scholars such as Thunen and Weber have tried to use Industrial Location Theory to demystify the concentration of infrastructure in cities.

2.1.3 Industrial Location Theory

The industrial location theory on the other hand regards this as coinciding with a new wave of trade integration to enhance productivity through transportation, labor and agglomeration of the area (Ganstho, 2008; Mosely, 1973). In terms of transportation, the theory asserts that the site chosen should entail the lowest possible cost for development (Somik, et al 2005). This according to Weber is the most important consideration when allocating infrastructure within the city.

Whilst in terms of labor, the industrial location theory critiques that high labor costs reduces profits, so industries might do better further from raw materials and markets if

cheap labor is available (Somik, et al 2005). The agglomeration principle on the other hand, believes that when a large number of enterprises cluster or agglomerate in the same area usually "urban", they can provide assistance to each other through shared talents, services, and facilities (Somik, et al 2005). The question in this regard is what are accepted guidelines or standards for allocating infrastructure in cities.

The CSIR (2005-2011) affirm the claim of the industrial location theory that infrastructure in a city depends on the location, accessibility, size of the area and uses capacities and thresholds. CSIR (2005-2011) argues that these guidelines have implications on the allocation of infrastructure within a city. For example, in providing educational services such as primary schools, high schools and tertiary facilities, the location and accessibility principles are considered to ensure that schools are placed closer or within the easy reach of the local area and that they locate closer to public transport routes (CSIR, 2005). In this regard, the maximum travel time should also be 20 minutes whether by foot, bicycle or a vehicle for the primary school and 30 minutes for high schools (CSIR, 2005). This should be in a maximum distance walk of 1, 5 kilometers (km) for the primary school whilst 2, 25 km for the high school (CSIR, 2005).

Due to such guidelines, local governments decide on areas with efficient networks to support the allocation of facilities. Within the eThekwini for example, a movement network is one of the principles which play an important role to support land uses and infrastructure allocation (eThekwini SDF Report, 2013/2014). This is a cost effective principle that the council is using rather than allocating services whether there are no network connections.

Large developments such as commercial industries amongst many are planned based on this principle and spatial plans make reference to and take into consideration the hierarchy of roads and service nodes (eThekwini SDF Report, 2013/2014). To some extent, this has principles of the growth pole and industrial location theory since it sees nodal points as key areas for investment. The modernization theory on the other hand views nodal points as areas that generate benefits in terms of income and jobs for the poor in disadvantaged areas (Todaro et al, 2010). While on the other hand promotes

integration through means of urbanization and migration. More is discussed on the theory below.

2.1.4 Modernisation Theory

The use of modernisation theory in this research has increased the researcher's ability to understand the rural-urban linkage which is driven by genuine desires of migrants to find work and economic opportunities in developed areas. According to the modernisation theory, urbanisation is caused by the development of the new technology which creates more jobs and concentrated population areas, also known as cities. Modernization theory argues that technology is what propels a society into the spiral of modernization and social change (Johns, 2011). The theory defines social change as a transition that a society has to undergo to reach the stage of growth and development (Matunho, 2011). It also defines social change as a new way of life to make scientific advances and industrial progress to improve or enhance underdeveloped areas (Matunho, 2011). Nevertheless, the Marxist and core-periphery theory critique modernisation theory as failing to demystify ideas to minimize the gap between developed and underdeveloped areas (Johns, 2011). They argue that modernisation theory and its characteristics of industrialisation support developed areas (Sorensen, 2001; Borgatti, 1999).

In this regard, the modernization theory argues that industrialization is a positive mechanism to strengthen the relationship between developed and underdeveloped areas (Bradshaw, 2011-2012; Todaro et al, 2010). Hence the theory asserts urbanization as a positive feature that should be encouraged. In practice, urbanization occurs in different patterns and processes. These comprise a rural-urban migration which is the movement of rural communities into a more productive urban-based industry or services (Mvuyana, 2010; Annez et al, no date). In this regard, the urbanization theory asserts different migration processes which support the rural economy. These involve a temporary or permanent migration where people move from their places of origins to temporarily and completely reside in cities (Mvuyana, 2010). According to urbanization theory, this is one of the dominant aspects of the socio-

economic transformation today. In favor of such migration patterns, the modernization theory asserts urbanization as a positive phenomenon which exposes the poor to economic growth and also avail opportunities for women to advance economically and socially (Johns, 2011). This is contrary to the historical myth which made the role of women to remain domestically.

Furthermore, the evolution of cities from a monocentric into a polycentric phase has affected how academics define urbanisation. For example, the 2011 World Urbanization Prospects records that developing cities in countries like China, and Brazil are experiencing different forms of urbanization where the urban population moves from inner to outer cities. Against this experience, it has become irrelevant to analyse cities in isolation (Tacolli, 1999). The idea of a polycentric city has stimulated additional alternatives development patterns. This means that the situation for underdeveloped areas is no longer determined by their location or economic context since cities are now integrated (UNCHS, 2001b). Hence before long, it will become difficult to establish the distinct on what a rural, peri-urban and urban area is, but for the purpose of this research, these are defined below to show their linkage.

2.2 Defining Concepts

2.2.1 Rural Area

A rural area is defined as a homogeneous area which is populated by lower income sectors with inefficient informal activities and poor infrastructure (Adell, 1999). Thus, it is viewed as an area which is characterized by a non-urban way of living (Paul et al, 1985). This is also associated with rurality which is a context with many people who reside in poverty stricken neighborhoods, where crime and violence are widespread, fragmented families and a lack of access to educational, economical, and health institutions (McClinton, 2006). Communities herein largely depend on urban areas for social and economic opportunities (McClinton, 2006). The characteristics of a rural area are seen through close-knit social networks, local power-base and direct contact with end product of labour (Paul et al, 1985). A rural area also contains extensive land uses

such as agriculture and forestry. It also comprises large open spaces of undeveloped land, small low-order settlements which demonstrate a strong relationship between buildings and surrounding extensive landscapes (Adell, 1999). Nevertheless, this does not limit rural population to migrate into cities in search for social and job opportunities.

2.2.2 Peri-Urban Area

Peri-urban areas are formerly "rural" localities that are now adopting an urban character due to the expansion of South Africa's metros and major towns directly in the path of urbanization (Matseding Municipality, 2008). These areas are not static in time or space. But they are in transition due to movements of people from rural to urban areas vice-versa. Typically, these areas are located on urban fringes and their inhabitants have more opportunities to move into employment opportunities in urban areas (Dreshsel et al, 2001). Peri-urban areas are more likely to have good transport networks, health, education and social services (Dreshsel et al, 2001). However, some are far from existing water mains, trunk sewers, storm and surface water drains. While some are on difficult terrains (i.e. informal settlements on hills and flood plains) which make the provision of infrastructure more difficult and expensive for local governments (Tacolli, 1999). Most often, peri-urban areas fall under the jurisdiction of a particular traditional authority with insufficient resources and capacity to provide infrastructure (Tacolli, 1999). As a result, local governments are being tasked with a challenge to service these areas and promote infrastructure investment herein.

2.2.3 Urban Area

The concept of "urban area" has become difficult to define. Recently, it used to be easy to define what an urban area is as many urban theorists thought of the same as a unicentre node (Bhandari, 2006). However, since cities have become polycentric meaning the decentralization of activities (e.g. commercial, retail, transportation and industrial activities) closer to residential areas, urban areas have become difficult to demystify. In the eThekwini Municipality for example, the Umhlanga Ridge, KwaMashu and Umlazi New Town Centre are examples of polycentric forms (Ofuso-KwaKye, 2010). Hence, one can define these areas as now "urban" as they have become active economic

nodes. In Kenya for example, an area is classified as "urban" or a city under subsection (3) of the Urban Areas and Cities Act of 2011. This establishes a city or an urban area as an area which demonstrate a capacity to generate sufficient revenue to sustain its operation and to effectively and efficiently deliver infrastructural facilities, including but not limited to roads, street lighting and markets to its inhabitants (The Urban Areas and Cities Act, 2011). Gordon et al (2007) define an urban area as a formal settlement that is structured and organized where land parcels (plots or erven) are clearly defined with formal and permanent structures. Here, services such as water, electricity and refuse removal are provided, and roads are formally planned and maintained by the municipality. IDP plays a significant role to ensuring this and that municipalities deliver on plans set (Visser, 2001). The following section defines IDP by starting with unpacking it three components namely: integration, development and planning. These are defined within the context of South African Integrated Development Planning.

2.2.4 Integration in the Context of Integrated Development Planning

In South Africa, Integrated Development Planning is comprised of an important principle of integration which is by law required as envisaged by the Intergovernmental Relations Framework Act (No. 13 of 2005). Within government, integration promotes communication and interaction between the work of local government and external departments to facilitate development and service delivery in a sustainable manner (Visser, 2001). It also ensures that South African IDP remains holistic and participatory amongst spheres of government (Todes, 2003).

Integration acknowledges the existence and constitutional rights of mainly four racial groups Blacks, Indians, Coloureds and Whites in South Africa (Adebayo et al, 2010). Within the IDP, integration also serves as a spatial approach to integrate the previously excluded townships into the main stream development of major cities. Integration also serves to foster partnership between communities and government in and during IDP processes (Todes, 1993).

2.2.5 Development in the Context of Integrated Development Planning

The concept of development entails a stage of people's engagement throughout the decision-making process in the preparation of the IDP plans (Siphuma, 2009). It is also refers to the provision and equal distribution of infrastructure between the rich and poor communities (Firman, 2004). Similarly as integration, development aims to achieve rural-urban integration by minimizing the imbalance between urban and rural areas. It also aims at enhancing the condition in poor communities through infrastructure service delivery processes. Hence, it encourages that this become a people-driven since development is about people (Siphuma, 2009).

Development is also ensured through the implementation of regulations in unregulated settlements to manage the use of land and development. These regulations involve Spatial Development Framework Plan and Land Use Management System (LUMS) to guide and manage development (Ethekwini Municipality, 2010). Equally, development aims to achieve democracy, equality and integration in the IDP processes (Landman, 2000). The IDP processes are geared through planning and more on planning is expanded below.

2.2.6 Planning in the Context of Integrated Development Planning

In this context, planning refers to an activity which occurs throughout the IDP process (Todes, 2003). It ensures that the decisions taken in the IDP target essential needs and problems of the people. It also helps the municipality to facilitate infrastructure service delivery through its limited resources (Delivery Outcome: 9, 2010). Planning facilitates debate and discussion amongst municipal-officials to make informed choices. Possible solutions are explored during planning and debated with a view to plan and decide on the most effective strategy (Mogaladi, 2007).

Planning provides guidelines to local government in order to implement projects and programmes that align with the objectives of the National and Provincial Government (eThekwini Municipality, 2010). Planning also helps the municipality to determine potential areas for investment and to decide on programmes which may have potential impacts on the poor (Todes, 2003). This happens through participatory mechanisms where the public is involved during the preparation, implementation and evaluation of

the IDP (Mogaladi, 2007). Projects are planned based on the inputs of the beneficiaries and planners serve to ensure that they plan for and with the people.

A long-term developmental vision is formulated through planning in the IDP (Todes, 2003). Planning involves the realignment of the proposed projects, and checking them against the development vision. Interrelationships are pinpointed for maximizing usage of resources for greater impact. Consolidation, financial planning and institutional positioning is done through planning so that implementation could possibly be approved (Mogaladi, 2007). What then is Integrated Development Planning? The researcher attempted to provide responses in relation to the above question by explaining integrated development planning at the outset and subsequently conceptualize integrated development plan and integrated development as demonstrated below.

2.2.7 Integrated Development Planning

Integrated development planning is seen as the major shift from traditional approaches of planning such as apartheid approaches to spatial planning. It is regarded as an instrument of local government which lies at the centre of the new system for local government and represents the driving forces for making municipalities in South Africa more strategic, inclusive, responsive and performance driven in character (Allebiosu, 2005). Moreover, Integrated Development Planning is more than a plan; rather it is an approach. The difference between a plan and an approach is that an approach reacts to the problem whilst a plan provides guidelines to combat the problem. Mogaladi (2007) reiterates that integrated development planning is an approach designed to address poor planning of the past in order to ensure sustainable rural development and provision of infrastructure.

Furthermore, it is also described as a strategy to address spatial inequalities caused by apartheid planning legacy (Christopher, 1987). The aim of integrated development planning is to integrate rural and urban communities in one economy while linking poverty stricken neighborhoods into the mainstream economy (Allebiosu, 2005). In local governments, integrated development planning employs a compact development

approach and transportation planning system to integrate the previously marginalized areas (McClinton et al, 2006).

Ideally, this is seen as the panacea to contemporary planning problems such as sprawling growth (Smith et al, 1998). Hence, this notion emphasis the allocation and distribution of resources to accommodate rural and urban needs. Integrated development planning also integrate the economic, sectoral, spatial, social, environmental and fiscal strategies in order to support the optimal allocation of scarce resources between sectors and geographical areas and cross the population in a manner that provide sustainable growth, equity and empower the poor and marginalized (Allebiosu, 2005). There exist a number of plans related to spatial planning within the Integrated Development Planning. These comprise a Spatial Development Framework, Spatial Development Plans (SDPs) (detailed regional plans providing strategic multisectoral planning guidance for each region or precinct to translates the spatial intentions of the SDF); Local Area Plans (LAPs) and Functional Area Plans (FAPs) (eThekwini SDF, 2012/13). In the following section, the researcher attempts to illustrate the difference between integrated development planning and an integrated development plan.

2.2.8 Integrated Development Plan

An integrated development plan is a basic statutory document that informs all aspects of development within local governments (District and Local) in South Africa. It requires municipalities to prepare 5-year strategic plans that are reviewed annually in consultation with communities and stakeholders (Ethekwini Municipality Integrated Development Plan, 2010). These plans seek to promote integration by balancing social, economic and ecological pillars of sustainability without compromising the institutional capacity required in the implementation process, and by coordinating actions across sectors and spheres of government. Integrated development plans were created to assist municipalities in achieving developmental mandates and to guide the activities of any institution or development agency operating in the municipal area (Ofuso-KwaKye, 2010).

An Integrated development plan also intends to be a holistic multi-sectoral approach, which guides the future development of the locality and gives direction to the growth of the municipality. This plan contains Spatial Development Framework (SDF) plan, including expenditure priorities, municipal goals and objectives, Key Performance Indicators (KPI), Capital Investment Framework (CIF) plan and projects for implementation over a five year period (Todes, 2003). The development of a new five year plan gives the municipality an opportunity to re-assess its development objectives in the context of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) (Ethekwini Municipality Integrated Development Plan, 2011/2012). As a development plan, it is required to put necessary infrastructure service delivery projects in place to get rid of poverty at each local level (Allebiosu, 2005).

2.2.9 Integrated Development

Integrated development is seen as a local pathway to sustainable neighborhood and is used to foster adequate infrastructure service delivery in closer proximity (Allebiosu, 2005). This promotes neighborhoods to ensure service delivery that is convenient to municipal resources to effect a sustainable and functional environment (Ethekwini Municipality Integrated Development Plan, 2011/2012). Integrated development also promotes a sense of belonging to local communities (McClinton et al, 2006). An integrated development approach encourages local governments and municipalities to prepare and implement development plans that integrate transportation systems, housing sector plans and basic infrastructure service delivery (Ethekwini Municipality, 2010). This is being used in areas where people fail to afford municipal-services.

The characteristics of integrated development involve an environment with water services, electricity, road infrastructure, formal housing, schools, clinics, shopping-centers and recreational facilities (eThekwini Municipality, 2007/2008). Because of apartheid planning legacy in South Africa, integrated development exists in cities compared to rural areas. Most urban areas have access to recreational facilities, shopping malls; formal houses and their transportation system promote efficient movement of traffic and pedestrians (Ewing et al, 2003).

Integrated development also means celebrating the city's cultural diversity by creating an environment under which opportunities can be realized for personal growth, community solidarity and economic opportunities (Ofuso-Kwakye, 2009). In South African Municipalities, integrated development is often associated with strategic plans which aim to develop and sustain spatial, natural and built environment and fostering a socially equitable environment (Ethekwini Municipality Integrated Development Plan, 2011/2012). The following section offers a general overview of the implication of basic and social services in communities.

2.2.10 Basic and Social Services

In South Africa, government sees infrastructure as the panacea to transform the economic landscape of South Africa, create a significant numbers of new jobs, strengthen the delivery of basic services to the people and support the integration of African economies (PICC, 2012). It also views it as the driver to promoting a balanced economic development, unlock economic opportunities, help integrate human settlements and socio-economic development by means of service delivery (PICC, 2012). Service delivery is defined as a strategic action by local government to facilitate the provision of infrastructure to rapid expanding population areas (Harper, 2000). Basic and social infrastructure contains different implications to communities and more is discussed on the same below.

(i) Water and Sanitation

Access to improved water and sanitation plays an important role in the betterment of a community health profile and in reducing the incidences of getting diseases (Caderon et al, 2004). Sanitation particularly, incorporates privacy, human dignity and hygienic water (World Health Organisation, 2009).

(ii) Electricity

Electricity has become important in developed and developing cities than before (Caderon et al, 2004). In neighbourhoods, electricity advances people's choice to

perform domestic and computerized activities (i.e. more time for study, meal preparation and the use of cell phones and computers) (Caderon et al, 2004).

(iii) Health Facilities

Community health facilities are usually clinics, mobile clinics and regional services such as hospitals. These increase access to health care and welfare support centres for various diseases such as HIV/AIDS and treatments in communities (eThekwini Municipality IDP, 2011).

(iv) Housing

The provision of housing results in conducive living standard, health and neighborhood where communities enjoy a sense of belonging. In due course, housing promotes integration and community mobilization (eThekwini Municipality IDP, 2011). It is also an asset rather than a shelter as some convert this covert this to home based business activities.

(v) Schools and Libraries

Schools and libraries are important facilities which governments are using to broaden the knowledge and skills base particularly for the youth (eThekwini Municipality IDP, 2011). These contribute significant to human capital development, community mobilization as well as integration of ethnic groups to conducting research.

(vi) Community Halls

Community halls promote access and optimum use of facilities for training, skills development and community meetings (eThekwini Municipality IDP, 2011).

(vii) Transportation Network

Transportation network supports urbanization between areas on urban fridges and active points within the city.

(viii) Sport Facilities

Sport facilities contribute to recreation and extramural activities. They also keep youth occupied rather than engaging to insignificant activities such as crime.

2.3 Chapter Summary

This chapter comprised of two sections. The first section made use of regional and development theories namely the Central Place Theory, Growth Pole Theory, Industrial Location Theory and the Modernization Theory. These theories were presented from different perspectives to offer a spatial perspective to the allocation of infrastructure in cities. Modernization theory on the other hand explains how the concentration of infrastructure development in cities has caused rural-urban disjuncture as a result of urbanization and migration. Finally, the second section gave definitions of concepts which contribute the core in this research. These included definitions of what a rural, peri-urban and urban area is and related concepts which comprise Integrated Development Planning. In addition, an integrated suite of plans, legal framework guiding integrated development planning and implications of social and basic services to communities were presented.

Chapter Three: International and Local Precedents on Integrated Development Planning and Infrastructure Service Delivery

3.0 Introduction

This chapter presents approaches and strategies for improving infrastructure service delivery in disadvantaged communities. This is consistent with the broad objective of this research which seeks to examine how integrated development planning has been used as a tool for improving infrastructure in disadvantaged communities. The chapter comprises three sections. The first section provides a contextual understanding of the Integrated Development Planning in Malaysia in order to examine how infrastructure service delivery approaches have been used to facilitate rural development herein. Rural areas in Malaysia are not that isolated however the Malaysian experience gives insight on how a country that has been under reign like South Africa can attain rural development. The second section examines the case study of Brazil in order to establish how rural development has been managed successfully whilst acknowledging the importance of human capital development. Finally, the third considers how the eThekwini Municipality is using it Spatial Development Framework to mitigate poverty and rural-urban inequality.

3.1 Contextual Understanding of Integrated Development Planning in Malaysia

In Malaysia, Integrated Development Planning (IDP) arose after achieving independence from the British colonial power in 1957 (Arshap et al, 1997). The legacy of the British colonial development policies constituted considerable differences between rural and urban sectors. Infrastructure service delivery was concentrated in urban areas such as Selangor, Perak and Pulau Pinang whilst rural areas such as Kelantan, Kedah and Perlis continued to suffer from the infrastructure service delivery backlog (Roslan, 2008). This disparity was driven by the fact that urban areas were the central focus for infrastructure service delivery during the reign of British settlers. It is

therefore from this context that integrated development planning and infrastructure service delivery approaches became relevant (Rasappan, 2002).

3.1.1 Infrastructure Service Delivery Approaches in Malaysia

In Malaysia, rural industrialization was introduced as part of the national economic strategy as a result of a huge income gap between urban and rural areas (Zin, 1996). The latter is one of the sectors that government has used to promote rural infrastructure service delivery and subsequently address income inequalities (Arshap et al, 1997). The degree of inequality particularly in income distribution was higher in urban than in rural areas (Shari, 1995). As a result, government decided on distributing the substantial public sector resources through rural industrialization in rural communities. These comprised of loans and grants, extension services and entrepreneurial development, training and infrastructure facilities (Arshap et al, 1997). The aim was to promote equity and rural economic development given that infrastructure service delivery has been concentrated in urban areas. In so doing, about 40% of rural households benefitted services through rural industrialization (Roslan, 2008).

The weakness of rural industrialization was that it did not invest in human capital during the distribution of resources to rural communities. Instead, communities were given loans and facilities by government to start businesses without sufficient education. As a result, their businesses were not sustained hence the economy continued to concentrate in urban sectors (Yusof et al, 2008). The researcher argues that rural industrialization has been partially successful in Malaysia since it only accommodated the elites who eventually entered the global market (Arshap et al, 1997). Against this backdrop, the government decided on Rural Growth Centres (RGCs) to empower rural communities and ensure that they sustain services provided. Rural growth centres are referred by many academics such as Robinson (2005) and Zin (1996) as rural development approaches to induce growth and alleviate poverty in rural communities (Moseley, 1972). Earlier in the 1970s, policy makers in developing countries recognised that policies with an urban bias approach were putting emphasis on the concentration of infrastructure in large cities whilst failing to generate basic amenities to rural towns

(Robinson, 2005). This has been the case in Malaysia before the 1957 and it is from this perspective that government adopted a Rural Growth Centre approach to addressing this imbalance (Roslan, 2008).

A Rural Growth Centre approach was based on three long-term policies: the New Economic Policy (NEP), the National Development Policy (NDP), and the National Vision Policy (NVP). These were consistent with the Malaysian Development Plan for addressing poor service delivery in rural areas. About 48% of rural service centres-parts of rural growth centre strategies were introduced to address poor service delivery in rural areas. Private sectors also intervened and this promoted growth of rural labor productivity and economic increase by 3.7% per-annum higher than 4.7% growth rate of the overall country economy (Arshap et al, 1997). This did not only address rural service delivery backlog in Malaysia, but it also mitigated an income gap between the first and second economy and poor standard of living in rural areas (Zin, 1996). Rural Economic Development (RED) referred to Local Economic Development (LED) in South Africa was achieved. Areas such as Kelantan and Kedah were positively improved infrastructure and developed economically (Yusof et al, 2008).

3.1.2 Lessons: Restructuring of Institutions for Improving Rural Infrastructure Service Delivery in Malaysia

The case study has demonstrated that although Malaysia was under reign before decolonisation, it managed to restructure its national institutions and policy development to achieving rural development as part of the integrated development planning process. In so doing, it did acknowledge the importance of incorporating rural areas in the national development plans (Roslan, 2008). This has benefitted about 40% of rural communities to develop and obtain infrastructure (Tenth Malaysian Plan, 2010). Rural areas that have been deprived development before benefitted Rural Economic Development (RED) and it is from this background that the researcher regards Malaysia as a case to look at to benefit South Africa against its dual economy.

3.2 Brazilian Case Study

Over the past 25 years, Brazil has had an unstable economic growth following the contamination from the economic tragedy which plunged the country into terrible financial crises (Schneider et al, 2010). At the same time the country had to address socio-economic inequalities that tend to segregate the rural population from achieving rural development (Arbache, 2006; Schwartzman, 2003; Schneider et al, 2010). To this end, rural development programmes, such as the "Integrated Rural Development Policies" which included the structural, social and macro-economic policy reforms started in the early 1990s were responses to produce fair distributional outcomes of government services and infrastructure assets such as health, education and welfare services (Arbache, 2006). These were seen as the only mechanisms capable of creating and providing feasible solutions to poverty and underdevelopment of rural areas to engage in modernization processes (Schneider et al, 2010). This approach, based on modernization theory, promoted compensatory mechanisms to rural areas that struggled to modernize their agriculture and improve in terms of service delivery. Eventually, the state has broadened its focus and considers rural development to become a people's driven exercise where the poor would shape their own livelihoods (Minnasian, 2012, Nassif, 2007). This has led to sustainable rural development which subsists to date.

3.2.1 Three Generations of Rural Development Policies: A Transition to Integrated Rural Development and Human Capital in Brazil

Before stating how rural development was managed successfully in Brazil, it is important to note that Brazil has gone through several changes from 1990 to 2010 (Schneider et al, 2010). In each period, government has used different approaches to addressing the status quo of rural areas. Government understood that most families here regard farming as the main source for livelihood. As a result, government put emphasis on the small-scale family farming, small and medium-scale rural enterprises and education (Schwartzman, 2003). From 1990 to 1995, the government made

provision of raw material, water and sanitation, new technology and money incentives to small scale family farmers (Minnasian, 2012). As much as this was beneficial to communities, it was changed in the second generation as some have critique that this created dependence rather than a platform for sustainable capacity development (Schneider et al, 2010).

Henceforth, government shifted its focus from 1996 to 2000 and recognised the gap between the economy and education (Gomes, 2004). Education was expected to determine the socio-economic capabilities of the rural population including farmers in order to fight poverty. This was consistent with the National Plan for Further Training of Workers as required by a series of institutions namely: Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) and municipal departments (Schneider et al, 2010). This benefited over 300,000 small scale family farmers; almost 10% of the whole universe of family farms (Bateman et al, 2013, Schneider et al, 2010). In this regards, municipal departments were proactive in facilitating technical agricultural training and infrastructure such as schools and training centres.

These were not designated for rural famers only but for communities at large. About 24.2% of rural communities received formal education in the year 2000. This was a large percentage of people to acquire formal education not only from technical agriculture but commercial industry and financial management (Schwartzman, 2003). In the third generation however, the macro-economic policy unlike the social and structural policy of the first and second generation put emphasis on community participation to implementing rural development projects (Nassif, 2007). A partnership between NGOs, unions, and rural communities was formed hence communities could express their concerns regarding service delivery. Vital services needed comprised water and sanitation, money and land to achieve food security (Bateman et al, 2013). But this was delivered as part of the Integrated Rural Development Projects (IRDP) (Gomes, 2004). About 33% of communities benefited the same subsistence and commercial purposes. In 2006, the country agrarian and livestock census of 2006 indicated a maximum of 5.3

million of families with adequate access to land, water and sanitation and funding to initiate their own businesses (Bateman et al, 2013).

3.2.2 The Success of Rural Development in Brazil

The success of rural development in Brazil was plausible as a result of having rural oriented policies such as social, structural and macro-economic policy. Broader objectives of these policies were to promote social assistances mainly to the rural population who are engaged in agriculture to fight poverty (Arbache, 2006). Equally, the flexibility and willingness of the state to acknowledge critiques and do policy amendments on respective generations made the role of Integrated Rural Development Projects (IRDPs) a success. This has been indicated where the social policy of the first generation broadens its focus from providing social assistance such as land and credit and acknowledges the gap between education and the economy in the second generation of the structural policy (Nassif, 2007). The structural policy believes that in order to achieve sustainable rural development, people should be given related skills to become competent in the global market (Schneider et al, 2010, 2003).

This was done successfully in Brazil since the population enrolled formal education increased by 24.2% from 1995 to 2000 (Schwartzman, 2003). Non-state organisations also contributed to promoting partnership and participation between communities and government. This had a positive impact as government could understand people's needs in terms of service delivery rather than generalizing (Hamill, 2009). This is not to say that Brazil has reached the state of perfection in the context of infrastructure development but it is one of the developing countries like South Africa which has successfully managed rural development whilst acknowledging the importance of a human capital development. The following section examines the spatial planning system of eThekwini in addressing issues of poverty and rural-urban inequality through infrastructure delivery. It starts by presenting the context and legal framework guiding Integrated Development Planning in South Africa.

3.3 The Context of Integrated Development Planning in South Africa

In South Africa, integrated development planning became relevant in 1996 to remedy the impact of apartheid planning which resulted in a dual economic system (IDP for Local Government, 2002). As a development tool, it aimed at promoting the social and economic development particularly in the former segregated areas (eThekwini Municipality, 2010).

3.3.1 Legal Framework Guiding Integrated Development Planning

- (i) In South Africa, integrated development planning approach is guided by an integrated development plan which is a statutory document that is required by the Municipal Systems Act (Act No. 32 of 2000) to be prepared and adopted by each local municipality (Tode, 2003).
- (ii) The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (No.108 of 1996) is one amongst many which also provides a mandate to ensure that IDP is consistent with the national and local government objectives (Ugu District Municipality IDP, 2010). This promotes co-ordination within (intra) and between (inter) departments that have been working and planning in silos (Ethekwini Municipality, 2010).
- (iii) Intergovernmental Relations Framework Act (Act No. 13 of 2005) also emphasizes the importance of building relationships between ties of government since IDP process depends on cooperative governance (Tode, 2003).
- (iv) The Municipal Structures Act, (Act No. 117 of 1998) also has the impact on the IDP as it allocates and determines duties to each municipality (EThekwini IDP Final Draft, 2006).
- (v) Municipal Finance Management Act (MFMA) (Act No. 56 of 2003) coordinates IDP processes to be in line with priorities set in the Capital Investment Framework (CIF) plan (Ugu District Municipality IDP, 2010).

3.3.2 EThekwini Municipality's use of a Spatial Development Framework to Facilitate Infrastructure Service Delivery

In the context of infrastructure service delivery, the eThekwini Municipality Spatial Development Framework (SDF) follows a logical framework such as spatial analysis as the foundation of planning (EThekwini Metro Assessment for Discussion, 2011/2012). In so doing, the municipality manages to identify the needs and challenges that are faced by the low-income people in both urban and rural areas (EThekwini Municipality, 2010). However, in most cases, the infrastructure service delivery depends on the municipal choices and principles which are normally influenced by the competitive advantages of a landscape (EThekwini Municipality IDP, 2006). These principles involve the investment network and the principle of sustainability and viability.

The eThekwini Spatial Development Framework investment network principle encourages the system for investment as an important basis of the SDF to achieve its objectives against unequal distribution of infrastructure service delivery (EThekwini Municipality Report, 2010). The investment network principle also identifies strategic priority areas to receive service delivery and subsequently economic investment (EThekwini Municipality, 2010). The principle of sustainability and viability on the other hand, provides the "limit lines" that the municipality has to comply with to facilitate service delivery. The municipal "limit lines" mandates the municipality to promote an optimal use of existing infrastructure whilst encouraging employment opportunities in close proximity (EThekwini Municipality Integrated Development Plan Review 2005/2006).

The weaknesses of the aforementioned principles are discussed as follows:

The investment network principle assumes that infrastructure service delivery should be directed in areas with competitive advantages in order to attract and sustain investment (EThekwini IDP, 2006). Hence, this mutes the need to broaden infrastructure service delivery in rural areas as they contain poor infrastructure services (EThekwini Municipality IDP, 2005). As a result, only major commercials and high activity areas such as Central Business Districts (CBDs) (i.e. Central Durban) that are consequently selected as strategic priority areas in the SDF (EThekwini Municipality OWSDP, 2011). Areas with limited investment points such as KwaXimba, Inchanga, Embo and KwaNyuswa are usually ignored in terms of investment because it is expensive for the municipality to kick-start development in poor resourced areas (eThekwini Municipality, 2010).

Furthermore, the weaknesses of the principles of sustainability and viability are that they are largely concerned with establishing "limit lines" that the municipality should adhere to in order to achieve integrated service delivery. Hence, they stress this to occur in areas with adequate carrying capacity in terms of the settlement density and infrastructure development (EThekwini Municipality OWSDP, 2011). Indeed, from a planning point of view, integrated service delivery results in an integrated development, and prevents the spread of low-density developments towards the edge of the city (Ofuso-Kwakye, 2009). However, there is a problem if the same only concentrates in urban zones whilst municipality has rural areas which suffer from poor infrastructure service delivery (Cross, 2002). Table 3 on page 35 presents the current trend on infrastructure service delivery in the EThekwini Metropolitan Area (EMA).

Table 3: EThekwini Spatial Development Framework: Current Trend on Infrastructure Service Delivery in the City

Outcomes	Current Trend in Urban and Rural Service Delivery	Undesirable Effects in Rural Service Delivery
Inequities	Many communities still do not have good access to metropolitan opportunities. This backlog is predominantly faced by disadvantaged communities who have remained poor following the apartheid planning legacy (Cross, 2002). Hence, it is expensive and time consuming for rural communities to often travel from their places of residences to places of employment and social facilities. In rural areas, public facilities and services are being scattered across community areas rather than grouped together at the accessible points (EThekwini Municipality Spatial Development Framework, 2002). Whilst in urban areas, integrated service delivery occurs to areas such as Beachfront, Point, Central Durban, and Umhlanga Ridge as they have well developed infrastructure and adequate facilities. Likewise, areas such as KwaMashu, Umlazi and Mpumalanga also benefit in terms of service delivery as they have mixed investment points that include social and economic investment nodes (OWSDP, 2011). Rural investment points have not been utterly integrated into the economy of the city (OWSDP, 2011). Consequently, infrastructure service delivery remains paucity and inadequate to address socio-economic challenges and human basic needs herein (Cross, 2002). To date,	and infrastructure service delivery exist among rural and urban regions in the eThekwini Metropolitan Area (EThekwini Municipality SDF, 2002). The role of an Integrated Development Planning in promoting socioeconomic development and infrastructure development appears in core areas such as Hillcrest, Westville and Pinetown (EThekwini Municipality Spatial Development Framework, 2002). Community facilities are scattered and having haphazard fashion in rural areas. As a result, it is difficult and expensive for the municipality to facilitate infrastructure service delivery in areas with such conditions. It is therefore from this context that most rural communities hardly access infrastructure development and economic opportunities in the

EThekwini Municipality is striving to ensure balance between rural and urban investment nodes.

Rural population is generally disconnected from the rest of the EThekwini Municipality and suffers from high unemployment levels, which is related to low skills and literacy and numeracy levels as well as few employment opportunities. Overall unemployment is 21%, however 52% of the economically active population seeking employment, remain unemployed (OWSDP, 2011). This problem is exacerbated by lack of infrastructure service delivery (i.e. firms and industrial development nodes) in rural areas (OWSDP, 2011). The economic growth path of industry and commerce is decentralizing to Outerwest areas such as Cato Ridge and Mpumalanga-Hammarsdale.

Equally, the role of the municipality is evident in areas such as Inchanga and KwaXimba where it has invested to enhance integrated rural service delivery (Pillay, 2007). Indeed, transportation services have been provided in both urban and rural areas however, they are only effective in urban contexts. In rural areas, the same is under-utilized since their land use patterns (i.e. housing development) do not support efficiency Municipality Report, 2010). (eThekwini SDF, 2002).

Moreover. expensive bulk infrastructure has only been built in Durban Central Areas whilst rural areas and peri-urban contexts remain backward. underdeveloped and dependent on the economy of the core-regions (EThekwini Spatial Development Framework, 2002). Poor economic opportunities in rural areas result to serious challenges such as poverty (Valley Trust Survey, 2001).

The Integrated Development Planning (IDP) objective against poor planning of the past (i.e. addressing the settlement dispersed patterns particularly in rural areas) contingent to the SDF which does not promise to promote rural service delivery (EThekwini on time

Source: EThekwini Municipality Spatial Development Framework (2002)

3.3.3 Rural Infrastructure Service Delivery: Is it Practical in the EThekwini Metropolitan Municipality?

One of the objectives of eThekwini Metropolitan Municipality is to ensure equal distribution and allocation of infrastructure service delivery to cater for the needs of the poor in a sustainable manner (OWSDP, 2011). However, this objective is questionable since "rural-urban equity" remains an illusion in the context of service delivery (Kim, 2008). Indeed, the municipality has a significant role in ensuring that eThekwini IDP guarantees citizen's rights to service delivery (eThekwini Municipality, 2010). There is however a disjuncture between the Integrated Development Planning (IDP) objectives and some of the SDF principles (i.e. investment network principle, sustainability and viability principle) which are used to facilitate service delivery in the city (eThekwini SDF, 2002). The researcher argues that the aforesaid principles contain characteristics of the development and regional theories such as the growth pole theory and the industrial location theory. The growth pole theory maintains that in order to ensure a sustainable infrastructure service delivery government should invest in a suitable site or node with well-developed infrastructure (Perroux, 1955).

Whilst the industrial location theory establishes that a site chosen must entail the lowest possible cost of moving raw material and should entail a large number of enterprises in the same area (Mosely, 1975). This is consistent with the paradigms of the principles of investment network, sustainability and viability which encourage infrastructure service delivery in areas with adequate carrying capacity and infrastructure development (EThekwini Municipality IDP, 2006). To this end, only urban areas such as Hillcrest, Pinetown and Durban become privileged to access infrastructure (OWSDP, 2011). Rogerson (2009) agrees and argues that Durban is amongst the core regions namely: Gauteng, Cape Town, Pietermaritzburg and Port Elizabeth that generate 80% of the country's economy which has not prospered to respond to the national development objective for rural development. This means that eThekwini Municipality is still faced by a challenge to account to rural and peri-urban demands within its jurisdiction.

3.4 Summary

This chapter presented the context of the Integrated Development Planning in Malaysia. The chapter discussed the role of infrastructure service delivery approaches adopted by government following the demise of the British colonialism in 1957 in Malaysia. These included rural industrialization and Rural Growth Centres (RGCs). The researcher indicated how these led to Rural Economic Development in rural areas in Malaysia therefore presented lessons that can benefit South Africa from achieving the same. Furthermore, the chapter presented the case study of Brazil to show how she has successfully managed to achieve rural development whilst acknowledging the importance of human capital development. Finally, eThekwini Municipality Spatial Development Framework has been reviewed to establish its successes and failures on service delivery. This has enabled the researcher to situate KwaNyuswa in this experience. More is discussed on KwaNyuswa in the following chapter.

Chapter Four: Case Study-KwaNyuswa Settlement

4.0 Introduction

KwaNyuswa is a peri-urban settlement for low income people within the EThekwini Metropolitan Area (EMA). The Area's location connects it with the current and future economic prosperity of the municipality. Most tribal areas especially in the south and west of the area have been swallowed by the municipality after the advent of the Municipal Demarcation Legislation in 1998. Hence, this has put the area on an advantageous position in terms of service access (Cross, 2002). Service delivery here is reliant on the efficacy of the eThekwini Municipality, traditional authorities, the Valley Trust and Community Based Organizations (CBOs) (Valley Trust Survey, 2001). Hence this chapter discusses this to show the efficacy of these institutions especially eThekwini Municipality in using Integrated Development Plan to facilitate service delivery. The aim is to show the extent to which eThekwini Municipality has facilitated the same to refine a social and economic context of KwaNyuswa. This will be done in three sections as the first presents a regional and local context, whilst the second discusses the background leading to a status quo analysis.

4.1 Geographical Location

4.1.1 Regional Context

KwaNyuswa is located in the Outer-west of the eThekwini Municipality as shown in Map: 1 on page 41. EThekwini is strategically located on the South East Coast of Africa and is the major port city of the Southern Africa (Jukuda, 2010).

4.1.2 Local Context

The municipality has one hundred and three ward communities and Kwanyuswa is the second ward in this setting. KwaNyuswa lies on the extreme outer fringes on the west of Inanda Dam and north-west of Pinetown, about 35 kilometers by road from the Durban city centre (Cross, 2002). KwaNyuswa is one of the largest settlements in the Thousand Hills, and occupies most of the central high ground between the Umngeni and Umlazi

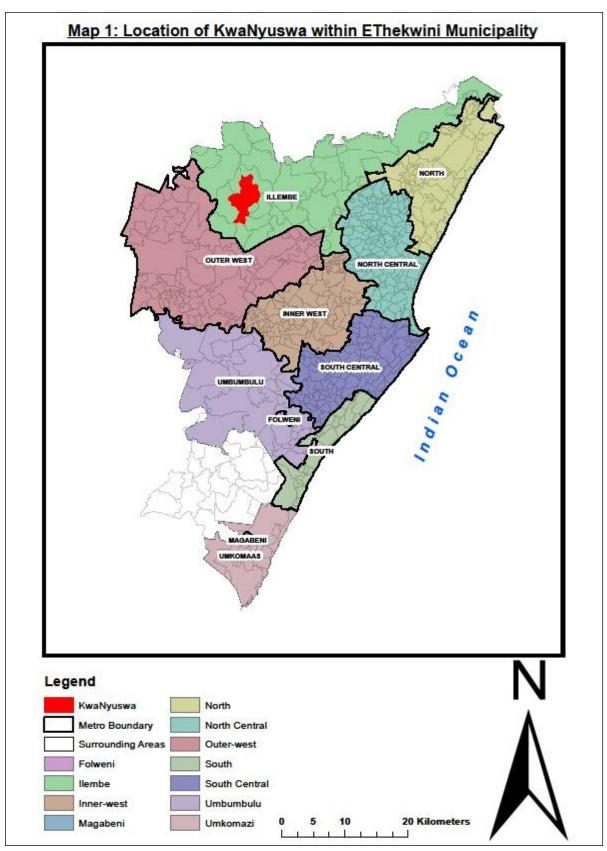
39

Rivers. To the south is emaQadini, another relatively advantaged Tribal Authority, to the east lies KwaNgcolosi, and north across the Umngeni is emaPhepheteni, a somewhat more remote Traditional Authority (Cross, 2002). Further to the west and south are white-owned farms and small farming towns along the Pietermaritzburg transport corridor, now changing over to a tourism economy and a more suburban identity. Immediately south are the nearest urban areas such as Botha's Hill and Hillcrest, growing rapidly with a developing tourist trade. Further southern west is the Shongweni Area with its economy of racing, horse farming and tourism.

4.2 Historical Background

KwaNyuswa was formerly part of the KwaZulu-homeland a territory set aside as a black settlement after apartheid policies were implemented (Cross, 2002). This has left the area poorly planned with poor access to services and economic opportunities therefore residents are forced to travel to reach employment centres. In the 1990s for example, road building was the first potential development which was mainly for Botha's Hill Area the closest neighbouring settlement in the south. However, communities took advantage of such development as they were using it to travel to nearby cities such as Pinetown and Durban (Cross, 2002).

Service delivery gathered speed during this period and is now advanced in the southern part of eMaQadini which is another relatively advantaged Tribal Authority of KwaNyuswa (Cross, 2002). In 1991, Valley Trust "the private institute" facilitated development and supported local communities with short term employment opportunities to alleviate poverty. Hence in 1996 the area became part of the eThekwini Municipality. Against this backdrop, the municipality was by law required to plan and develop the area. Integrated Development Plan was seen as the panacea to integrate KwaNyuswa into the mainstream economy of the municipality. It is to this effect that the following presents the status quo to show the present economic profile of the area



Source: Researcher's Construct, 2013

4.3 Situational Analysis

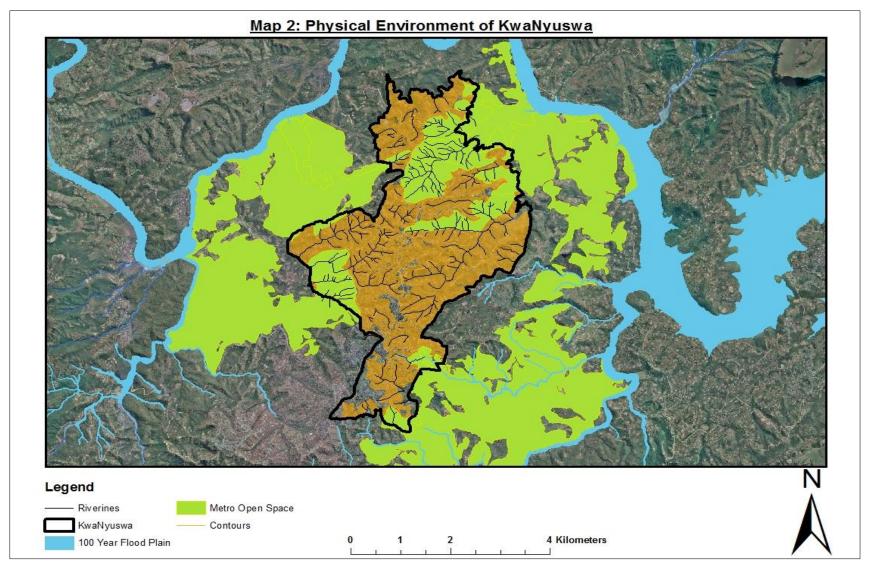
4.3.1 Physical Character of KwaNyuswa

KwaNyuswa has the steep divided and number of hills, terrains and watercourses lying on the vacant land. It is covered by a large proportion of Metro Open Space and riverines which extend from KwaXimba in the Outer-west, a remote Traditional Authority which is now a peri-urban context and reaches KwaNyuswa. The orientation of countours on Map: 2 on page 43 best encapsulate the topography of KwaNyuswa. The current level of infrastructure "social and utility" is presented below.

4.3.2 Population

KwaNyuswa has a total population of 34, 750 with 46% being Male and 54% female. Females make up 18, 723 whilst males 16, 027 of the total population (EThekwini Community Profile, 2011-2016). The literacy group is about 12, 367 people who amounts to 44%. The illiteracy group is about 22, 383 people who account for 56% (EThekwini Community Profile, 2011-2016). The young who range from 0 to 14 years constitutes 39% whilst the elder from 15 to 65 years amounts to 61% (EThekwini Community Profile, 2011-2016).

Predominantly, these are Africans who contribute 100% of the total population. Nevertheless, it is important to note that KwaNyuswa continues to attract outsiders for easy access to adjacent areas such as Hillcrest and Pinetown. This means that the researcher cannot predict the sustainability of the above demographics in few years to come. The current demographic is outlined in figure 1 on page 44. This depicts percentages of the total number of males and females from 0 to 65 years of age in KwaNyuswa.



Source: Researcher's Construct, 2013

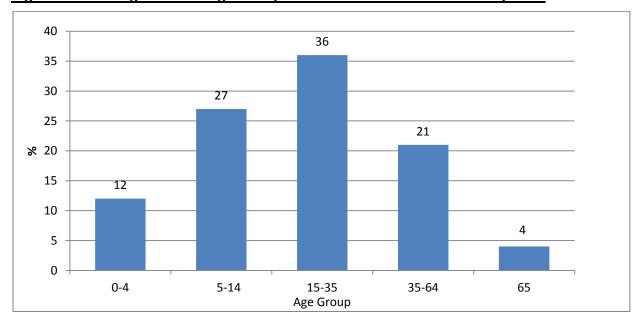


Figure 1: Showing Different Age Group of Males and Females in KwaNyuswa

Source: SA Census Data (2011 Cited in eThekwini Community Profile, 2011-2016)

4.3.3 Socio-Economic Profile

The socio-economic statistics of the South African Census of 2011 demystify the claim that KwaNyuswa is with limited access to economic opportunities and that the area has not developed economically. For example, about 82% of households in KwaNyuswa earn not more than R19, 500 per annum and these are 5, 248 households (eThekwini Community Profile, 2011-2016). The remaining 18% earn between R19, 201 to R76, 801 and these are 1, 183 households (eThekwini Community Profile, 2011-2016). Typically, KwaNyuswa has 3, 508 people who are employed and these account for 17% of the total population. The unemployed contribute to 30% whilst the not economically active amount to 53% (eThekwini Community Profile, 2011-2016). This is presented on figure 2 and 3 on page 45 to 46. Henceforth, lack of economic opportunities in KwaNyuswa has resulted localities to retort to agriculture and other livelihood strategies as presented below.

4.4 Community Livelihood Strategies

4.4.1 Agriculture

In KwaNyuswa agriculture like in many rural communities is the main source for livelihood. Most households here cultivate home gardens. These gardens are about 500m²/per hectare and contribute significantly to food security (Cross, 2002). It is estimated that some households cultivate up to 10 000m² in order to harvest more food (Integrated Planning Services et al, 1993). Agriculture has been and is still an important sector for livelihood and both men and women regard it as the main livelihood strategy to support their families.

4.4.2 Rural Service Centre

Others rely on private businesses such as tuck shops and informal trading stores to sustain themselves and overcome income poverty. Mini tuck shops have become an alternative against poverty and challenges of unemployment. Photo: 1 on page 47 is an example of a local trading store which serves as a service centre where communities shop.

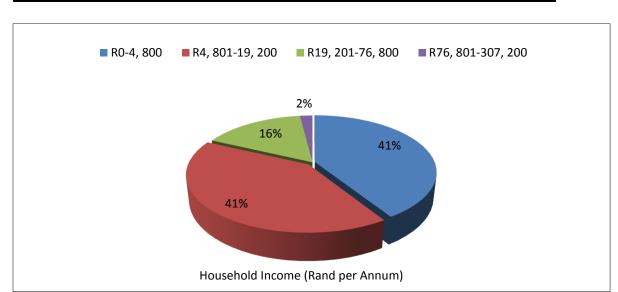


Figure 2: Showing Household Income Status of the Population of KwaNyuswa

Source: SA Census Data (2011 cited in eThekwini Community Profile, 2011-2016)

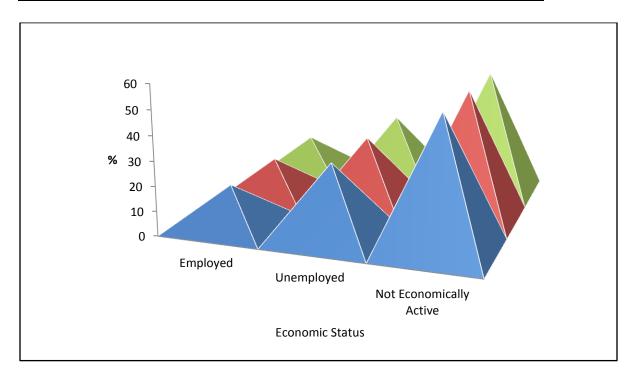


Figure 3: Showing the Employment Status of the Population of KwaNyuswa

Source: SA Census Data (2011 cited in eThekwini Community Profile, 2011-2016)

4.4.3 Rural Industrial Node

KwaNyuswa has one local textile industry well known as "KwaJobha" (refer to job). Although this firm is privately-owned, it promotes Local Economic Development (LED) in the area as the majority of local communities especially women are working at this firm. The spatial location of this firm has been advantageous particularly to women who do not travel long distance to work. Nevertheless, the transportation in the area supports the movement of people to nearby areas such as Hillcrest and Pinetown for economic opportunities.

Photo 1: Rural Service Center-KwaSondela Trading Store



Source: Researcher's Construct (2011)

4.6 Social Services

4.6.1 Educational Institutions

The area has one high school which is Siyajabula High School. Communities also study on four neighboring schools namely Mathebethu Primary School, Maqhutshana High School, St Lawrence Primary School, Umphumela Primary School, Myameni High School and Mbanana Zenex Primary School in the northern east of the study area. These and their distribution are shown on Map 3 on page 51. Most of these schools were built as a result of the sponsorship programme by private companies such as the Old Mutual. Further Education and Training (FET) College is also available as part of a service delivery strategy by government. This institute is called "Elangeni" referring to

sun. Its aim is to increase the opportunity for the local youth to improve their skills, knowledge and develop their talents. Photo: 2 is such a college in the context of KwaNyuswa.

Photo 2: Elangeni Collage-Qadi Campus



Source: Photo by Researcher (2011)

4.6.2 Recreational Facilities

KwaNyuswa has one sports field known as KwaManqoba which was built predominantly for communities as reflected in Map: 2 (Valley Trust Survey, 2001). However, due to

severe threats as a result of heavy rains, KwaManqoba sport facility is no longer functional therefore most young men and women from Emabedlana, Thusumuntu, Mkholombe and Eskhelekehleni are forced to use KwaNyuswa Primary School Sports field to engage in sport tournaments. KwaNyuswa Primary School Sport field was built mainly for primary school learners from the Esilindile and KwaNyuswa Primary School. However, because of the prevailing rural service delivery backlog, it is also used by communities to engage in sports. Photo: 3 depict KwaNyuswa Primary School Sport Field.

Photo 3: KwaNyuswa Primary School Sport Field



Source: www.welcomewozani.com

4.6.3 Community Hall

The capacity and distribution of social services such as community halls in the area has not taken place to date. KwaNyuswa has no community halls. The available halls such as Qadi and Bambanani Ekuphumuleni Hall do not belong to the community. These halls were built by a group of men and women who are members of "Umasgcwabisane" referring to funeral federation.

4.6.4 Welfare Service Centre

The area has access to welfare service centres such as Phuzingqondo Training Centre, Thokomala and Ikhayalobomi service centre a Non-Governmental Organization. Both Thokomala and Ikhayalobomi provide emotional support to orphans and vulnerable children while Phuzingqondo is mainly for youth who engage in socio-cultural activities such as Isicathamiya and local gospel music (Cross, 2002). These centres have put KwaNyuswa onto the map for potential tourists (Valley Trust Survey, 2001).

4.6.5 Community Health Care

KwaNyuswa has access to a number of community-level AIDS services such as hospices and orphan care facilities namely Ekuphileni and KwaMamuphuthu (well known as Jerusalem) which are located nearby the area. The staff from these facilities also gives advice and try to help patients and their families to access grants and support services and they are reported as sometimes distributing food parcels to poor AIDS-affected households (Cross, 2002). Despite the availability of health care facilities such as hospices and orphan care facilities in the area, KwaNyuswa and its surrounding areas continues to depend on one clinic to access medical assistance.

4.6.6 Road Network

KwaNyuswa has one major distributor road called Manqoba which gives preferential access to nearby cities such as Pinetown and Durban. This road development served the massive water pipes crossing the former African reserves, running east from the

reservoirs and dams built in the area to supply bulk water for metro Durban (Cross, 2002). Minor access routes connect from the local distributor road and they provide access to "Izigodi" known as community ward sections. KwaNyusswa Local Are roads are shown on Map: 3 on page 52.

4.6.7 Housing

Apart from the Mandela Park Reconstruction and Development Programme houses which were built by eThekwini Municipality Housing Department in Qadi Area another relatively advantaged Tribal Authority adjacent to KwaNyuswa, RDP houses accounts for 0% in KwaNyuswa. About 62% of the population owns traditional houses and these are 3,765 households (eThekwini Community Profile, 2011-2016). The 98 households own informal houses and these account for 2%. The remaining 36% are people who own formal houses. Figure: 4 synopsize the above for easy reference.

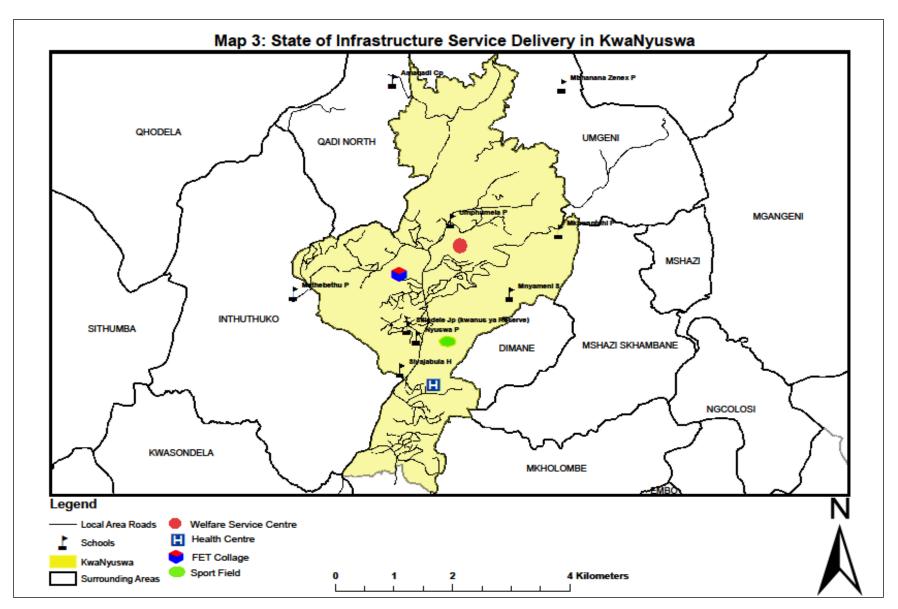
RDP Houses Informal 0% 2%

Formal 36%

Traditional 62%

Figure 4: Dwelling Types: KwaNyuswa

Source: SA Census Data (2011 Cited in eThekwini Community Profile, 2011-2016



Source: Researcher's Construct, 2013

4.7 Utility Infrastructure

4.7.1 Electricity

KwaNyuswa has about 3, 209 households with access to electricity and this account for 52% of the total population (eThekwini Community Profile, 2011-2016). In the context of KwaNyuswa, eThekwini Municipality Electricity Department serves as the main sector who supplies volts to residences and local tuck shops. The remaining 48% of households are without electricity (eThekwini Community Profile, 2011-16).

4.7.2 Water

KwaNyuswa has about 42% of households who can access to water within their households whilst 2% travel 200 meters to access water (eThekwini Community Profile, 2011-2016). Herein, water remains an important feature and contribute significant to home based gardens since agriculture serves as a livelihood strategy (see section 4.4.1).

4.7.3 Sanitation

KwaNyuswa has about 151 households who have access to flush toilets. This amounts to 3% of the total population whilst 1% has access to refuse disposal (eThekwini Community Profile, 2011-2016). Based on observation, the researcher argues that enormous attention is providing Urine Diversion Toilets (UDTs) in the area. Figure: 5 on page 55 illustrate the profile of aforesaid services.

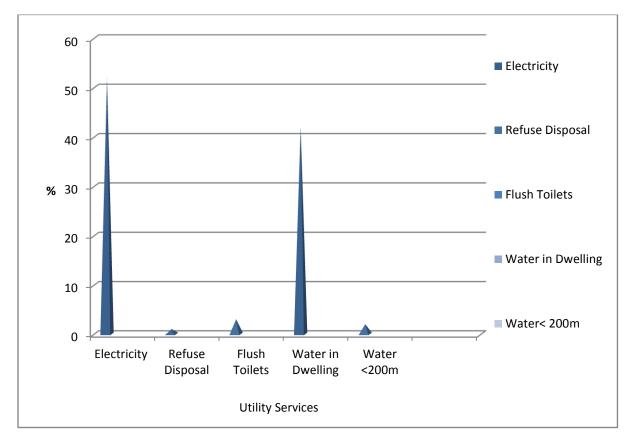


Figure 5: Utility Services: KwaNyuswa

Source: SA Census Data (2011 Cited in eThekwini Community Profile, 2011)

4.8 Institutional Profile

KwaNyuswa has about 50% of the areas referred to as "izigodi" which are under tribal authorities (Integrated Development Plan, 2011/2012). Herein, traditional authorities are tasked to undertake processes of "ukubekwa" referring to land allocation and approve developments which do not compromise "imisimu" referring to agricultural areas; "amagcwaba" referring to ritual sensitive areas and or destroy a strong knit relationship among families. EThekwini Municipality has to ensure that it does not compromise any of the above whenever development is to take place. This is done in consultation with communities and authorities to decide whether or not the proposed development is accepted. Whilst not undermining the current governance system under a chiefship in KwaNyuswa, it is important to note the efficacy of the Valley Trust and Community Based Organisations (CBOs) on the status quo of the area. The Valley Trust offers

poverty relief programs especially to unemployed and it works together with CBOs such as the helping Hand Organisation and "KwaMamuphuthu" referring to Jerusalem. These offer capacity development programmes set within a framework of health promotion to facilitate collective community action (Valley Trust Survey, 2001). The Valley trust and CBOs have expanded their role to partner with primary, secondary and high schools to support youth and children regarding food security, Family Care, Economic Security and HIV/AIDS Programs (Valley Trust Survey, 2001). Not only do they promote human capital but service distribution such as food parcels and clothing to the poor. This has a positive implication to poverty alleviation and the municipality is working consistent with these objectives. The following chapter discusses the extent to which eThekwini Municipality has facilitated infrastructure service delivery in KwaNyuswa.

4.9 Chapter Summary

Kwanyuswa is located in the Outer-west region along the National Route (N3) of the EThekwini Metropolitan Area (EMA). It was formerly part of the KwaZulu-homeland a territory set aside as a black settlement after apartheid policies were implemented (Cross, 2002). The area has a total population of 36, 755 with 46% being Male and 54% female. The socio-economic character of the area still needs attention from local government. In a total population of 36, 755 only 3, 508 people who are employed and these account for 17% of the total population (eThekwini Community Profile, 2011). Many have retort to different livelihood strategies such as agriculture, home based gardens, community tuck shops and rural service centres (Cross, 2002). The area has about 50% of areas referred to as "izigodi" which are under tribal authorities (Integrated Development Plan, 2011/2012). Therefore, this research wants to ascertain challenges faced by the eThekwini Municipality to improving the status quo of the area.

Chapter Five: Results and Analysis

5.0 Introduction

This research set out to evaluate how the Integrated Development Planning (IDP) has been used as a tool for improving infrastructure service delivery in historically disadvantaged communities. This chapter presents the results of the research and analysis of the findings. The chapter comprises three sections. The first examines the extent to which integrated development planning has been used to facilitate infrastructure service delivery in KwaNyuswa. The second discusses key development challenges that are currently faced by the eThekwini Municipality in its attempts to facilitate service delivery in KwaNyuswa. The third presents strategies that can be used by the eThekwini Municipality to improve infrastructure delivery in KwaNyuswa.

5.1 Understanding the Role of Integrated Development Planning in KwaNyuswa

In a quest to understand the extent to which eThekwini Municipality has facilitated service delivery in KwaNyuswa, planners were asked to mention development indicators in the context of service delivery. One planner indicated that eThekwini is still faced by a challenge of achieving rural development and decentralizing growth and service delivery in communities such as KwaNyuswa. This has been shown in the case study presented in Section 3.3. To this end, the researcher was interested in knowing what informs the distribution of services in the eThekwini Municipality. Senior professional planners interviewed indicated that service delivery in eThekwini is guided and informed by a social facility's model. They highlighted that this helps the municipality to identify and map infrastructure services across the city. Hence since the municipality operates under time constraints, planners indicated that it is flexible to use this model since it assists the municipality to locate suitable if not potential places to deliver infrastructure. In so doing, planners maintained that the municipality manages to select areas with high concentration of social and economic opportunities.

The researcher argues in contrast that this model results urban areas to be the target of development due to their well capacity in infrastructure, transportation and agglomeration of businesses. The researcher critiques the model by having principles of the Growth Pole and Industrial Location Theory which stress that in order to ensure sustainable infrastructure, service providers need to locate well developed areas to maximize profit and expand services on existing developments (Perroux, 1955). This idealism pays more attention on the carrying capacity and suitability of an area to deliver infrastructure.

Nevertheless, planners indicated other interventions which have taken place since the advent of eThekwini IDP in 1996. One planner stated that between 2002 and 2003, a Rural Development Framework was formed and adopted as an integrating strategy for Rural Area Based Management (RABM) in consultation with communities and tribal authority structures to establish the needs faced by KwaNyuswa. He highlighted that this aimed at understanding the socio-economic and infrastructural context of the area. As a result, it was found that KwaNyuswa is deeply engulfed by the high rate of poverty and unemployment. According to an IDP manager, a vision statement was formulated therefore in a quest to facilitate infrastructure service delivery in the area. He argued that infrastructure became a priority amongst Local Economic Development (LED) projects for KwaNyuswa.

These included Siyaphambili Road Maintenance and Intuthuko Water and Sanitation Projects. A planner who facilitated these projects indicated that rural household women were the main targets of these projects. He argued that their role was to maintain a 500 meter stretch of road and the municipality was paying them according to the number of hours worked. KwaNyuswa ward committee members indicated that communities are grateful for such projects as they manage to earn income and support their families. The researcher argues that the problem with these projects is that they exist as part of the Expanding Public Work Programmes (EPWP) which emphasizes short-term unskilled employments. Hence, this does not guarantee communities to become competent for formal economy.

In the case study of Brazil for example, the researcher did indicate the importance of education in closing the gap between the first and the second economy, hence eThekwini can learn and benefit from this approach to achieving rural development. Furthermore, in terms of facilitating services in the area, ward committee members indicated that a lot is still need to be done to addressing people's needs on service delivery. Ward committee members indicated that communities could be grateful if the council could provide community halls, proper road networks, business centres and sport facilities to name the few. This is due to that the available halls are privately-owned as discussed in section 4.6.3 while on the other hand communities use the local Primary School Sport facility to engage in sports tournaments. The same was built mainly for primary school learners to engage in sports but absent of alternatives leaves communities with no choice but to compete over one sport facility with learners (see section 4.6.2).

Furthermore, ward committee members made mention of a continuous access to water as a challenge. As much as statistics presented on figure: 5 on page 55 indicate 42% of households with water in dwelling and 2% of households who travel 200 meters to access water, ward committee members did critique the feasibility of this as a challenge. The local Councillor's Secretary indicated that this is driven by lack of partnership between eThekwini Municipality Departments. She indicated that eThekwini Water and Road Department have not yet agreed on one measure to build a community reservoir. As a result, this has made a continuous access to water becoming a challenge. Based on this experience, the researcher argues that there is a disjuncture between what the IDP regards as partnership with practice. In the literature review for example, the researcher indicated that effective partnership contribute to improving the structure of an organization leading to a responsive service delivery (see section 2.2.4). However, this seems to lack in the eThekwini Municipality when it comes to implementation. Some researchers such as Hlela (2013) critique eThekwini IDP as a silent if not elusive approach to service delivery.

During the seminar on Mapping Water and Sanitation Services in the Low-Income Areas of KwaNyuswa, Valley of 1000 Hill, she highlighted many incidences that have occurred regarding services delivery in KwaNyuswa. She indicated that in 2008 communities engaged on a protest against the local councillor to challenge the poor sustainability of water and the closing of "KwaJobha" the local textile industry and Ikhayalobomi a community welfare center discussed in Section 4.4.3 and 4.6.4. This was due to lack of funding and the interest from the municipality to support the same (Hlela, 2013). According to Hlela (2013) this resulted to the second protest in 2009. Not undermining the above, Hlela (2013) also critiqued the approach that eThekwini Municipality is using to facilitate service delivery. She made reference to a 2010 planning intervention that was taken by the council to provide Urine Diversion Toilets (UDTs) in KwaNyuswa.

Herein, she agreed that communities were given and educated to use UDTs however this did not form part of local service needs (Hlela, 2013). According to ward committee members, communities were not consulted regarding the provision of UDTs but due to limited opportunities, they have accepted them. At present, some use UDTs for business purposes as they to sell feaces to fertilizers (Hlela, 2013). Photo: 4 on page 61 is an example of a UDT. Not only does this contribute to challenges to be addressed in KwaNyuswa, however ward committee members also raised concerns on the absent of housing delivery. They suggested a one RDP house per site approach as could be ideal as far as housing demands are pressing in the area. Based on observation, the researcher agrees that there is no evidence of RDP houses in KwaNyuswa (see section 4.6.7).

5.2 Key Development Challenges to Improve Infrastructure in KwaNyuswa

This section identifies challenges that are currently faced by the EThekwini Municipality to facilitating infrastructure service delivery in KwaNyuswa. Planners were asked to identify such constraints. They made mention of environmental, institutional, social and financial factors as contributing to poor service delivery in KwaNyuswa. The first part of this section discusses the environmental and the second institutional whilst the third social and financial factors.

Photo 4: Urine Diversion Toilet



Source: eThekwini Municipality, 2011

5.2.1 Environmental Factors

For various reasons, the natural environmental context may determine the possibilities for infrastructure development in any setting (Duminy, 2007). To verify this, a practitioner from the eThekwini Rural ABM made mention of a steep topography as one of the factors which contribute to delays on infrastructure provision KwaNyuswa. Equally of relevance, the nature of contours on Map: 2 best illustrates the topography of KwaNyuswa (see page 43). According to a planner, this causes reluctance from taking a bold step and direct bulk infrastructure such as housing in the area. To this end, ward committee members indicated that this result to conflicts between the social and environmental needs given that KwaNyuswa Communities are oblivious of such factors. It seems rugged terrain constrains development. But despite this, planners insisted that

resolving social and environmental conflict is not a challenge faced by eThekwini Municipality only but by the planning fraternity at large. Hence it is from this perspective that the researcher agrees that the natural environment may be the challenge to fast-track service delivery in the area.

5.2.2 Institutional Factors

Hadgson (2006) defines institutions as formal or informal structures which can allow or constrain development in a social realm. In the context of KwaNyuswa, Izinduna and Amakhosi referring to traditional authorities are considered as institutions given that development in KwaNyuswa is completely reliant on the efficacy of the same as discussed in Section 4.8. Izinduna are responsible to facilitate land allocation in about 50% of land under their jurisdiction. In this regard, planners indicated that Izinduna do not involve them nor request planning expertise to guide land allocation. As a result, this promote erratic if not a sprawling settlement in KwaNyuswa. Hence it becomes difficult for the municipality to provide services in an area with scattered development. The local Councillor's Secretary added that land allocation here is driven by money instead of a working relationship between eThekwini Planners and local institutions. Not only did she mention a weak partnership between the latter but she further critiqued the same between Amakhosi and politicians. She indicated that most often, Amakhosi are always excluded when KwaNyuswa Local Councillor presents IDP to the community. As a result, Amakhosi feel undermined and prevent developments on lands under their jurisdictions. One planner indicated that the municipality ends up playing a coordinating role to resolving conflicts between politicians and traditional authorities. He stated that this creates a negative image to the municipality since it becomes liable and criticized for delays whilst resolving conflicts.

5.2.3 Social and Financial Factors

KwaNyuswa is also characterized by challenges related to illiteracy (Valley Trust Survey, 2001). The area has about 12, 367 people who can read and write and these account for 44% whilst 56% are illiteracy. These constitute to 22, 383 people of the total

population (see section 4.3.1) (eThekwini Community Profile, 2011-2016). Against this backdrop, a development practitioner indicated that lack of people's knowledge result them not being able to start their own businesses and this makes it difficult for the municipality to initiate development projects to reduce unemployment in the area. She added that their income status also determines the type of services that the community receives. She highlighted lack of people's ability to pay municipal rates as one of the stimulus that determines the type of facilities to be delivered in each household. Likewise, the latest census of 2011 shows that KwaNyuswa has only 1% of households who have access to refuse disposal and only 3% use flush toilets (see section 4.7). A planner indicated that this is due to inability of households to pay municipal rate and as such it can be costly for the council to introduce modern utilities in KwaNyuswa.

The eThekwini Chief Policy Analyst added more information on budgeting. He indicated that in 2002, eThekwini Municipality received a maximum of R5 billion in a quest to ensure service delivery in the Outer-west areas such as KwaNyuswa, KwaXimba and Hammarsdale. Amongst the three regions, Hammarsdale is the only settlement that has just received planning initiatives. The researcher was interested in understanding as to why KwaNyuswa was not part of such an opportunity. As a result, it was vague as to how the money is being spent. The researcher argues that as much as the former is driven by budget constraint factors, the municipality still needs to broaden service delivery to also cover KwaNyuswa.

5.3 Strategies to Improving Infrastructure delivery in KwaNyuswa

The researcher asked the planners to identify solutions to the development challenges faced by KwaNyuswa. One planner suggested a rural planning scheme as the first solution to problems related to slow delivery in KwaNyuswa. He defined a scheme as a legal document that is the basis for assessing and determining proposals for the use and development of land. In the context of KwaNyuswa, he suggested that this can work in guiding and controlling the manner in which local authorities facilitate land allocation. Other planners agreed that this could be a useful and significant guide for Izinduna and Amakhosi in land allocation. The IDP manager added that this cannot take

powers from traditional authorities rather they can refer to guidelines in the scheme to conduct land allocation.

He argued that a scheme could results developments that follow a formal pattern and this could reduce expenditure since it can be less expensive for the municipality to deliver. Based on observation, the researcher agrees that the scheme is relevant in KwaNyuswa since houses are located on steep topography and do not follow a formal pattern. It seems fragmented development is also a result of the rugged terrain in KwaNyuswa (see Map: 2).

Furthermore, the IDP manager suggested an affordable service delivery strategy as the basis of improving services in KwaNyuswa. He believes that this can avail reasonable services such as mobile clinics, community halls, recreational facilities and state houses which are absent in KwaNyuswa. Planners stated that this can target rural households who earn less than R1, 600 per month and the municipal ward profile can be used to identify such households. In so doing, the goal to improving services can be achieved. Moreover, the human capital development was suggested as the third strategy that can be used to enhance service delivery in KwaNyuswa. Planners indicated that the introduction of this could benefit localities especially women who are currently involved in agriculture (see section 4.4.1). According to the eThekwini IDP (2011), human capital development programmes aims to create platforms for growth and promote innovative approaches of governance towards service delivery so that all citizens could be able to engage actively in the economic activities of the municipality.

Therefore in KwaNyuswa, this could be beneficial mainly to women who work on Local Economic Development projects namely Siyaphambili Road Maintenance and Intuthuko Water and Sanitation Projects. According to a development practitioner, this could enhance their skills and become competent for the market. The researcher agrees that the proposed strategy is of relevance in KwaNyuswa particularly because many communities lack knowledge to start businesses as discussed above.

Finally, planners also suggested a nodal development approach as an effective option for KwaNyuswa. They argued that this is an appropriate model to strengthen service

delivery whilst avoiding the wastage of municipal resources. According to Pillay (2007) a nodal development approach adopts the principle of continuity by expanding service delivery from the existing development. In so doing, municipal resources are prevented from wastage since this links services from existing structures. Therefore a planner indicated that this could promote integrated development in the area. The advantages of an integrated development are that it contributes to a sustainable neighborhood and is used to foster adequate infrastructure in closer proximity (Allebiosu, 2005). Nodal developments have been a success in addressing scatter developments on peri-urban areas such as KwaXimba. Henceforth, this needs to be tested in KwaNyuswa to discourage erratic infrastructure development.

5.4 Chapter Summary

This research sought to examine how the Integrated Development Planning (IDP) has been used as a tool for improving infrastructure service delivery in the context of KwaNyuswa. This chapter comprised three sections. The first section attempted to understand the role of the integrated development planning in the context of infrastructure service delivery in KwaNyuswa. The aim was to comprehend service delivery models that are used by the eThekwini Municipality to facilitate infrastructure service delivery. It has been found that the municipality is using a social facility's model which is consistent with the implications of the Growth Pole and Industrial Location Theory to infrastructure development. To this end, the researcher discussed integrated development planning strategies that has been used to address the infrastructure service delivery backlog in KwaNyuswa.

These strategies comprised the Rural Development Framework (RDF) and Local Economic Development (LED) strategy. In so doing, the researcher has managed to determine the successes and failures of the IDP on service delivery in KwaNyuswa. The second section discussed challenges that are currently faced by the eThekwini Municipality in its attempt to facilitate infrastructure service delivery in KwaNyuswa. The researcher found that these challenges comprise environmental, social, financial and institution factors. The third section discussed strategies that can be used to enhance

infrastructure in KwaNyuswa. These comprised a rural planning scheme, the affordable service delivery strategy, human capital development programme and nodal development strategy.

Chapter Six: Summary of Findings, Conclusions and Recommendations

6.0 Introduction

This chapter presents a summary of the research findings. It is made up of four sections. The first summarizes the results of the research, the second presents the conclusions of the research findings, the third argues lessons learnt in the study and the fourth provides recommendations on Integrated Development Planning (IDP).

6.1 Summary of Findings

The broader objective of this research was to examine how the integrated development planning has been used as a tool for improving infrastructure service delivery in historically disadvantaged communities. The aim was to examine the extent to which the IDP has been used to facilitate infrastructure provision in KwaNyuswa. It was found that eThekwini Municipality is still faced by a challenge of achieving a balanced development between rural and urban areas in the context of service delivery. Planners interviewed indicated that the delivery of infrastructure largely depends on social facility's model to distribute infrastructure within the city. This helps the municipality to map and identify potential places with high concentration of social and economic opportunities. Indeed, this is cost effective for the municipality in its approach to provide services as they connect from already existing services (eThekwini Municipality, 2010). Urban areas are always benefitting due to their well capacity in infrastructure, transportation and agglomeration of businesses.

The researcher critiques the model by having principles of the Growth Pole and Industrial Location Theory which stress that in order to ensure sustainable infrastructure, service providers need to locate well developed areas to maximize profit and expand services on existing developments (Perroux, 1955). This idealism pays more attention on the carrying capacity and suitability of an area to deliver infrastructure.

Nevertheless, the municipality has through it IDP attempted to decentralize development in a form of Local Economic Development Projects in KwaNyuswa. This followed a Rural Development Framework which was formed and adopted in 2002 as an integrated development strategy for peri-urban areas. The LED projects introduced included Siyaphambili Road Maintenance and Intuthuko Water and Sanitation Projects. A planner who facilitated these projects indicated that rural household women were the main targets of these projects and they were educated and given skills and knowledge to participate on these projects. In a focus group discussion, community leaders indicated that communities are grateful for such projects as they manage to earn income and support their families.

The municipal officials added that such LED projects are an integral part of the IDP strategy to mitigate poverty and unemployment which are deeply entrenched in KwaNyuswa. Community leaders added that a lot is still need to be done to addressing people's needs on service delivery. They argued that communities could be grateful if the council could provide community halls, proper road networks, business centres and sport facilities to name the few. For example, the available community halls are privately-owned on the other hand communities use the local Primary School Sport facility to engage in sports tournaments. The same was built mainly for primary school learners to engage in sports but the absent of alternatives leaves communities with no choice but to compete over one sport facility with learners from primary school.

To a large extent the municipality has successfully managed to provide communities with water and electricity since 1996 up to now in KwaNyuswa. The area has about 3, 209 households with access to electricity and this account for 52% of the total population (eThekwini Community Profile, 2011-2016). Communities with access to water in dwellings amount to 42% whilst 2% travel about 200 meters to access water (eThekwini Community Profile, 2011-2016). Despite this success, community leaders highlighted a continuous access to water as a challenge in the area. The local Councillors Administrative Officer added that this is driven by lack of partnership between eThekwini Municipality Departments. She indicated that eThekwini Water and

Road Department have not yet agreed on one measure to build a community reservoir.

As a result, this has made a continuous access to water becoming a challenge.

Some researchers such as Hlela (2013) critique the approach that eThekwini Municipality is using to facilitate service delivery. She made reference to a 2010 planning intervention that was taken by the council to provide Urine Diversion Toilets (UDTs) in KwaNyuswa. She agreed that communities were given and educated to use UDTs however this did not form part of the local service needs (Hlela, 2013). According to ward committee members, communities were not consulted regarding the provision of UDTs but due to limited opportunities, they have accepted them. At present, some use UDTs for business purposes as they to sell feaces to fertilizers (Hlela, 2013). Based on observation and experience, the researcher has noted that UDTs are not being used. Instead some households use them as store rooms to put old material. Not only does this contribute to infrastructure backlog in KwaNyuswa but housing development.

KwaNyuswa has not benefitted from the government policy adopted on Reconstruction and Development Pragramme (RDP). No RDP houses have been constructed with the assistance from the municipality. This has been confirmed through observation, experiential knowledge and interviews. In terms of roads and transportation network, the researcher has established that KwaManqoba main distributor road has been built and upgraded by the help of the council. However, about 70% of roads which connect from KwaManqoba Road to sub-settlements called "Izigodi" have not been upgraded. This is contrary to intentions of the IDP and Outer-West Spatial Development Plan (OWSDP) which is to upgrade transportation and network system in peri-urban areas such as Kwanyuswa.

Against this backdrop, planners were asked to identify the key development challenges that are currently faced by the eThekwini Municipality in its attempt to accelerate infrastructure provision in KwaNyuswa. It was found that service delivery in KwaNyuswa is being delayed due to the nature of topography of the area. For example, the area has steep divided and number of hills, terrains and watercourses lying on the vacant land (Cross, 2002). Hence, it is covered by a large proportion of Metro Open Space and riverines. Map: 2 on page 44 best encapsulate the latter. Planners interviewed indicated

that it is cost to service an area with such terrain. Equally, they added that most land in the area is under traditional authorities such as Izinduna and Amakhosi who control development herein. About 50% of land falls under their jurisdiction. Planners raised concern that Izinduna do not involve them nor request planning expertise to guide land allocation. As a result, this promote erratic if not a sprawling settlement in KwaNyuswa. Hence it becomes difficult for the municipality to provide services in an area with a scattered development. KwaNyuswa is also characterized by challenges related to illiteracy (Valley Trust Survey, 2001). Therefore, lack of people's knowledge result them not being able to start their own businesses and this makes it difficult for the municipality to initiate development projects to reduce unemployment in the area. Based on the interviews with municipal officials, the study revealed that KwaNyuswa has not been prioritized in budget for infrastructure. The budget allocation has focused on greater local areas such as Inanda, KwaXimba and Mpumalanga-Hammarsdale which have received developments compared to KwaNyuswa.

In addition, planners were asked to propose strategies that can best work to improving infrastructure in KwaNyuswa. These included a rural planning scheme, human capital development Programmes, affordable service delivery strategies and nodal developments. A rural planning scheme was proposed as a solution to rural sprawl which is currently facilitated by traditional authorities through poor land allocation. As such, planners suggested that a scheme could be a useful and significant guide to control development in KwaNyuswa. The IDP manager suggested an affordable service delivery strategy as the basis of improving services in KwaNyuswa. He argued that this could target rural households who earn less than R1, 600 per month and the municipal ward profile can be used to identify such households. Affordable services could include mobile clinics since the area has one local clinic (see Map: 3). The CDW added that the provision of water tanks could also be part of this strategy since affordability remains a challenge because of poverty which is endemic in KwaNyuswa.

6.2 Conclusion

In relation to this research objective which is to determine the extent to which IDP has been used to facilitate infrastructure service delivery in KwaNyuswa, the researcher concludes by stressing the need for partnership between eThekwini Municipality, communities of KwaNyuswa and the Valley Trust which has been and still providing services such as water and roads in Kwanyuswa. While not undermining the role of eThekwini Municipality, it is important to acknowledge that the Valley Trust has a long history of promoting socio-economic development and encouraging infrastructure service delivery in KwaNyuswa. It also contains a deep understanding of the aspirations and pressing challenges that are currently facing the local poor. Therefore, a working partnership amongst the aforementioned stakeholders will therefore facilitate rural service delivery process that is community-oriented. Equally, the former will stimulate a responsive and effective IDP approach. Furthermore, with regard to the challenges that are currently faced by the eThekwini Municipality in a quest to accelerate service delivery in KwaNyuswa, the researcher concludes by arguing that new measures such as Rural Spatial Development Framework and Rural Land Use Management System (LUMS) are essential in the eThekwini IDP.

One believes that this will broaden the scope of the IDP to also cover rural and periurban areas in their development projects. The researcher found that SDFs are prepared to expand on existing potential nodes. Therefore, IDPs tend to promote conventional planning for economic purposes and areas such as KwaNyuswa are always isolated since investing therein does not guarantee economic development. In that regard, the adoption of a rural SDF will force the municipality to prepare and involve rural areas in IDPs and planning processes. Furthermore, with regard to the proposed strategic approaches to improve infrastructure service delivery in KwaNyuswa, the researcher argues for a democratic approach as a relevant strategy to be adopted. Friedman (cited in Campbell, 1999) adds that this approach allows public interests to

guide and inform planning rather than using a blueprint with a scientific character to planning approaches.

With regard to whether Integrated Development Planning is indeed a tool to improving rural service delivery, the researcher concludes by arguing that IDP has not successfully managed to meet the needs of rural communities. As such, it continues to focusing on building a solid infrastructure foundation by evenly addressing rural-urban infrastructural needs. However, the areas such as KwaNyuswa continue to be characterised with poor if not absent municipal services. Researchers such as Hlela (2013) agree with this and critique IDP as a blueprint when it comes to rural service delivery. She argues that IDP remains elusive in its objective to develop the previously marginalised communities such as KwaNyuswa.

As part of the IDP strategies, Hlela (2013) affirms that eThekwini Municipality has made several attempts through Local Economic Development (LED) and the Expanding Public Work Programme (EPWP) to deliver services whilst changing the socio-economic status of people in KwaNyuswa. Cross (2002) argues that poverty and unemployment continue to define the lives of people in KwaNyuswa. Therefore more is still need to be done to changing the socio-economic status of the area. The Malaysian case study demonstrated how it government did successfully managed change the socio-economic status of rural areas herein. Henceforth, the researcher believes that South Africa can also learn and benefit from this experience to ensuring that rural development policies become part of the South African Integrated Development Planning. In so doing, the global development agenda to socially and economically a balanced rural and urban development can be plausible.

6.3 Lessons Learnt

One of the weaknesses in the South African IDP is that it is broad, politically and financially rather than democratically-driven. It contains a long-term development goal with a number of development programmes and projects, key priorities and development plans which depend on limited resources such as budget. At times, accountability depends on political factors which spontaneously affect priorities to be

enshrined in the Capital Investment Framework (CIF) plan. Hence, this does not guarantee the rights of the people to become part and parcel in the policy decision making processes as envisaged by the Municipal Systems Act.

6.4 Recommendations

6.4.1 Community Planning and Financial Sustainability

There are few researches that have been made to investigate the relationship between financial sustainability and responsiveness of the IDP. As a result, there is insufficient information to find solutions for financial instabilities which are predominant challenges in the South African Municipalities (Delivery Agreement Outcome: 9, 2010). The researcher recommends that since IDP is a participatory mechanism it has to strengthen its scope of public participation and present the intentions of Local Area Development Plans (LADPs) to the public to allow the poor to identify priorities and deliver based on them. The problem with planners is that they exaggerate when they prepare spatial plans as a result this makes the delivery not to comply with the public expectations. Therefore, one recommends community planning as a solution to financial sustainability constraints faced by local and metropolitan municipalities such as eThekwini Municipality.

6.4.2 Planning Education and Partnership

One of the key principles in the Integrated Development Planning (IDP) is partnership amongst structures of government and institutions at a societal level (Todes, 2003). However, it is found that partnership only exists at a municipal level as a result the IDP fails to achieve its quest of guiding development and spatial plans in societies. This is evident in the context of KwaNyuswa since there is poor partnership between traditional authorities and planners from the eThekwini Municipality's Outer-West region. Herein, the researcher found that traditional authorities facilitate land allocation without involving planners to provide a planning expert. As a result this creates a haphazard fashion of planning in the area. To this end, the researcher recommends planning education to collide with rural Land Use Management System (LUMS) especially in the Outer-West

Integrated Development Planning. The researcher believes that this will stimulate partnership amongst the Izinduna and planners whilst obtaining knowledge on land use planning and apply it in land allocation. Hence this will not only discourage rural sprawl in KwaNyuswa but it will also promote integration and allow infrastructure service delivery to be less complicated.

References

Adebayo, A. A and Musvoto, G. (2010). <u>Integration and Transformation of Post-Apartheid South African City Fabric</u>. Durban: University of KwaZulu-Natal.

Adell, G. (1999). <u>Theories and Models of the Peri-Urban Interface: A Changing Conceptual Land Scape</u>. University of London: Strategic Environmental Planning and Management for the Peri-urban Interface.

Alebiosu, O. A. (2005). <u>An Investigation of Integrated Development Planning (IDP) as a Mechanism for Poverty Alleviation in Grahm's town.</u> South Africa: Makana Municipality.

Arbache, J. S. (2006). Has Macroeconomic Policy Been Pro-Poor in Brazil? <u>Giovanni</u>.Volume 14, Page 326-348.

Arshad, F. M. and Shamsudin, M. N. (1997). <u>Rural Development Model in Malaysia</u>.: Selangor Malaysia: University of Putra Malaysia.

Ballard, R. Bonnin, D. Robinson, J and Xaba, T. (2007). Development and New Forms of Democracy in EThekwini. <u>Urban Forum</u>. Volume 18, Page 265–287.

Bateman, J and Brochardt, V. (2013). <u>Brazil's Lessons in Rural Development, Family Agriculture, Access to Water and Civil Engagement</u>. Brazil: Washington Office on Latin America Bhandari, L. (2006). <u>Cluster Initiatives and Growth Poles: Correcting Coordination Failure</u>. Submitted to Infrastructure Leasing and Financial Services: Indicus Analytics.

Bhorat, H and Kanbur, A. (2005). <u>Poverty and Wellbeing in Post-Apartheid South Africa: An Overview of Data, Outcomes and Policy</u>. Cape Town: Development Policy Research Unit.

Bradshaw, Y. W. (2011-2012). Urbanisation and Underdeveloped: A Global Study of Modernisation, Urban Bias, and Economic Dependency. <u>American Sociological Review</u>. Volume 52, No: 2.

Brian, J. L. B and Garrison, W. L. (1958). The Functional Bases of the Central Place Hierarchy. <u>Economic Geography</u>. Volume 34, Number 2. Page 145-154. Buchman, C. (2008). <u>The Economic Impact of High Density Development and Tall Building in Central Place Business Districts.</u> United Kingdom: British Property Federation.

Caderon, C and Serven, L. (2004). <u>The Effects of Infrastructure Development on Growth and Income Distribution</u>. Central Bank of Chile Working Papers. No. 270.

Campbell, J. (1972). Growth Pole Theory, Diagram Analysis and Inter-industry Relationships. <u>Economic Geography</u>. Volume 63, Issue (Z): Pages 79-87.

Campbell. S, Fainstein, S. S. (1996). <u>Readings in Planning Theory: Second Edition</u>. London: Blackwell.

Christopher, A. J. (1987). Apartheid Planning in South Africa: The Case of Port Elizabeth. Geographical Journal. Volume153, Number 2. Page 195-204.

Clark, W. A. V and Rushton, G. (1970). Models of Intra-Urban Consume behavior and Their Implications for Central Place Theory. <u>Economic Geography</u>. Volume 46, Number 3. Page 486-497.

Coetze, C. and Jank, B. (1999). <u>Development Theory, Policy and Practice.</u> Oxford University: Oxford University Press.

Cross, C. (2002). <u>The impact of HIV/AIDS on Land Issues in KwaZulu-Natal Province South Africa: Peri-Urban Land Tenure in the age of AIDS. Report on the KwaNyuswa Case Studies.</u> Pretoria: Human Sciences Research Council.

Department of Economic and Social Affairs, (2011). <u>Population Distribution</u>, <u>Urbanisation</u>, Internal Migration and Development: An International Perspective. New York: United Nations.

DPLG, 2009. <u>National Framework: Guidelines for Provinces and Municipalities in the Implementation of the Ward Funding Model</u>. Republic of South Africa: Department of Provincial and Local Government.

Dreshsel, P and Kunze, D. 2001. <u>Waste Composting for Urban and Peri-Urban Agriculture:</u> <u>Closing the Rural-Urban Nutrient Cycle in Sub-Saharan Africa</u>. Ghana: United Nations. Duminy, J. W. A. (2007). <u>Rapid Urban Development and Fragmentation in a Post-Apartheid Era:</u> <u>The case of Ballito, South Africa 1994-2007</u>. Durban: University of KwaZulu-Natal. Ewing, R. Richard, A. Schieber, M. A and Charles, V. (2003). Urban Sprawl as a Risk Factor in Moto Vehicles Occupants and Pedestrial Fatalities. <u>American Journal of Public Health</u>. Volume 93, Number 91. Page 1541-1545.

Firman, T. (2007). New Town Development in Takarta Metropolitan Region: a Perspective of Spatial Segregation. <u>Habitat International Journal</u>. Volume 28, Issue (3): Page 349–368.

Gantsho, and Mandla, J. V. (2008). <u>Cities as Growth Poles Implications for Rural Development.</u>
Presented on the Occasion of the Annual Meetings Seminar, Mozambique May 14-15.

Gomes, C. A. (2004). <u>Training for Rural Development in Brazil: SENAR</u>. Rome: Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations

Gordon, R. Nell, M and Bertoldi, A. (2007). <u>Overview of Urban Land as a Commodity in South Africa</u>. Research Findings and Recommendations.

Guan Zhu, Y. Lonnidis, J. P.A. Li, H. Jones, K.C and Martin, F. L. (2011). <u>Understanding and Harnessing the Health Effects of Rapid Urbanisation in China</u>.

Hamill, A. 2009. Sau Paulo: Challenges of Rapid Urbanisation. On-line Available at www.slideshare.net accessed in May 2013.

Hannett, C. (1993). Social Polirization in Global Cities: Theory and Evidence. <u>Urban Studies</u>. Volume 31, Number 3. Page 401-424.

Hasan, M. N. and Adnan, A. H. (1999). <u>Sustainable Development Indicator Initiatives in Malaysia-Novel Approaches and Viable Frameworks</u>. University Kebangsaan Malaysia: Institute for Environment and Development.

Hlela, T. 2012. <u>Mapping Water and Sanitation Services in KwaNyuswa Valley of 1000 Hill</u>. Durban: University of KwaZulu Natal.

Hodgson, G. M. (2006). What are Institutions? <u>Journal of Economics</u>. Volume XL, Number 1: Issue (JEI).

Integrated Planning Services, Rural Development Services and Water Meyer Legge Pieshold and Uhlmann (1993). Ngcolosi, Embo, Qadi and Nyuswa Tribal Areas.Integrated Rural Development Study Status Quo Reports. South Africa: KwaZulu Department of Economic Affairs.

Islam, R. (1990). Rural Poverty, Growth and Macroeconomic Policies: The Asian experience. International Labour Review, Volume 129, Number 6.

Jones, C. (2011). <u>Modernisation Theory: An In-depth Analysis of Its Validity.</u> University of Medicine: Rutgers University Alum

Jukuda, N. (2010). <u>Understanding the Role of Collaborative Planning in Resolving the Conflict</u> between the Three Fundamental Goals of Planning for the Purpose of Contributing to the Achievement of Sustainable Development in Contested Areas: The Case of Durban Basis. University of KwaZulu-Natal: Durban.

Kim, S. (2008). <u>Spatial Inequality and Economic Development: Theories, Facts and Policies</u>: St Louis: Washington University.

Landman, K. (2002). <u>Planning in the African Context: Reconsidering Current Approaches to Gated Communities in South Africa.</u> Pretoria: Building and Construction Technology CSIR.

Margaret, C and Mellissa, A. (2009). <u>Data Collection Methods: Semi-Structured Interviews and Focus Groups</u>. <u>Prepared for the United State Government: RAND</u>. United State: National Defence Research Institute.

Massey, D. (1998). Towards a Critique of Industrial Location Theory. <u>Antipode Journal</u>. Volume 5, Issues (3) Page 33-40.

Matseding Municipality, (2008). <u>Peri-Urban Land Management Assessment and Strategy in Metsweding District Municipality</u>. South Africa: Riana du Plessis Urban Planning Matunho, J. (2011). A Critique of Modernization and Dependency Theories in Africa: Critical Assessment. Department of Development Studies, Midlands State University, Zimbabwe. African Journal of History and Culture. Volume 3, Issue (5) Page. 65-72.

McClinton, F. and Zuberi, T. (2006). <u>Racial Residential Segregation in South Africa and the United States Paper Prepared for Submission to the 2006 Annual Meetings of the Population Association of America.</u> United State: Oxford Handbook.

McNally, D. C. (1993). <u>Against the Market Political Economy, Market Socialism and the Marxist Critique</u>. London: Verso.

Medeiron, J and Tambke, E. (2009). Is there a rural - urban movement all over Brazil? On-line Available at www.brazil.org.uk accessed in April 2013.

Minassian, T. T. (2012). <u>Structural Reforms in Brazil: Progress and Unfinished Agenda</u>. Inter-American Development Bank: Policy Brief No, IDB-PB-158.

Mogaladi, S. R. (2007). <u>Capacitating Rural Communities for Participating in the Integrated Development Process</u>: A research Report Submitted to the Faculty of Management for the Degree of Master of Management in the Field of Public Policy.

Morgan, D. T. (1975) Growth Pole Theory, Technological Change, and Regional Economic Growth. Business and Economic Journal. Volume 34, Number 1. Page 3-25.

Moseley, M. J. (1972). The Impact of Growth Centres in Rural Regions: An Analysis of Spatial "patterns" in Brittany. <u>Journal of Regional Studies</u>. Volume 7, Page 57-75.

Musakwa, W. (2008). <u>Local Economic Development as a Poverty Alleviation Tool: A Case Study on the Urban Renewal Programme in KwaMashu Durban</u>. Thesis Submitted for the Degree of Master in Town and Regional Planning, University of KwaZulu-Natal: Durban.

Mvuyana, B. Y. C. (2010). A Study of the Relationship between Rural-Urban Migration and Housing Delivery: A Case of Clermont Township in the Province of KwaZulu-Natal. <u>Thesis Submitted for the Fulfilment of Master of Art.</u> Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University.

Nassif, A. (2007). National Innovation System and Macroeconomic Policies: Brazil and India in Comparative Perspective. <u>United Nations Conference on Trade and Development</u>. Policy Paper Discussion No 184.

Natasha, M. Woodsong, C, Kathleen, M. Mac Queen, Guest, G. and Mamey, E. (2005). <u>A Qualitative Research Methods: A data Collectors Field Guide</u>. United State of America: Family Health International.

North. D. C. (1955). Location Theory and Regional Economic. <u>Journal of Political Economy</u>: Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

OECD 6TH (2008). <u>Innovative Service Delivery: Meeting the Challenges of Rural Regions:</u> <u>Annual Rural Development Conference</u>. German: Donnt Hotel-Calogne.

Ofuso- KwaKye, Y. (2009). <u>The application of new urbanism towards sustainable urban development: a case study of Umhlanga Ridge, Durban</u>. Thesis Submitted for the Degree of Master in Town and Regional Planning, University of KwaZulu-Natal: Durban.

Paul, A. and Emily, H. (nd). <u>The Geography of Poverty and Segregation in Metropolitan Lima, Peru Population Research Centre</u>, United State of America: University of Texa.

Paul, J. Cloke and Chris, C. Park (1985). Rural Resource Management. Australia: Croom Helm.

Pavanello, S and Darcy, J. (2008). Improving the Provision of Basic Services for the Poor in Fragile Environments. <u>International Literature Review Synthesis Paper</u>. London: Humanitarian Policy Group Overseas Development Institute.

Perroux, F. (1955). <u>Note on the Concept of Growth Poles Regional Economics</u>. New York: The Free Press.

PICC, (2012). <u>Provincial and Local Government Conference: A Summary of the Infrastructure Plan.</u> South Africa: Presidential Infrastructure Coordinating Commission.

Pillay, C (2007). <u>Area Based Management and Development Programme eThekwini Municipality Case Study: Rural Planning and Development. Nodal Development in Rural Areas.</u> Durban: McIntosh Xaba and Associations.

Pillay, U. Tomlinson, R. and Du Toit, J. (2006). <u>Democracy and Delivery Urban Policy in South Africa.</u> Pretoria: Human Science Research Council (HSRC) Press.

Planning and Land Bereau Report, (2001). <u>Urban Renewal Strategy. Consultation Paper:</u> <u>People First- A Caring Approach to Urban Renewal</u>. South Africa: Urban Renewal Unit Planning and Planning and Land Bereau.

Posel, D. 2003. <u>Have Migration Patterns in Post-Apartheid South Africa Changed?</u> South Africa: University of Natal.

Rakodi, C and Jones, T.L. (2002). <u>Urban Livelihoods: A People Centred Approach to Reducing Poverty</u>. United Kingdom: International Institute for Environment and Development.

Rapley, J. (2007). <u>Understanding Development Theory and Practice in the Third World</u>. United Kingdom: Lynne Rienner.

Rasappan, A. (2002). <u>Integrated Development Planning (IDP) under IRBM</u>. South Africa: Centre for Development and Research in Evaluation (CeDRE).

Richard, E. Baldwin and Forslid, R. (2000). <u>The Core-Periphery Model and Endogenous Growth: Stabilizing and Destabilizing Integration</u>. United State: Graduate Institute of International Studies.

Robinson, P. (2005). <u>From Rural Service Centres to Systems of Rural Service Delivery:</u> <u>Reformulation of the Approach in the Context of Integrated Development in South Africa.</u> Durban: University of KwaZulu-Natal.

Rogerson, E. N. (2009). <u>Re-thinking Spatial Inequality in South Africa: Lessons From International Experiences</u>. Pretoria: Business Media Publication.

Rossem, R. V. (1996). The World System Paradigm as General Theory of Development: Across National Test. American Sociology Journal. United State: American Sociological Association.

Rural Area Based Management Newsletter, (2008). <u>Local Planning Strategy and Town Planning Scheme. Town of Victoria Park.</u> Victoria Park: Town Planning Board.

Salter, W. E. G. (1966). <u>Productivity and Technical Change</u>. United Kingdom: Cambridge University Press.

Schneider, S. Shiki, S and Belik, W. (2010). Rural development in Brazil: Overcoming Inequalities and Building New Markets. <u>Rivista Di Economia Agraria</u>. Volume, LXV, No.2. Schumpeter, J. A. (1947). <u>Capitalism, Socialism and Democracy</u>. New York: Harper and Row.

Schwartzman, S. (2003). <u>Globalization, Poverty, and Social Inequity in Brazil</u>. Rio de Janeiro: Instituto de Estudos do Trabalho e Sociedade (IETS).

Sebiloane, M. A. (2009). <u>An integrated Approach to Service Delivery at Ekurhuleni Metropolitan Municipality</u>. Mini-Dissertation Submitted as Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements Set for the Masters Development and Management Degree in the Department of Public Management and Administration at North West University.

Shari, I. (1995). Economic Growth and Income Inequality in Malaysia. <u>Journal of the Asia Pacific</u> Economy. London:

Siphuma, Z. R. (2009). <u>An Assessment of the Role of Public Participation in IDP-The Thulamela Municipality.</u> Thesis presented in partial Fulfillment of the requirements for the degree Master in Public Administration of Stellenbosch University

Smith, H and Raemaehers, J. (1998). Land-use Pattern and Transport in Curitiba. <u>Development Economics</u>. Volume 15. Number 3. Page 233-251.

Somik, V. L and Sanjoy, C (2005). Industrial Location and Spatial Inequality: Theory and Evidence from India. Review of Development Economics, Volume 9, Issue (1). Page 47–68.

Sorensen, L. (2001). <u>Modernisation and the Third World</u>. Global Studies: Capstone Portfolio. United State: Project Gender Identity.

Tacolli, C. (1999). <u>Understanding the Opportunities and Constraints for Low-Income Groups in the Peri-Urban Interface: The Contribution of Livelihood Framework</u>. University College London: Strategic Environmental Planning and Management for the Peri-urban Interface Research Project.

Tenth Malaysian Plan, 2010. <u>Tenth Malaysian Plan People's Firs</u>t. Putrajaya: Economic Planning Unit.

Theron, J. H. (2007). <u>Lessons From the Strategic Management of Integrated Development Planning in KwaZulu-Natal from 1994 to 2006</u>. Thesis Submitted for the requirements of the degree Philosophy Doctor in the Department of Urban and Regional Planning.

Todaro M. P and Smith, S. C. (2010). Economic Development Eighth Edition. Online Available at www.wps.aw.com/ accessed in August 2013.

Todes, A. (2003). <u>Regional Planning and Sustainability: Reshaping Development Through Integrated Development Plans in the Ugu District of South Africa</u>. Paper presented to the Regional Studies Association Conference, Reinventing Regions in the Global Economy Pisa, 12-15th April.

UNCHS (2001b). <u>State of the World's Cities 200</u>. Nairobi: United Nations Centre for Human Settlements (Habitat).

Visser, G. (2001). Social Justice, Integrated Development Planning and Post-Apartheid Urban Reconstruction. Urban Studies. Volume 38, Number 10. Page 1673-1699.

World Health Organisation, (2009). <u>Diarrhoea: why children are still dying and what can be done</u>. New York: United Nations Children's Fund.

Yusof, Z. A and Bhattasali, D. (2008). Economic Growth and Development in Malaysia: Policy Making and Leadership. Journal of the Asia Pacific Economy. London.

Zin, R. H. M. (1996). <u>Growth with Equity: Policy Lessons from the Experience of Malaysia.</u>

National University of Malaysia: Kuala Lumpur.

Internet Sources

Arbury, J. (2005). From Urban Sprawl to Compact City: An analysis of Urban Growth Management in Auckland. Online available at www.portal.jarbury.net/thesis.pdf accessed in August 2011.

Baffalo City Metropolitan IDP, (2011). Baffalo City Metropolitan Integrated Development Plan: A City Growing With You. Online available at www.buffalocity.gov.za accessed in September 2012.

Baffalo City Municipality Public Transport Framework Plan, (2005). Baffalo City Municipality Public Transport Framework Plan: Masichume, Sande, Siphumelele. Online available at www.buffalocity.gov.za accessed in August 2010.

Baffalo City Municipality SDF, (2003). Buffalo City Municipality Spatial Development Framework: Masichume, Sande, Siphumelele. Online available at www.buffalocity.gov.za accessed in September 2012.

Borgatti, S. P and Everett, M. G. (1999). Models of Core/Periphery Structure. Social Networks page 375-395. Online available at www.elsevier.com accessed in June 2011.

Buffalo City Municipality IDP, (2008). Buffalo City Municipality Integrated Development Plan: Masichume, Sande, Siphumelele. Online available at www.buffalocity.gov.za accessed in August 2012.

Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs (CoGTA), (2001). Urban Renewal Programme Report. Online available at www.kzn.lgta.gov.za accessed in June 2011.

Delivery Agreement for Outcome: 9, (2010). A Responsive, Accountable, Effective and Efficient Local Government System Final Report. Online available at www.presidency.gov.za accessed in June 2011.

Department of Provincial and Local Government, (no date). Mdantsane Nodal Economic Development Profile: Online available at www.btrust.org.za accessed in September 2012.

EThekwini Metro Assessment for Discussion, 2011/2012. Assessment of Spatial Development Frameworks Within KwaZulu-Natal: Prepared for Municipal Planning Chief Directorate of the Department of Co-operative Governance and Traditional Affairs. Online available at www.devplan.kzntl.gov.za accessed in June-2011.

EThekwini Municipality Community Profile, (2011). Online Available at http://www.capmonintranet.durban.gov.za accessed in June 2011.

EThekwini Municipality Integrated Development Plan (IDP) (2011). Online available at www.devplan.Kzntl.gov.za/IDP2005/6 accessed in September 2011

EThekwini Municipality Integrated Development Plan (IDP) Review (2005/2006). Online available at www.devplan.Kzntl.gov.za/IDP2005/6 accessed in September 2011.

EThekwini Municipality Spatial Development Framework, 2002. Spatial Development Framework: Spatial Response to Long Term Development Framework and Integrated Development Plan. Online available at www.devplan.kzntl.gov.za accessed in June-2011

EThekwini Municipality Spatial Development Framework, 2012/13. Spatial Development Framework (SDF) Report. Available at www.durban.gov.za accessed in April 2013.

EThekwini Municiplaity, 2011. <u>Case Study of Sustainable Sanitation Projects Large-Scale Peri-Urban and Rural Sanitation with UDDTs</u>. (Durban) South Africa: eThekwini Municipality. EThekwini, Integrated Development Plan Final Draft, (2002-2006). Online available at www.durban.gov.za accessed in May-2011

EThekwini, Municipality (2010). EThekwini Municipality Integrated Development Planning Report. Online available at www.durban.gov.za accessed in June 2011.

Haper, M. (2000). Public Service Through Private Enteprises: Micro Privatisation for Improved Delivery. Online available at www.practicalaction.org accessed in June 2011.

Integrated Development Plan: IDP Review year (2007/2008). Ntambanana Municiqpality: Online available at www.devplan.Kzntl.gov.za/IDP.Review2 accessed in June 2011.

Integrated Development Planning for Local Government (2002). EThekwini Integrated Development Plan (IDP). Online available at www.durban.gov.za accessed in April-2011.

Integrated Development Planning for Local Government (nd). Online available at www.durban.gov.za accessed in October 2011.

KwaDukuza Municipality Integrated Development Plan (2010). Integrated Development Planning: Draft Review. Online available at www.devplan.Kzntl.gov.za/IDP accessed in August June 2011.

Ladysmith IDP Review, (2003). Online available at www.devplan.Kzntl.gov.za accessed in June 2011.

Local Government (2011/2012). Annual Performance Plan. Western Cape (Cape town). Online available at www.capegateway.gov.za accessed in June 2011.

Local Government Finance and Budgets (2010). Online Available at www.etv.org.za/toolbox/does/localgov/webmunfin accessed in June 2011.

Mhlontlo Local Municipality Spatial Development Framework Plan (2005). A Spatial Development Framework Report Compiled by Sullivan, Fadane and Associates, and Environmental and Rural Solutions. Online available at www.devplan.Kzntl.gov.za/IDP accessed in July 2011.

Ntambanana Municipality, (2007). Integrated Development Plan Reviewed. Online available at www.devplan.Kzntl.gov.za accessed in July 2011.

Outer-West Spatial Development Plan (OWSDP), (2009/2011). EThekwini Municipality Outer-West Spatial Development Plan. Online available at www.durban.gov.za accessed in June 2011.

Ugu District Municipality Integrated Development Plan (IDP) Review (2010/2011). Online available at www.devplan.kzntl.gov.za accessed in November 2011.

Valley Trust Survey, (2001). Qadi: KwaNyuswa Valley Trust Report. Online available at www.lightproviders.com accessed in June 2011.

Appendixes

A. Interview questions for the eThekwini IDP Manager

- 1) What are the challenges which Ethekwini Municipality is facing in its attempt to facilitate the level of service delivery in outer-west settlements such as KwaNyuswa?
- 2) What has taken place with regard to service delivery since 1994 in KwaNyuswa?
- 3) What are the current/proposed development plans by the Ethekwini Municipality which aim to address challenges on service delivery in KwaNyuswa?
- 4) To what extent has the municipality conformed to development and planning standards in their distribution of services in KwaNyuswa?
- 5) What are key development indicators in the Ethekwini IDP/outer-west SDF which show that the municipality considers rural areas in their planning processes and service delivery?
- 6) How does the municipality deal with rural development in its IDP?
- 7) How is the Municipality using the IDP as a development tool to address spatial inequalities caused by apartheid planning especially in rural areas such as KwaNyuswa?
- 8) What programmes/policy instruments designed to ensure that the municipal IDP responds to the existing backlogs on service delivery in KwaNyuswa?
- 9) What measures have been adopted to ensure that the IDP programmes are peoples-oriented before the delivery of services takes place in KwaNyuswa?

B. Focus group and Interview questions for Community Representatives

- 1) What are the pressing challenges in relation to service delivery in the area?
- 2) What are the plans or strategies in IDP which aim at promoting the pace of service delivery in KwaNyuswa?
- 3) What since 1994 has been delivered to communities in KwaNyuswa?
- 4) How this was beneficiary to the people?
- 5) To what extent does Ethekwini Municipality strengthen partnership and participation prior to service delivery in KwaNyuswa?
- 6) What factors explain the failure of KwaNyuswa to provide adequate services to its people?
- 7) To what extent has sprawling constrained and slowed the pace of service delivery in the area?
- 8) What needs to be a priority if service delivery is to take in the area and why?
- 9) How such services will be unique from the previous ones?
- 10) How do communities participate in planning processes? Are communities aware of their rights to participate in planning and IDP process?
- 11) What has been done to alert people about their role in IDP and planning process?
- 12) What needs to be done to ensure that rural development becomes a priority and objective to achieve in KwaNyuswa?

- 13) Is the approach to rural planning applicable in KwaNyuswa?
- 14) How tribal authorities affect the provision of service delivery in KwaNyuswa?
- 15) What impact Municipal Demarcations Act has in KwaNyuswa?

C. Interview questions for Municipal Planners (Rural ABM)

- 1) What are the pressing challenges in relation to service delivery in KwaNyuswa?
- 2) What strategies are being used in IDPs to alleviate these challenges?
- 3) How effective are these strategies in addressing service delivery problems?
- 4) Why most of development is concentrated in Valley Trust Area which is part of KwaNyuswa?
- 5) What are the challenges faced by the municipality in its attempts to address issues of service delivery in the area?
- 6) How effective Rural Area Based Management (ABM) is to challenges faced by the poor in KwaNyuswa?
- 7) What has taken place through ABM intervention in KwaNyuswa?
- 8) How this has been beneficial to address the needs of service delivery in the area?
- 9) Is IDP working as an approach or a plan in KwaNyuswa?
- 10)Is Municipal Demarcation Act a responsive tool to facilitate development in areas under tribal authorities?
- 11) Is the idea of a *compact city* responsive to integrate historically disadvantaged communities in the Ethekwini context?

- 12) How this has put KwaNyuswa into an advantageous position to gain access to service delivery?
- 13)Is the approach to rural development a best model to use to achieve IDP objectives in areas such as KwaNyuswa?
- 14) Which areas need urgent attention in KwaNyuswa?
- 15) What are the other strategies which the municipality is planning to introduce to address issues of poverty, rural-urban inequality and poor service delivery in outerwest settlements such as KwaNyuswa?