

# University of KwaZulu-Natal, Durban, South Africa

## School of Architecture, Planning & Housing

Rosemary Awuor-Hayangah

### 1. The urban and regional context of Durban

In South Africa the definition of urban centres is determined mainly by the economic output termed the 'urban space economy'. This space economy is either globally connected, or is based on the 'ordinary city' approach which emphasises the local space (formal and informal), or is both a global and an ordinary city (SACN 2006). In terms of this definition urban centres are ranked according to GDP (economic base), scale, settlement characteristics and institutional context (see Tables 1 and 2). Durban (eThekwin Municipality) falls within the category of core urban regions (Table 1) and is a metropolitan city (Table 2).

**Table 1: Classification of 21 key urban spaces in South Africa**

Name	Nature	Size	Stretch & role	Official place name or municipality
Core urban regions	Diverse economy with high GVA in most, or all economic sectors, especially private sector services and retail. Spatially the economy is clustered in a polycentric fashion with a multiplicity of nodes with increasingly specialised roles.	More than R75 billion GVA per annum	Provides gateway to global economy. Provides national and supra-national, continental cultural, educational and innovation functions.	Cape Town Ekurhuleni eThekwin Johannesburg Tshwane
Major urban areas	Diverse economy, but with areas of national economic significance in a few sectors, typically manufacturing, public services or mining. While the economy is spread over a region it is often concentrated in a few nodes and their immediate surroundings. This is in most cases tied to the previous apartheid city development model.	Between R9 billion and R75 billion GVA per annum	Provides similar functions as the core areas, but typically does not extend beyond the provincial boundaries.	Mangaung Buffalo City Emfuleni Nelson Mandela Bay Msunduzi
Significant urban service centres*	Economies in most cases dominated by a single sector, but with steady movement into other	Between R4.5 billion and R9 billion GVA per annum	Is often of national economic significance in terms of GVA	Evander Kimberly Middleburg Midvaal

areas. This is typically either mining or manufacturing and is dependent on easy access to a natural resource, or combination of resources. Often the single sector was more prominent in the past. In some cases the economy is in a downward cycle, with the service and retail function keeping it alive.	generated, but has less impact on the immediate surroundings. Often it stands out as an island in a sea of relatively low economic activity	Mogale City Mbombela Richards Bay Rustenburg Sasolburg Stellenbosch Witbank
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Source: SACN 2006

Notes: GVA = Gross Value Added

\* These are not the only major urban service nodes, but other places like George, Polokwane, Newcastle, Klerksdorp, Potchefstroom, Umtata and Mafeking could also fit the classification if the GVA-requirement was lowered.

**Table 2: Typology of urban settlements in South Africa**

Settlement type	Scale & settlement characteristics	Economic base	Institutional context
Metropolitan cities	Population over 1 million. Established formal core of industrial, commercial and suburban development. Formal townships, hostels, and backyards. Informal settlements with significant RDP housing on the periphery.*	Huge economic base plus the core of economic potential. Highest concentrations and absolute numbers of urban poor.	Metropolitan government consolidates fragmented municipal history. Urban benefits not yet seamlessly applied to all residents.
Secondary cities	Population 250 000–1 million. Established formal core of mining, commerce and suburban development. Formal townships with backyards plus informal and traditional settlements and significant RDP housing on the periphery.	Economic potential varies from strong to weak according to sectoral base and geographical location. Rapid urbanisation and some of the most extreme levels of poverty.	Racially divided municipal history, now typically the core of a district municipality. Complex issues of planning and cross subsidisation.
Large towns once in 'white' South Africa or old homeland capitals	Population 25 000–250 000. Typically former colonial administrative centres, the hub of mining and industrial areas, but also old homeland capitals. Limited formal suburban stock, formalised townships now extended with RDP housing and informal	A few booming, but many are in severe decline. A relatively small, but crucial elite population, in most cases employed in the public sector, offers limited rates base. Majority impoverished without land or urban	Municipal capacity is stretched; institutional systems are often non-existent. The urban councils are poorly equipped to deal with the complex urban-rural interface of the districts.

	settlements.	economic livelihoods.	
Small towns providing crucial access and service functions	Population 2 000 to approximately 25 000. Typically a small commercial, administrative, farming or tourist node. Small, generally ageing formal housing stock and a former township, spatially integrated over the last decade with the 'old' town through RDP housing and informal settlements	Save for a few locally significant activities, the economies are in most cases struggling and weak. Work is scarce and prospects for employment of educated youth virtually non-existent.	Municipal and other public services are in most instances weak or non-existent. Councils are virtually incapable of assisting communities. Services offered by the private sector reserved for the few inhabitants with a stable income, often a pension or grant.
Displaced dense settlements on homeland boundaries	Population up to 400 000. Consolidated dense informal settlement in traditional land characterised by absence of formal industrial or commercial activity.	Often depicted as 'rural', these large non-agricultural areas are characterised by a virtual absence of a modern urban economy and services. Out-migration or split urban-rural lifestyles are common.	Prior to 1994 there was no urban administration. The introduction of local government post-1994 co-exists with traditional leadership control; capacity is weak.

Source: SACN 2006

Note: \* RDP housing is free or low-cost housing provided by the government in terms of its Reconstruction and Development Programme.

## 1.1 Durban's geographical context

Durban is located on the east coast of South Africa, with a population of approximately three million (Marx & Charlton 2003). It developed around a T-shaped road pattern which consists of the national N2 highway that runs across the coastal plain and the N3 highway that links Durban to the interior (see Figure 1) (Todes 2000). The major commercial and industrial nodes and affluent residential areas are located near or adjacent to these nodes, with the poor areas located further away. The municipality covers an area of 2 300 km<sup>2</sup>.

**Figure 1: Durban and its surroundings**

Source: KwaZulu-Natal Tourism Authority 2008

Durban is currently experiencing high rates of unemployment and poverty (see Table 3). It is also characterised by circular migration between rural and urban areas<sup>1</sup> and has been growing at the rate of 11% per annum since the last census (Byerley 2006). The number of informal settlement households increased from 139 801 in 1996 to 150 390 in 2001 and by 2004 was estimated to have reached 213 465 (SACN 2006; Statistics South Africa 2001). Thus 26.51% of the households in the municipality did not have formal housing by 2004 (SACN 2006). The number of households registering zero income had grown by 152% and the proportion of households living in poverty increased from 27.7% in 1996 to 29.2% in 2003, while the Gini coefficient (measuring inequality) increased from 0.56 to 0.635 in 2001 (Hunter n.d.; see also Tables 3 and 4). The Gini coefficient is currently 0.54 for Durban, which is better than that of South Africa as a whole (0.63) (Table 4).

**Table 3: Poverty in Durban**

	National average (%)	Durban average (%)
Poverty incidence (% of households below HSL*)	65.0	45.0
Employment rate	33.7	31.0
Households without access to electricity**	30.3	22.0
Households without basic access to water***	27.9	29.0
Access to education	40.0	data not available

<sup>1</sup> See eThekweni Municipality Online, [www.durban.gov.za/durban](http://www.durban.gov.za/durban).

% of adults with low or no education****	40.3	10.0
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Source: DPLG & Business Trust 2007

Notes: \* HSL = Household Subsistence Level, equal to R19 200 per annum (R1 600 per month).

\*\* Based on households that do not use electricity as a source for lighting.

\*\*\* Defined as not having piped water within a distance of 200m of dwelling (govt. policy on minimum basic human need)

\*\*\*\* All adults aged 20+ with no schooling at secondary level or above (Stats SA indicator of educational deprivation)

**Table 4: Inequality in Durban**

	Mean for Durban	African population in Durban	White population in Durban
Share of population which is poor	44%	67%	2%
Share of average annual income	R 10 542 (US\$1 050)	R4 570 (US\$450)	R32 389 (US\$3 240)

Source: Marx & Charlton 2003: 7

## 1.2 The formal economy of Durban

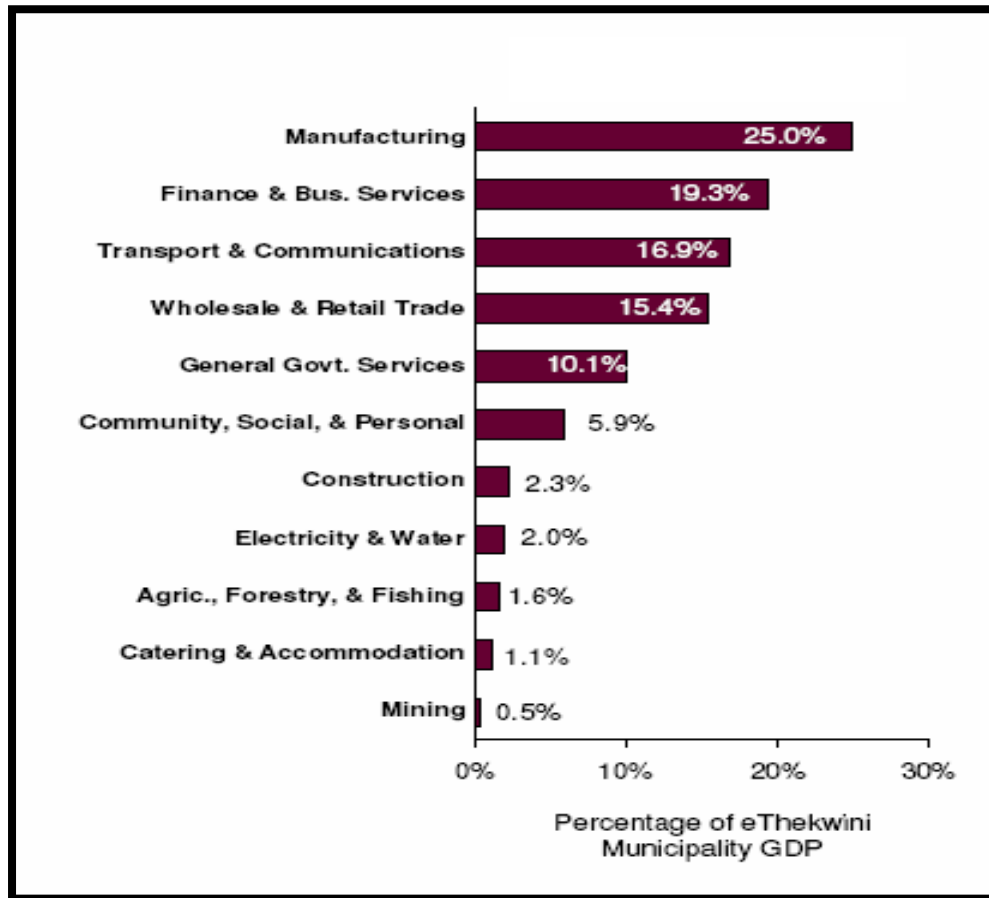
The Durban Metropolitan Area (DMA) has a large and diversified formal economy with strong manufacturing, tourism, transportation, finance and government sectors. Its coastal location and large port give it a comparative advantage over many other centres in South Africa for export-related industry.<sup>2</sup> Durban's economy is mainly supported by the manufacturing industry, which is strongly related to the harbour, and the financial and services sector which support the manufacturing sector (see Figure 2). The GDP for Durban in 2004 grew at a rate of 3.3% compared to South Africa's overall GDP of 3.7 % (INK 2006). Sixty per cent of the active population is involved in the small and medium enterprise (SME) sector (SACN 2006). Durban's mild climate, warm marine current and culturally diverse population have also provided a drawcard for tourists to the region.<sup>3</sup>

## 1.3 Education levels

Sixteen per cent of the population of Durban are classified as functionally illiterate, 38% have matriculation and only 8% have tertiary qualifications. When this information is disaggregated by race the following emerges. Only 2.5% of the white population lacks any secondary schooling, which increases to 14% for coloureds, 19% for Asians (Indians) and 37% for Africans. Almost 10% of whites have a university degree compared with 1% of Africans (eThekweni Municipality 2002b, cited in Marx & Charlton 2003).

<sup>2</sup> See [www.ceroi.net/reports/durban/drivers/economy1/traders.htm](http://www.ceroi.net/reports/durban/drivers/economy1/traders.htm).

<sup>3</sup> See [www.ceroi.net/reports/durban/drivers/economy1/traders.htm](http://www.ceroi.net/reports/durban/drivers/economy1/traders.htm).

**Figure 2: Contribution to total municipal GDP, 2004**

Source: DPLG & Business Trust 2007

## 1.4 The property market in Durban

Despite four interest rate increases since June 2007, and two more pending at the time of writing (2008), Durban's property market remains active, with some suburbs showing house price growth well in excess of the national average given by one of the major banks, ABSA, of 15.2%. House prices in Durban have for the last few years lagged behind those of both Cape Town and Johannesburg, but they are rising rapidly now, with an increase of almost 40% in the past two years according to ABSA.<sup>4</sup>

## 1.5 Land tenure

It can be estimated that 75% of households live in formal areas in Durban (Nicholson 2001, cited in Marx & Charlton 2003) and therefore have full security of tenure. Of the remaining 25%, approximately 20% (41 000 dwellings) have a level of security of tenure derived from tribal land allocation systems and the remainder (150 000–195 000 dwellings) have little or no security of tenure (Makhatini et al. 2002, cited in Marx & Charlton 2003).

<sup>4</sup> See [http://www.propvalues.co.za/news\\_21.php](http://www.propvalues.co.za/news_21.php).

## 1.6 Informality in Durban

### *Informal settlements*

Informal settlements in eThekweni developed historically beyond the old city boundary and are often seen as a product of apartheid social engineering (see Figures 3 and 4 (a)–(c)). Figure 4(c) shows the urban edge which is used in the compacting of the city and the provision of services in the context of minimising urban sprawl. The informal settlements are to be found mostly on unsuitable land such as flood plains, steep slopes or adjacent to transportation lines (Figure 3).

Informal settlements in eThekweni represent about 70–75% of the housing backlog in the municipality (Byerley 2006; Marx & Charlton 2003). There are over 540 informal settlements in the municipality, ranging in size from a few dwelling units to almost 14 000. The municipality's Housing Unit estimates that the average settlement comprises 360 dwellings, with a total population in the informal settlements of over 155 000 families and an estimated population of 620 000 people (Byerley 2006). It should be noted that the informal settlement population fluctuates over time, given that the municipality has been moving people from some of the settlements while at the same time additional settlements are bound to be established. Hence the apparent differences in the actual population figures for those living in these informal settlements.

**Figure 3: Informal settlements in Durban**

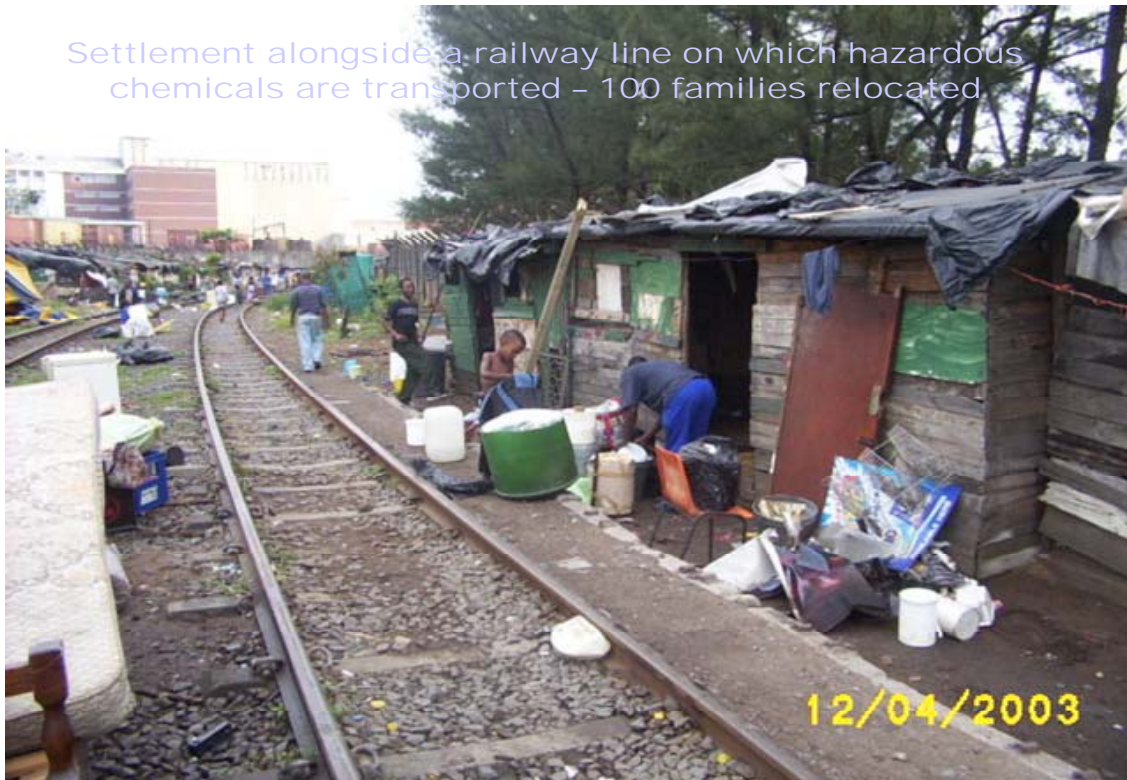




Settlement located on a flood plain –  
330 families relocated



Settlement alongside a railway line on which hazardous  
chemicals are transported – 100 families relocated



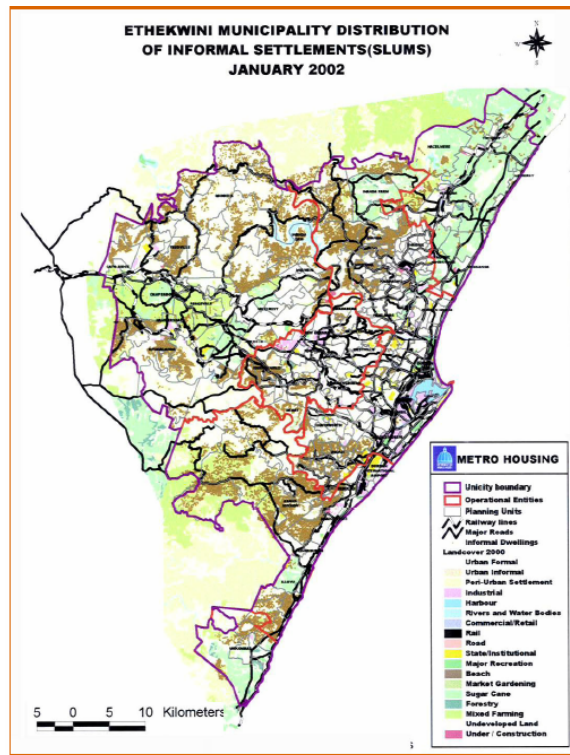


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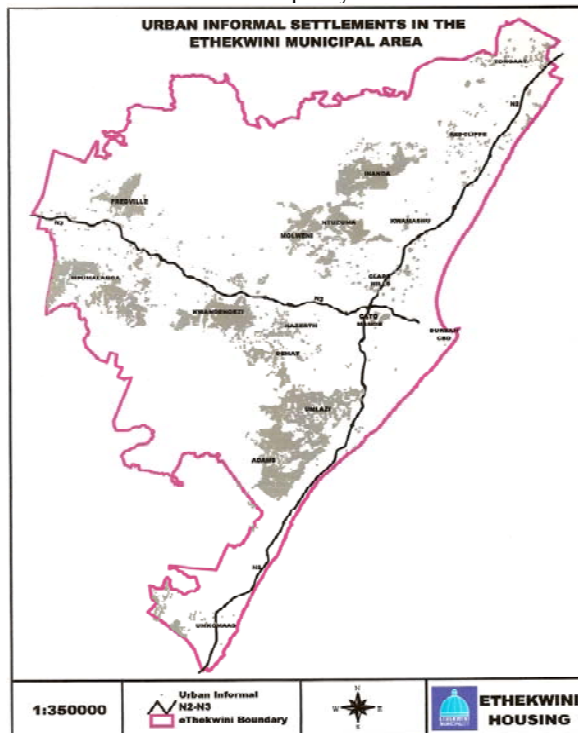
Source: Byerley 2006

Figure 4: Maps of informal settlements in Durban

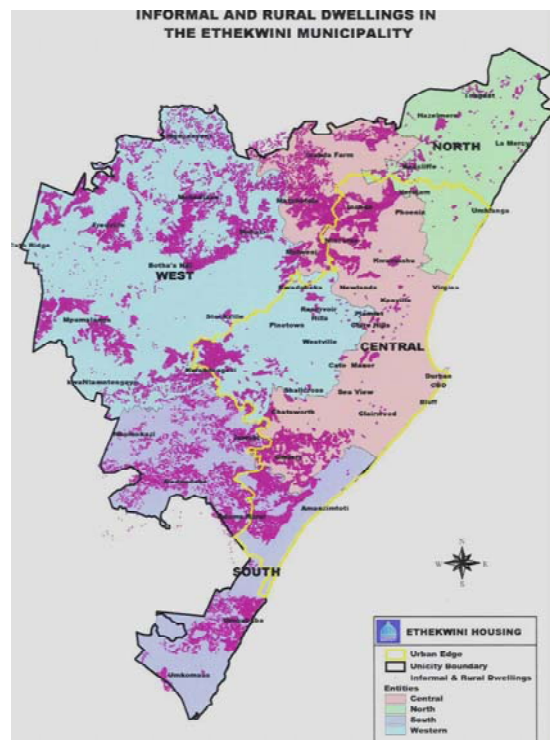
(a)



Source: eThekweni Municipality 2006a



(c)



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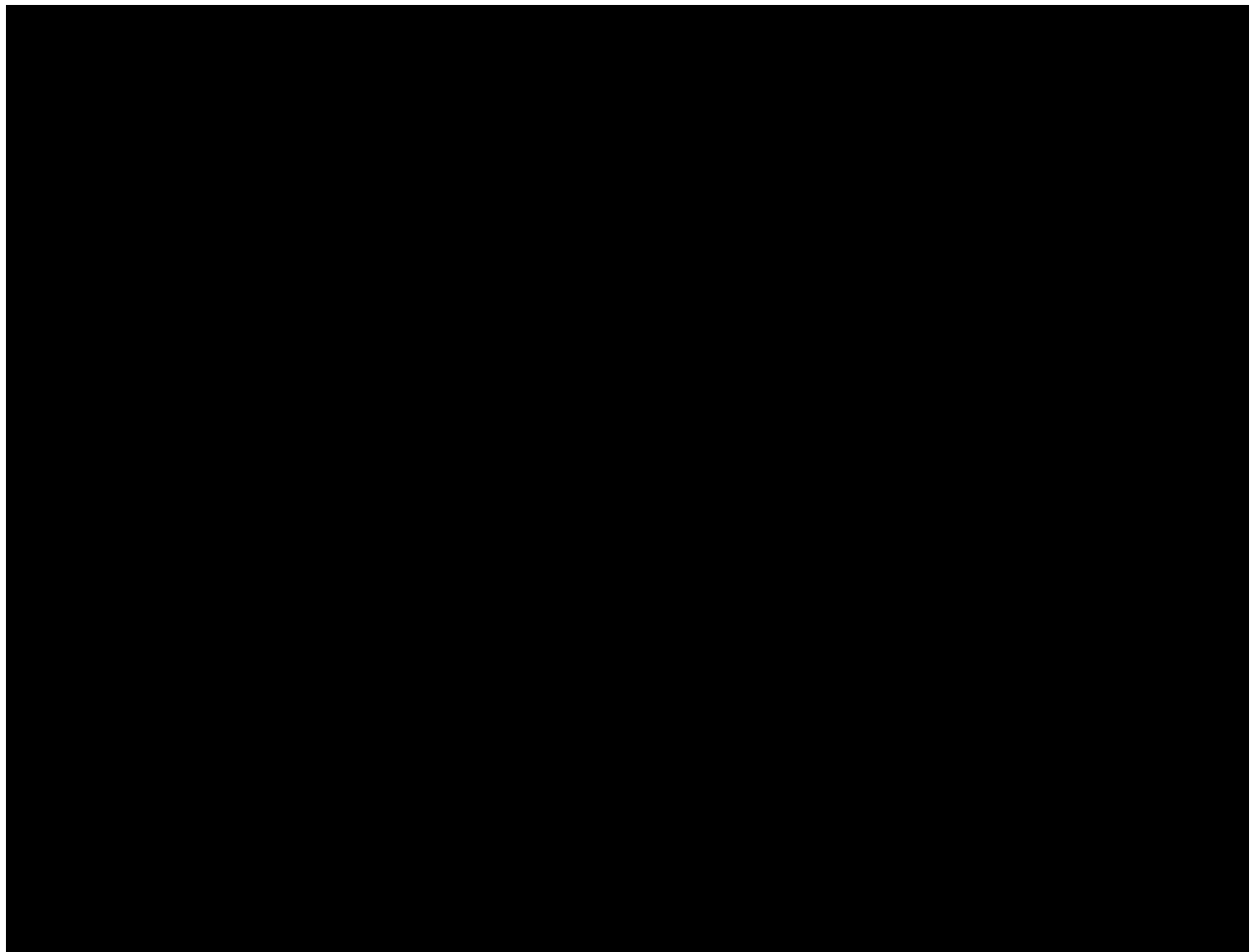
Source: Byerley 2006

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### *Durban's informal economy*

Over the past 4–5 years eThekweni Municipality has substantially shifted its view of the role of the informal economy. Whilst such a role and position may have been acknowledged before, far greater effort is now being devoted to providing appropriate policy, management and support frameworks (INK 2006). The inability of the formal sector of the economy to provide sufficient employment opportunities for Durban's growing population has led to the development and rapid growth of the informal sector. About 16% of the labour force is active in this sector. Most of these workers provide services such as domestic work, trading, catering and accommodation, for low wages. A significant proportion of the informal labour force are street traders who number about 20 000.<sup>5</sup> This number is expected to grow in the future. EThekweni Municipality has carried out a census of informal activities and identified areas with the most informal traders (see Figure 5) (KMT 2003).

**Figure 5: Proportion of informal traders using different markets, 2003**



Source: KMT 2003

## **1.7 Key issues and trends in the broader region or rural areas**

A number of key issues have been identified as affecting Kwazulu-Natal Province, within which

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<sup>5</sup> [www.ceroi.net/reports/durban/drivers/economy1/traders.htm](http://www.ceroi.net/reports/durban/drivers/economy1/traders.htm)

Durban is situated:

- low economic growth and high rate of unemployment;
- access to basic household and community services not being optimal;
- relatively high levels of poverty;
- low levels of literacy and skills development;
- a sick and dying population affected by HIV/AIDS;
- exposure to unacceptably high levels of crime and risk;
- many development practices that are still unsustainable;
- ineffectiveness and inefficiency of inward-looking local government, still prevalent in the municipality (eThekweni Municipality 2006a, 2006b);
- migration from the rural areas into the city, leading to under-development of the rural areas and accounting for the rapid rate of urban growth, accompanied by associated problems such as congestion, overcrowding and infrastructure gaps amongst others.

## 1.8 Levels of access to adequate housing and services

Table 5 presents data on the different levels of access to housing and services in the eThekweni Municipality. The data are disaggregated within the two broad categories of formal and informal housing.

**Table 5: Breakdown of levels of housing and services, by population group, 1996**

	Formal housing				Informal housing	
	High income High services	Formal housing High services	Formal housing Medium services	Formal housing Low services	Informal housing Medium services	Informal housing Low services
Households (%)	5	55	6	10	6	18
Households (N)	34 009	358 341	35 045	64 351	37 959	117 331
Population (N)	108 317	1 505 261	141 154	253 309	174 193	645 441
African (%)	13.0	43.0	89.0	98.5	95.4	99.0
Coloured (%)	2.0	5.0	1.0	0.3	0.3	0.2
Asian (%)	8.0	37.0	8.0	1.1	2.6	0.7
White (%)	77.0	15.0	2.0	0.1	1.7	0.1

Source: Marx & Charlton 2003

### *Backlogs in housing*

The extent of housing backlogs is demonstrated by the high proportion of household living in informal settlements (see Table 5). It is also clear that there is a need to address the disparity in housing as summarised in the table. The African population still occupies the worst housing, even though a significant proportion has moved up the ladder. Forty-three per cent of formal housing with high services is occupied by Africans. One-tenth of the white population falls within the 'informal housing and low services' category. Eighty per cent of the population within Durban live inside the urban edge (see Figure 4(c)), where more than 80% of the housing projects are implemented



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(eThekweni Municipality 2007). The municipality has embarked on a housing programme to respond to the housing backlog, with the aim of constructing 80 000 units per year over 6 years (2005–2010), while 70 settlements are earmarked for relocation (Byerley 2006).

## **1.9 Levels of unemployment, poverty and income inequality**

There has been little growth in the number of jobs provided by the DMA's formal sector over the past 20 years. The manufacturing sector, which is second only to government in the number of jobs provided, has been shedding jobs as firms restructure and become more capital-intensive. Despite a dynamic and growing SME sector, Durban still has very high rates of unemployment. It is also notable that there are very few economic opportunities in the former township areas.<sup>6</sup>

The apartheid legacy is still prevalent in post-apartheid South African cities in general and the city of Durban in particular, as evidenced by the high levels of poverty amongst black South Africans. According to Casale and Thurlow's analysis based on 1996 census data, poverty in Durban can be summarised as follows:

- The poorest in 40% of Census Enumerator Areas (EAs) earned less than R412 per month, and these areas contain over 44% of the total population of the Durban Metropolitan Area...
- In 20% of EAs, 23% of the population earn less than R296 per month.
- ... 93% of the total number of poor people are Africans... Poverty rates [across] gender groups reveal that while 29% of males are poor, 58% of women suffer from poverty. (Casale & Thurlow 1999)

Since the above analysis by Casale and Thurlow using 1996 data, income levels have not changed significantly. The income levels within the municipality are still low, as demonstrated by the fact that 56% of the population within the DMA earn less than R 1 600 per month; 71% earn less than R 3 200; while 13% earn between R3 200 and R6 400 (eThekweni Municipality 2007). These low incomes are observed in spite of the fact that Durban as a city is amongst the top three metropolitan areas in the country, with very high contributions to national GDP. It is apparent that a small proportion of the population earns disproportionately high incomes, and this trend is likely to continue given the prevailing economic environment and the pursuit of neoliberal policies which favour the richer inhabitants of the city.

## **1.10 The nature and organisation of civil society**

One of the most common features of social organisation in Durban is the emergence of community-based organisations (CBOs). CBOs are formed to address the immediately felt needs of marginalised communities and often come into the arena to promote the interests of marginalised communities against the interests of the more powerful stakeholders, especially the state and the business sector (Musvoto 2008). For instance in the South Durban Basin (SDB), the South Durban Community Environmental Alliance (SDCEA) was formed in 1995 to fight problems of environmental pollution caused mainly by petro-chemical industries in the SDB. The SDCEA is a democratic coalition of members of different communities that have struggled together to bring higher environmental standards to industries and residential communities that cohabit in the SDB.<sup>7</sup> The goals and objectives

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<sup>6</sup> <http://www.ceroi.net/reports/durban/drivers/economy1/state2.htm>

<sup>7</sup> <http://www.hnet.org/~esati/sdcea/whatissdcea.html>

of the SDCEA are:

- to protect and ensure an environment conducive to positive well-being of the citizenry;
- to promote 'clean' development that aids local job creation;
- to protect resources for present and future generations; and
- to ensure development that is not detrimental to the health of residents, especially children.

The case of the SDCEA clearly shows how civil society structures in Durban, and CBOs in particular, are formed by poor marginalised communities as a consequence of the use and abuse of power by the state and the private sector. In the SDB residential communities are located next to polluting chemical and petro-chemical industries, and face serious problems related to atmospheric pollution. It is against this background that the SDCEA was formed to represent the communities' quest for a healthier and cleaner environment.

Another example is that of the Isipingo Ratepayers' Association in Isipingo, a poor township in Durban, which represents community members who cannot pay their rents for basic services like water and electricity to the eThekweni Municipality.<sup>8</sup>

### *Crime in Durban*

Table 6 and Figures 6–8 summarise the views on crime held by the residents of Durban; they are obtained from a report produced by the Institute for Security Studies in 2001 (Robertshaw et al. 2001). They yield very critical information with regard to issues of fear in the city, disaggregated by locality and race. Indeed, high rates of crime have become a disincentive to growth in tourism and many other sectors in the city, with serious implications for its development.<sup>9</sup>

**Table 6: Parts of the city believed to be most unsafe, by race group**

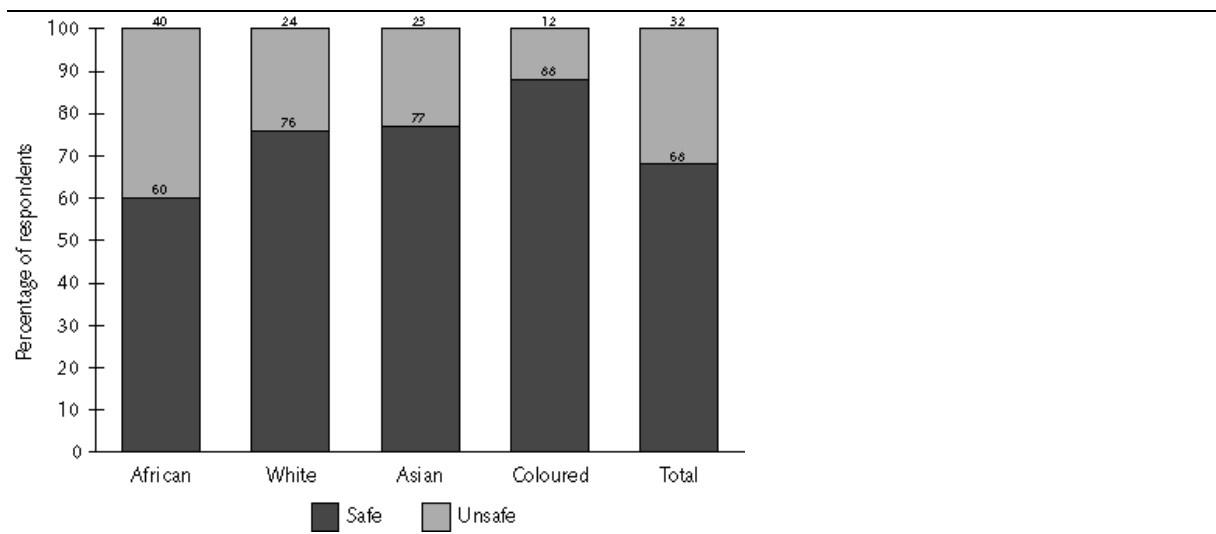
	African	White	Asian/Indian	Coloured	Total
	%	%	%	%	%
Inner city	22	89	76	96	53
Townships	54	3	9	4	29
Suburbs	13	8	13	0	12
Informal settlements	11	0	2	0	6
Total	100	100	100	100	100

Source: Robertshaw et al. 2001: Chapter 11

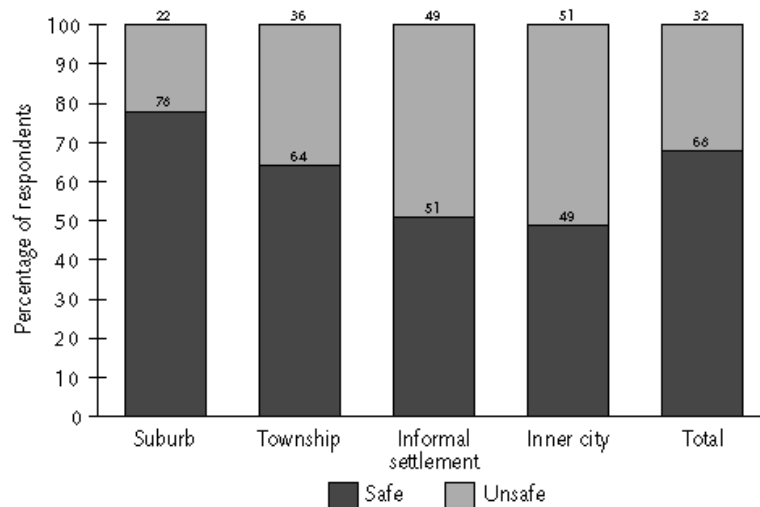
**Figure 6: How safe people feel walking in their areas during the day, by race**

<sup>8</sup> Some of the other CBOs that have emerged in Durban include: Bluff Peninsula Ratepayers Association, Merebank Residents Association, Wentworth Development Forum, Isipingo Island Institute, Clairwood Community Police Forum, Clairwood Rate Payers Association, Christ the King Church, Isipingo Environmental Committee, Joint Action Committee of Isipingo, Merebank West Community Coalition, Settlers Primary Environmental Committee, Umlazi Simunye Youth Development Forum, Wentworth Coordinated Services, Earthlife Africa (Durban) and the Wildlife and Environmental Society of South Africa (Durban South).

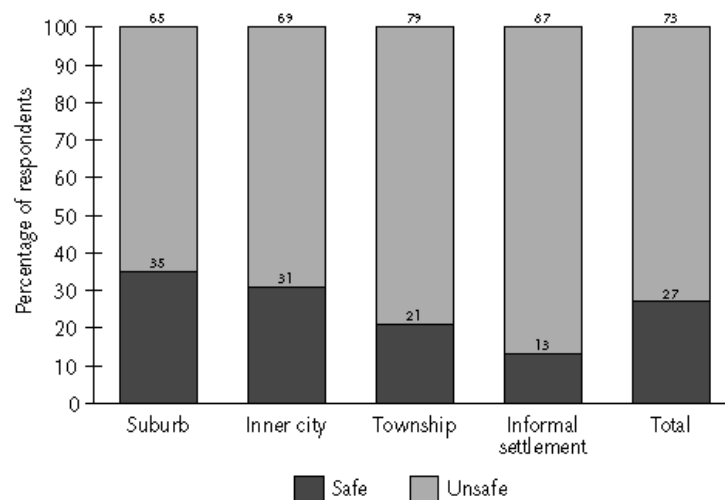
<sup>9</sup> [www.ceroi.net/reports/durban/drivers/economy1/state2.htm](http://www.ceroi.net/reports/durban/drivers/economy1/state2.htm)



Source: Robertshaw et al. 2001: Chapter 11

**Figure 7: How safe people feel walking in their areas during the day, by residential area**

Source: Robertshaw et al. 2001: Chapter 11

**Figure 8: How safe people feel walking in their areas after dark, by residential area**

Source: Robertshaw et al. 2001: Chapter 11

Crime has risen drastically since 2006, especially incidences of car hijacking, cash-in-transit robberies and burglaries (OSAC 2008). In the Institute for Security Studies report it is argued that dealing with perceptions of crime, particularly anxiety and fear of crime, is as important as reducing crime levels since these perceptions affect quality of life and have negative economic and political consequences. Moreover, they can also affect people's willingness to interact and cooperate with the government – particularly with the police, but also with local government crime prevention practitioners (Robertshaw et al. 2001: Chapter 11).

### *The role played by culture and ethnicity in civil society dynamics*

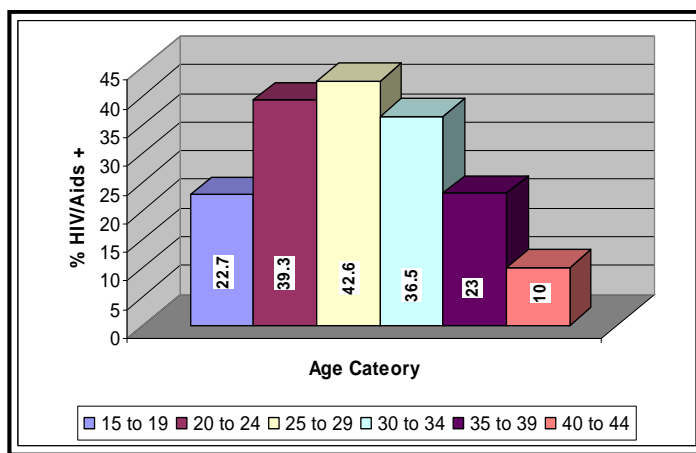
Normally CBOs are formed by people of the same socio-economic status and class who experience similar problems, for example ratepayers' associations in the poor townships of Durban. In Durban CBOs are more prevalent in the African, coloured and Indian communities that were previously

disenfranchised by the apartheid regime. CBOs actually reflect the material dynamics of the society. In this regard civil society in Durban is largely rooted in the resistance politics practised against the previous apartheid regime. They are active, robust and play an important role in shaping the society's dynamics. Amongst Africans and Indians, patriarchy and discrimination against women are still strong and this has a negative impact on women's participation in the development process. If planning is to incorporate meaningful participation by women in development initiatives, it must take into account the need to develop processes which recognise cultural and gender elements as key determinants/ elements in the planning and implementation of such initiatives.

### 1.11 Main health issues faced by the city and the region

EThekweni Municipality has the highest concentration of people living with HIV/AIDS on the African continent, and a high incidence of tuberculosis (TB) has also been recorded (KwaZulu-Natal Department of Health 2005, cited in DLGTA 2006). Figure 9 indicates the extent of HIV/AIDS prevalence in the province in 2005.

**Figure 9: Percentage of the population infected with HIV/AIDS, by age group, 2005**



Source: KwaZulu-Natal Department of Health 2005 cited in DLGTA 2006

### 1.12 Urban land prices and speculation in land

The percentage of land sales taking place below asking price in the greater Durban area is nearly 80%, according to the data provider service Prop Values.<sup>10</sup> Many property investors are at a crossroads as they mull over which sector of the market is most likely to provide the best returns. Although there are profits still to be made, the market is slowing. Developers are finding it increasingly difficult to find cost-effective opportunities for new projects. Costs of development land near the metropolitan areas are on the increase, as the amount of land available shrinks. It is a matter of time before the land and building costs start to outstrip achievable unit prices in new developments, according to Prop Values. This can only drive the expansion of the second-hand home market, where one can buy and renovate property for far less than the cost of purchasing a new unit.

#### *Land tenure systems operative in Durban*

There are legal and extra-legal land tenure systems in formal and informal settlements respectively. It is acknowledged that people in informal settlements, low-income housing schemes and in the rural

<sup>10</sup> <http://www.proprop.co.za/news7.shp>



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traditional areas around Durban bypass formal land tenure mechanisms and the Deeds Registration System in favour of home-grown local mechanisms to record land rights and land transactions (Rutsch Howard Consortium 2003). This presents a challenge to planners, municipalities and other organs of the state and legislators, and also to the land reform programme. Rutsch et al. argue that systems should be put in place to cater for the needs of emerging land users/owners who find conventional systems unaffordable, complex or intimidating, by extending freehold tenure to the communities in question. It is assumed that freehold tenure will bring the following benefits:

- full creditability in terms of ownership rights in the sale process;
- provision of collateral to raise money at the bank;
- prevention of illegal transactions (selling of sites);
- perceived protection for the family in the title upgrading process.

### **1.13 Main environmental issues facing planners, government and citizens**

A large portion of the population of KwaZulu-Natal is dependent on natural resources for their livelihoods. Key resources include grazing land for animals, fuel wood, water and access to productive land (fertile soil), and healthy ecosystems – all of which are under pressure. These biophysical life-support systems, and access to them, are threatened by problems such as increasing population levels, poverty, over-consumption, poor quality of and access to education, limited livelihood options, drought, flooding, the spread of HIV/AIDS, and threats to peace and security (Gumede & Taylor 2007). Durban's main environmental problems include pollution caused by the large industrial base (specifically in the SDB where residential areas are juxtaposed with polluting chemical industries) and conditions in unserviced informal settlements. Durban is also prone to flooding due to its proximity to the sea and low height above sea level. Many health problems in the metropolitan area are associated with poverty and are significant causes of death (Marx & Charlton 2003).

## **2. The planning system in KwaZulu-Natal**

The main pieces of legislation governing planning in Durban are the following:

- the Local Government: Municipal Demarcation Act (No. 27 of 1998);
- the Local Government: Municipal Structures Act (No. 117 of 1998);
- the Local Government: Cross Boundary Municipalities Act (No. 29 of 2000);
- the Local Government: Municipal Systems Act (No. 32 of 2000);
- the Local Government Laws Amendment Act (No. 51 of 2002);
- the Local Government: Municipal Finance Management Act (No. 56 of 2003);
- the Local Government: Municipal Property Rates Act (No. 6 of 2004).

### **2.1 Municipal by-laws**

By-laws are legislation passed by individual municipal councils. Section 156(2) in Chapter 7 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa states that '... [a] municipality may make and administer by-laws for the effective administration of the matters which it has a right to administer...' These

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matters are listed in Schedule 4, Part B of the Constitution. Currently, new by-laws are being formulated by the metropolitan municipalities, and can sometimes be found on their websites.

## **2.2 Provincial legislation and regulations**

Prior to 1994, provincial governments passed ordinances to assign powers and functions to municipalities. Ordinances were and still are enforced by municipal councils, and were originally published in the provincial gazettes. Some of the ordinances are gradually being phased out by the implementation of the Local Government Acts listed above, but most are still applicable. Provincial legislation may also repeal parts of ordinances or whole ordinances. It is necessary to read the new legislation closely to see to what extent ordinances are being repealed or are still in force.

Provincial legislation is passed by the provincial legislatures. In terms of section 114(1)(b) of the Constitution, provinces are allowed to initiate or prepare proposed legislation in the form of Bills, and pass, amend or reject proposed legislation. Once a Bill has been assented to and signed by the premier of a province, it becomes a Provincial Act. The Provincial Acts are entrusted to the Constitutional Court for safekeeping, in terms of section 124 of the Constitution.

According to the KwaZulu-Natal Provincial Government (2003) Land Use Management System (LUMS) Guidelines, there have been a number of moves to establish a unitary planning system in South Africa to counter the apartheid legacy. In 1995 the Development Facilitation Act (DFA) (No. 67 of 1995) was passed, and a Draft Green Paper on Development and Planning was issued in 1999. The Municipal Systems Act and the Municipal Structures Act were passed in 2000. In 2003 the KwaZulu-Natal Provincial Government proposed three Acts to repeal the regulations relating to Township Establishment and Township Regulations for Towns (1990) and Land Use and Planning Regulations (1990).

Key pieces of legislation currently affecting planning in the province and the DMA include the following:

- the Development Facilitation Act (DFA) (No. 67 of 1995);
- the KwaZulu-Natal Planning and Development Act (No. 5 of 1998);
- the National Forests Act (No. 84 of 1998);
- the National Water Act (No. 36 of 1998);
- the Town Planning Ordinance (No. 27 of 1949);
- the KwaZulu-Natal Land Affairs Act (No. 11 of 1992);
- the Housing Act (No. 107 of 1997) and White Paper on Housing (1994)
- the National Environmental Management Act (NEMA) (No. 107 of 1998);
- the White Paper on South African Land Policy (1997)
- the Green Paper on Development and Planning (1999)
- the Municipal Systems Act (No. 32 of 2000).

## **2.3 Types of urban plans produced**

The Municipal Systems Act requires each municipality to prepare an Integrated Development Plan (IDP). IDPs indicate in broad terms the intentions and responsibilities of each municipality, and the actions that various government departments and service providers must take in order to meet the

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needs of the people. An important component of the IDP is the Spatial Development Framework (SDF), which is a plan that shows how a municipality intends to develop its area. A SDF also contains a broad LUMS plan which outlines the actions that the municipality needs to take in order to manage use and development of land. Land use schemes are a very important part of the municipality's LUMS.

The land use schemes are produced from a combination of a number of aspects identified in the IDP and shown pictorially in the SDF plans. These schemes show the details of every individual site in a plan. A land use scheme must reflect the intentions of an IDP, but it is prepared in much greater detail than the IDP.

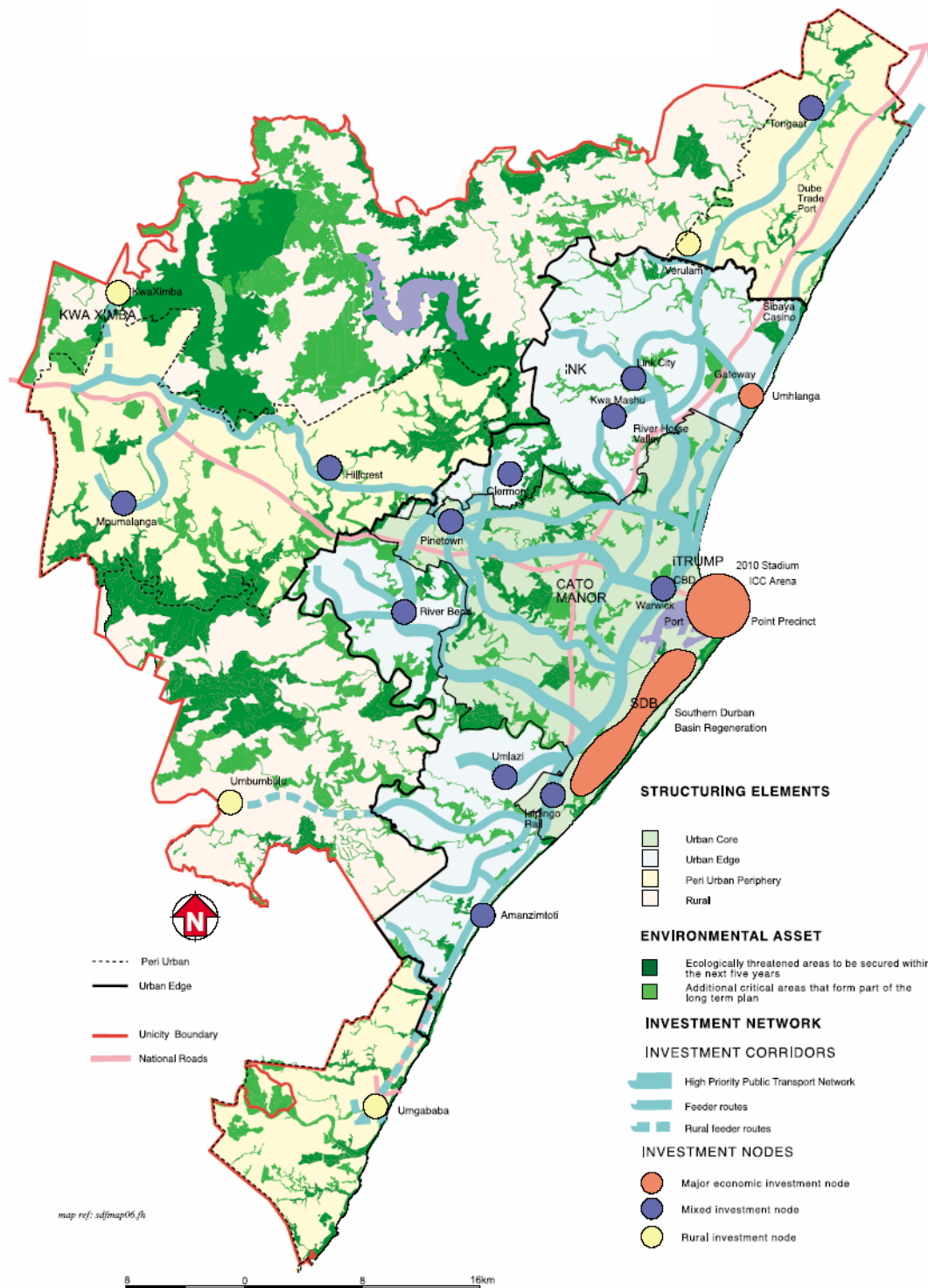
The four components of a SDF specified in the White Paper of 2001 are:

1. a policy for land use management;
2. guidelines for land use management;
3. a capital expenditure framework showing where a municipality intends to invest its money;
4. a strategic environmental assessment (KwaZulu-Natal Provincial Government 2003).

## **2.4 The current urban plan for Durban**

The eThekweni Municipality Spatial Development Framework 2006–2011 is the current urban plan for the city (see Figure 10).

**Figure 10: eThekweni Municipality Spatial Development Framework, 2006–2011**



Source: eThekweni Municipality 2006a

The plans identified in the previous section are expected to produce urban forms which are responsive to the environment, and are expected to lead to sustainable human settlements that are:



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- socially, environmentally and economically sustainable;
  - equal in terms of needs and access;
  - efficient;
  - protective of natural resources and special features;
  - of high quality as an environment (KwaZulu-Natal Provincial Government 2003).

The current plans are expected to lead to the compaction of the city through appropriate densification and infill of some of the vacant land. This is intended to address the anomalies of the apartheid era's segregated spatial planning legacy and to lead to more efficient utilisation of land. In addition mixed land use is being explored where appropriate, as exemplified by the changes of land use which are being permitted to incorporate commercial activities which are complementary to, for instance, residential areas. This is well demonstrated by the rezoning and reclassification of selected streets, which to a large extent has happened in response to pressures from developers and the migration of certain activities away from the main central business district (CBD) of Durban, which is congested and viewed as unsafe by many residents of the city.

## **2.5 Institutional arrangements for planning administration**

### ***Relationship between national and provincial government***

According to Burger (2003) the relationship between national, provincial and local government is described as distinctive, interdependent and interrelated. Craemer et al. (2004) explain that:

Schedule One of the Interim Constitution of South Africa 200/1993 established nine provinces. This legislation was carried over into the 1996 Constitution, where Chapter 6, sections 104 and 125, and Schedule 4 and Schedule 5 determine the powers and functions of the Provinces and their Provincial legislatures. Each of the nine provinces has its own Provincial legislature, which is responsible for making laws for the particular province in relation to matters listed in Schedule 5, Part A of the Constitution, which determine how the Province is run. Provinces have independent powers with regard to areas such as ambulance services, liquor licences and provincial planning, cultural and recreational activities and provincial roads. The National Council of Provinces aims to represent the interests of provinces in the National sphere of government. It is the second 'arm' of Parliament alongside the National Assembly.

It should be noted that provinces may exercise legislative and executive powers concurrently with national government in a number of spheres. National legislation has been assigned to each province in accordance with Schedule 4, Part A of the Constitution, which lists all the areas in which legislation has been assigned, for example the health services, public transportation and road traffic regulation (Craemer et al. 2004).

### ***Relationship between provincial and local government***

Section 154(1) of the Constitution states that '...[the] national government and provincial governments, by legislative and others measures, must support and strengthen the capacity of municipalities to manage their own affairs, to exercise their powers and to perform their functions...'. Local government is now considered an independent sphere of government, and municipalities enjoy an independent status as vehicles for delivery of services, which previously was not the case. Section

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156 of the Constitution confers executive authority and the right of administration on a municipality, with regard to matters such as building regulations, electricity and gas reticulation and water and sanitation services. A member of the Executive Council of a province may assign any power or function stemming from national or provincial legislation to a municipal council. Local government also has representation in the National Council of Provinces.

According to the KwaZulu-Natal Provincial Government (2003) LUMS guidelines, the Department of Traditional and Local Government Affairs provides training and information to empower the municipalities to prepare land use schemes. These land use schemes are introduced to all municipalities across the province, which includes both urban and rural areas. Other key government and service departments, for example the Departments of Environmental Affairs, Housing, Transport and Water Affairs, have an important role to play in the development of the land use scheme. The Department of Traditional and Local Government Affairs assists citizens and municipalities to implement land use schemes by:

- providing a training and development programme;
- providing financial assistance to the municipalities to prepare land use schemes;
- providing a Guideline Manual, which includes details of how to prepare a land use scheme.

## **2.6 The effectiveness of existing plans**

The plans that have been produced and implemented thus far have not been very effective. Yusuf and Allopi (2004) argue that new housing developments built since 1994 have perpetuated low-density urban patterns. Moreover, housing schemes, generally using project-linked housing subsidies, have promoted the familiar one-house-per-plot housing typology. These developments often take place at the urban periphery, thereby reinforcing the sprawling, fragmented, racially divided character of South African cities. The urban sprawl in the country has its origins in the colonial land utilisation patterns, apartheid segregation and the more recent impact of decentralisation, which has been a key feature of urban development in most South African cities. All the nine major cities in the country showed an increase in density between 1991 and 2005, but this may not be significant in terms of their sustainability in the short term given the relatively low density of South African cities compared to urban areas in other parts of the world. However, this excludes the localised informal settlements located in nearly all the urban centres in the country.

## **2.7 The process of plan production**

According to the Municipal Systems Act, an IDP Process Plan must be prepared, and should outline the following elements of process:

- the structures that will manage the planning process;
- how the public can participate and the structures that will be created to ensure this participation;
- the time schedule for the planning process;
- who is responsible for what;
- how the planning process will be monitored.

The process undertaken to produce an IDP consists of five phases;

- Phase 1: Analysis

- 
- Phase 2: Strategies
  - Phase 3: Projects
  - Phase 4: Integration
  - Phase 5: Approval

### *Participation in the IDP process*

In Durban, a range of factors have influenced the development decision-making process: the particular form of ward-based electoral representation; the earlier history of a municipality divided amongst several sub-municipalities (North, South, Central (North and South), Inner West, Outer West) and an over-arching metropolitan council which left a legacy of enduring personality and institutional conflicts; as well as a robust and technically competent group of officials with a strong culture of efficient and financially conservative government (Padayachee 2002, cited in Ballard et al. 2007). It should also be noted that an extensive municipality, which incorporates rural and peri-urban areas, brings into play other politically contested dynamics around the role of traditional authorities in local government (Beall 2006, cited in Ballard et al. 2007).

In eThekweni Municipality the IDP participation process was based on meetings with party caucuses to ensure the cooperation of councillors (Ballard et al. 2007). In training sessions, facilitators are advised to allow ward councillors to be the ones who chair the meeting and announce new projects in their wards. It is argued that councillors 'know their wards better'. However this is problematic, since some councillors are deliberately antagonistic to the whole process. One facilitator reported that they had run a meeting in which the councillor sat at the back with his supporters. When concerns were raised about a lack of delivery, the councillors blamed the officials and – in their words – 'hung them out to dry' (IDP facilitators meeting, 18 November 2003, cited in Ballard et al. 2007). A lack of cooperation from councillors is, of course, closely related to party affiliation and becomes an opportunity for opposition councillors to criticise the African National Congress (ANC)-led council, or undermine the participatory process by refusing to cooperate. Participatory processes, then, are far from free of the politics of representative democracy and party contestations. In fact, they generate new tensions between councillors and other locally based organisers or community representatives, who potentially compete for selection as ward representative, sometimes in violent conflicts (Kaarsholm 2005; *Mail & Guardian* 2006, cited in Ballard et al. 2007). It can also be argued, then, that the participatory processes can offer a stage for the very local contestations which shape electoral democracy, in some ways holding councillors accountable to communities by exposing local tensions and personality conflicts.

The social geography of the city also plays a large part in shaping the nature of the participatory experience, as the current political dynamics, organisational histories and political cultures of different local areas – the specific local experiences of democracy – influence the process (Ballard et al. 2007). In eThekweni, the local politics of community inputs to development planning are also refracted through the presence of traditional leaders in the peripheral areas of the municipality. In relation to the IDP, traditional leaders were at first reluctant to participate, given the wider provincial dynamics, especially the political stance of the Inkatha Freedom Party (IFP) on traditional authorities' participation in the metropolitan structures. Ballard et al. note that IFP traditional leaders, however, are caught between their party directives and the demands of their communities for service delivery. ANC-aligned traditional leaders are more able to participate, although tensions around the potential loss of influence, standing, income and land which follow on from housing-oriented service delivery, which removes land from the traditional leaders' control, is a concern. As eThekweni has undergone

the transition to a developmental local government, there has been a range of influences on the articulation and execution of its strategic vision. At particular moments, constellations of officials, councillors, consultants, ward-level representatives, traditional authorities, business leaders and senior ruling party members have taken the city's development policy, and its growth path, in specific directions. Consultant- and official-led processes of the late 1990s resulted in relatively technicist pro-growth strategies such as the Long-term Development Strategy and the subsequent commissioning of the Monitor Group report on economic growth (Ballard et al. 2007).

## **2.8 The relationship between 'forward' planning and the regulatory system in Durban**

According to the LUMS Guidelines, a land use scheme is linked to forward planning by making use of a series of statements of intent, which clarify how areas are to be developed. Statements of intent can be prepared for:

- the whole land use scheme in the form of a vision;
- large areas of a land use scheme;
- a street or a small set of sites;
- a special project (Kahn et al. 2001)

Moreover, the relationship between strategic planning and land use management is central to consistent decision-making on the use of land and its management. This relationship ensures that land use decisions are made in tandem with larger policy goals both at the provincial and national levels. The capacity to interpret land use objectives correctly in land use decision-making and spatial planning allows for the translation of strategic objectives into land use decision-making.

The White Paper on Spatial Planning and Land Use Management Guidelines, together with the Municipal Systems Act, states that there should be a direct relationship between SDFs and land use schemes. However, the municipality has to decide how this relationship is facilitated. The relationship is also influenced by the size and complexity of the given municipality. Current legislation implies that schemes can be formulated directly from the SDF prepared as part of an IDP, even though there is a tendency to have a gap between these two levels of planning, especially in local municipalities. A set of linking elements enables smoother transition between the SDF and the proposed scheme. These three components (linking elements, SDFs and land use schemes) go hand-in-hand, where SDFs give strategic direction, the linking elements provide quantification, more detailed spatial plans and operational and institutional guidance, and the schemes provide the basis for land use decision-making. The relationship between these three components is not necessarily hierarchical, and implementation of one component is not necessarily dependent upon completion of another. Together SDFs, linking elements and schemes should provide a holistic means for representative, informative and rational land use decisions to be made. This system also provides an opportunity for sectoral integration at three levels.

### ***Spatial Development Frameworks***

As explained above, in terms of the Municipal Systems Act all municipalities are required to prepare an IDP that includes a SDF. The SDF should:

1. give effect to the principals contained in the Development Facilitation Act;
2. determine spatial priorities;

3. set out spatial form objectives;
4. detail strategies and objectives for achieving the above, address spatial reconstruction and provide decision-making frameworks relating to the nature and location of development;
5. provide guidelines for a LUMS;
6. outline a Capital Investment Framework;
7. contain a Strategic Environmental Assessment;
8. align with neighbouring SDFs.



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### *The elements linking the SDF and the land use scheme*

The functions of the linking elements are to:

- translate strategic objectives to a level that will provide spatial representation and quantification to guide the preparation of a scheme;
- provide institutional guidance that takes account of existing government structures (including traditional authority areas);
- provide an indication of the phasing and timing of development.

Components of the linking elements should include:

1. spatial representation of the municipal area, indicating the location of:
  - ♦ different policy approaches to the scheme required (prescriptive or more flexible policy approaches)
  - ♦ special areas that need action plans
  - ♦ environmentally sensitive areas
  - ♦ high-potential agricultural land
2. a link to institutional decision-making mechanisms;
3. a dictionary for land use zones for the municipality;
4. appropriate quantification of the broader SDF proposal;
5. a phasing plan to guide the implementation of the plan across the municipality;
6. the detailing of principles suggested in the SDF to guide the preparation of the scheme and decision-making on applications for land use change (Kahn et al. 2001).

## **2.9 Donor and international agency planning initiatives in Durban**

The European Union (EU), together with the city, initiated a five-year Area Based Management and Development (ABMD) programme in eThekwin Municipality in 2003 which targeted localities with concentrated and/or high levels of poverty and various forms of deprivation which are partially attributed to the apartheid legacy.<sup>11</sup> The explicit intention of the programme included enhancing service delivery, addressing spatial and social inequalities, and facilitating a deepening of local democracy in five strategic geographically defined areas of the city. The ABMD is a catalyst and driver in identifying, testing and learning about innovative ways of implementing the city's IDP. The municipality was expected to provide the bulk of capital and operating funding for the 5 areas, with 35 million euros of support funding being made available by the EU over the 5 years of the programme. Other sources of funding are also being made available through a variety of mechanisms, including partnerships with the private sector.

Whereas each area has its own vision and approach, the five ABMD programmes all contain elements of the following overarching objectives:

1. arrest of decline/urban regeneration
2. responsive urban management
3. spatial reorganisation
4. establishment of area-level development platform

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<sup>11</sup> eThekwin Municipality Online, [www.durban.gov.za/durban](http://www.durban.gov.za/durban)

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5. improved public and residential environments
  6. enhanced and expanded infrastructure
  7. improved image of the area
  8. improved systems of governance and citizen participation
  9. re-orientation of delivery systems
  10. enhanced human capacity and the building of social capital
  11. citizen pride, satisfaction and safety
  12. equitable access to services, facilities and economic opportunities.<sup>12</sup>

The five ABMDs in the municipality expedited development in the strategic areas of the city. Bold and innovative approaches were adopted and experimentation with new ways of doing things was encouraged. This strategy is therefore a robust, richly textured one that embraces achieving different actions in different parts of the city, responding to local need and character, whilst at the same time supporting the strategic intent of the overall spatial framework of the city.

## **2.10 The planning system's impact on management of urban growth**

Urban growth in Durban has generally not addressed the issue of inequitable distribution of land and associated resources in the city effectively, as is evidenced by the increasing expansion and mushrooming of informal settlements and the persistent effects of the apartheid-era planning legacy that dominates the city space. The IDP approach has yet to be translated into concrete developments that have any impact on the physical growth of the city. The increasingly rapid expansion of the informal settlements threatens the sustainability of the city as greater disparities are revealed, shortages and inadequate services prevail and the masses become agitated. This scenario is worsened by the hunger and lack of wealth generation in the low-income areas. Statistics show that the number of poor people is increasing, and as this category of citizens expands, so does the likelihood of increased contestation for space and other resources in the country. Thus increasing poverty is a threat to the sustainability of the city, because of the likely consequences of impoverished, angry and hungry citizens constantly struggling for survival. The contestation for urban resources has already been demonstrated by the xenophobic attacks of 2008 on foreigners in the country, who are perceived by their low-income neighbours as 'taking their jobs'. The negative message sent by these attacks is likely to result in capital flight from the country in general and from the cities in particular.

## **3. Planning education at the School of Architecture, Planning and Housing, University of Kwazulu-Natal**

Postgraduate training in urban and regional planning was introduced at the University of Natal, now the University of KwaZulu-Natal (UKZN), in 1975, and has witnessed a steady and consistent growth over the years.

### **3.1 Overall objectives the curriculum**

The overall objective of the curriculum offered at UKZN is to produce critical thinkers who are strong conceptually, capable of undertaking research, and equipped with appropriate practical skills to enable them to contribute to the planning and development of sustainable human settlements

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<sup>12</sup> eThekweni Municipality Online, [www.durban.gov.za/durban](http://www.durban.gov.za/durban).

through use and application of up-to-date technologies. The first-year postgraduate courses provide a broad general foundation in spatial planning while the second year offers opportunities for in-depth specialisation. Research methods are taught from the first year in all modules, and culminate in the preparation of a dissertation.

While the emphasis of the programme is on the production of critical thinkers, students are also equipped with the rudiments of professional training. A lot of the focus is on current planning in South Africa and it includes the teaching of courses on IDPs, the law and the South African planning system. The training is conceptualised on the basis that a professional body would require members to have an academic background and two years' experience as a registered planner. This form of internship would provide a professional learning environment, mentorship, development and specialisation under the guidance of a registered planner. The two-year mentorship has fallen by the wayside as many recently qualified graduates are appointed 'up the ladder', without a good grounding. Hence they are unlikely to be effective mentors themselves. This situation may suggest that the training received is adequate, or that there is a need to review the curriculum to meet current market demands. Alternatively, it may suggest that there is a need to review the curriculum with a view to introducing short refresher courses, which can be offered periodically to cater for the special needs of these planners.

### **3.2 The balance of conceptual and technical components**

The current planning curriculum at UKZN is weighted towards conceptual issues but with a reasonable technical component. In the last 15 years the curriculum has been reviewed on 4 occasions in response to a changing environment and feedback from the graduates of the programme and from the profession. A restructuring has been undertaken to increase the technical content by focusing on hard skills, given that in the 1980s and 1990s the course had become strong conceptually and lost its technical content (Robinson 1998). The programmes offered are designed to ensure that students have a good conceptual understanding of core areas in planning, and that they develop key competencies and the capacity to think critically about planning. While much of the focus is on the core fields of study, the programme allows a level of specialisation in the second year to enable students to develop their understandings in greater depth and orientate them to focus on general planning, development or environmental concerns (UKZN 2007, 2008). The development planner is trained to have a strong conceptual understanding of development issues, concepts of planning, policy development including knowledge and skills in specific areas. The Environment and Planning programme is designed to ensure that students develop key competencies in planning and also the capacity to think critically about planning and sustainability.

### **3.3 Planning programmes offered**

The UKZN Planning Programme offers the following coursework master's and research degrees:

1. The Master of Town and Regional Planning (MTRP) which is a two-year professional qualification equipping planners to operate as generalist planners across a wide range of fields within planning.
2. The Master of Science (MSc) in Urban and Regional Planning (Development Planning) which is run in collaboration with the School of Development Studies. This is a two-year programme which focuses on economic and social development aspects and inter-sectoral coordination, with limited attention to spatial and physical planning.

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3. The MSc in Urban and Regional Planning (Environment and Planning) which is a two-year coursework programme run in collaboration with the School of Environmental and Life Sciences. It focuses on physical planning, with a strong emphasis on environmental dimensions and methods of assessment.
  4. The MSc in Urban and Regional Planning by research.
  5. The Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) in Urban and Regional Planning (by research).

Table 7 sets out in detail the structure of the various master's degree programmes offered by the School of Architecture, Planning and Housing.

**Table 7: Structure of master's programmes in planning at UKZN**

<b>Master of Town and Regional Planning (320c)</b>					
<b>Core module</b>	<b>Course name</b>	<b>Level</b>	<b>Credit</b>	<b>Time allocated (nominal hours)</b>	<b>Assessment criteria</b>
TNPL813 H1	Development & Planning of Cities	1	16	160	3 seminar papers, 1 weighted at 50%
TNPL820 HC	Local Spatial Planning	1	16	160	Assignments & tutorials (20%) Examination (30%) Project & project oral (50%)
TNPL819 HC	Local Area Analysis	1	16	160	Assignments & tutorials (20%) Statistics test (20%) Examination 30% Problem-based local area project (30%)
TNPL818 HC	Environmental Planning	1	8	80	1 coursework assignment
TNPL817 HC	Urban Spatial Policy (+ Urban Economics & Land Use Theory)	1	8	80	2 coursework assignments
TNPL815 HC	Integrated Development Planning	1	16	160	Assignments (70%) Examination (30%)
TNPL801 HC	Implementation in Integrated Development Plan	1	16	160	Presentation of case studies (30%) Assignments (70%)
TNPL803 H2	Planning Theory & Public Policy	1	16	160	Examination (50%) 2 essays (50%)
TNPL821 HC	Regional Development	1	16	160	3 papers (90%) 1 poster (10%)
TNPL812H1	Planning Law	2	8	80	1 examination
TNPL806H1	Professional Practice (Planning)	2	8	80	Simulations, seminars, presentation & assignment
TNPL814H1	Dissertation Proposal	2	16	160	Dissertation proposal
TNPL8SDH2	Short Dissertation: Planning	2	96	960	Dissertation (100%)
TNPL805 H2*	Local Economic Development	2	16	160	3 essays & applied project; simulated project part of assessment

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TNPL802*	Layout and Subdivision	2	32	160	2 simulated projects (layout project & built form - practicals) & 2 presentations
TNPL822 HC*	Urban Reconstruction	2	32	320	Presentations, seminars & assignment
HOUS802 HC*	Advanced Housing Policy & Finance	2	32	320	4 essays (weighted at 50%) 1 Policy Formulation project (50%)
HOUS803HC*	Project Management & Evaluation	2	32	320	1 project paper (weighted 100%)
TNPL807 H1	Special Studies A (courses under consideration as appropriate from year to year)	1	32	320	Examination papers and/or assignments
TNPL807 H2	Special Studies B (courses under consideration as appropriate from year to year)	2	32	320	Examination papers and/or assignments
<b>Electives</b>	* Total elective value of 64 credits; at least 32 credits <i>must</i> be from Planning/Housing. Not more than 32 credits may be taken from cognate disciplines. In the mid-year vacation, students who do not have planning experience are offered a placement (internship) to familiarise them with planning practice.				

**MSc in Urban and Regional Planning (320)  
(Environment and Planning)**

Core module	Course name	Level	Credit	Time allocated (nominal hours)	Assessment criteria
TNPL820HC	Local Spatial Planning		16	160	
TNPL819HC	Local Area Analysis		16	160	
TNPL818HC	Environmental Planning		8	80	
TNPL817HC	Urban Spatial Policy		8	80	
TNPL815HC	Integrated Development Planning		32	320	
TNPL803H2	Planning Theory & Public Policy		16	160	
TNPL812H1	Planning Law		8	80	
TNPL806HC1	Professional		8	80	

	Practice (Planning)				
TNPL814H1	Dissertation Proposal		16	160	
TNPL8SDH2	Short Dissertation: Planning		96	960	
ENVS700H1	Research Methods in Environmental Sciences		16	160	Essays (100%)
ENVS814H1	Sustainable Development		16	160	Fieldwork (1/3) Essay (2/3)
ENVS712P1	Analytical GIS & Advanced Spatial Modelling		16	160	
GEOG727H2	Urban Studies		16	160	Fieldwork (1/3) Essay (2/3)
<b>Electives</b>	Electives to the value of 16 credits from offerings in Planning or Geography, Environmental Management or any cognate discipline with the approval of the Programme Director.				

**MSc in Urban and Regional Planning (320c)**  
**(Development Planning)**

Core module	Course name	Level	Credit	Time allocated (nominal hours)	Assessment criteria
TNPL803H2	Planning Theory & Public Policy	1	16	160	
TNPL812H1	Planning Law	1	8	80	
TNPL806H1	Professional Practice (Planning)	2	8	80	
TNPL814H1	Dissertation Proposal	2	16	160	
TNPL8SDH2	Short Dissertation: Planning	2	96	960	
TNPL815HC	Integrated Development Planning	1	32	320	
DEVS803HC	Comparative Development Problems & Policies		16	160	Seminar presentation & participation Think pieces 2 essays
DEVS807HC	Economics of Development 1	2	16	160	Seminars & presentations 1 short essay & 1 long essay

DEVS8020HC	Research Methods 1		16	160	6 practicals @ 1.5 hrs Qualitative exercises Observation exercises Data collection instruments Project report
DEVS816 HC*	Population & Development				2 short assignments 1 long essay
DEVS819 HC *	Poverty & Inequality		16	160	Seminars & participation 1 short essay & 1 long essay 1 practical exercise
DEVS804 HC*	Demographic Methods I		16	160	5 homework practicals & 1 test Examination
DEVS805 HC*	Demographic Methods II		16	160	3 computer practicals & 2 tests Examination
<b>Electives</b>	<p>Modules to value of 32 credits from Development Studies offerings, plus modules to value of 32 credits from Planning offerings, plus a module to value of 16 credits from Development Studies OR from Planning OR from offerings in cognate or other fields. Students may choose from the following modules:</p> <p><i>Population and Development, Poverty and Inequality, Informal Economy, Demographic Methods I and II, Migration and Urbanisation, Social Policy, Introduction to Population Studies, Urban Reconstruction (32 credits), Local Economic Development (16 credits), Regional Development (16 credits), Environmental Planning (8 credits), Urban Spatial Policy (8 credits).</i></p>				

#### Research master's degree

Core module	Course name	Level	Credit
TNPL8MDHB	Dissertation on Planning	192	1 year (full-time) 1 920 2 years (part-time)

#### Research PhD

TNPL9DOHB	Doctoral thesis	384	3 years (full-time) 3 840 5 years (part-time)
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Notes: \* = electives

Each 16-credit module represents 160 notional study hours while each 32-credit module represents 320 notional study hours.

Core modules are modules prescribed in a specific programme. Doctoral degrees are attainable by research only (80 000 words/260 pages). A minimum of two years is required for full-time students while part-time students may be supervised for up to five years.

### 3.4 Teaching methods

Teaching methods used in the programmes vary, given the wide range of courses that are necessary for the training of the different types of planners. In general formal lectures are supplemented by



seminars, facilitated group discussions and student presentations. Individual support is also offered to students where needed. Various media are used, whilst field trips are often conducted to deepen students' understanding of the relationship between theory and practice (UKZN 2007). The studio-based courses, where students engage in project work, are Local Area Analysis, Local Spatial Planning and Integrated Development Planning. Elements of computer-aided drawing (CAD) and geographic information systems (GIS) techniques are incorporated into these studio courses to enable students to use digital techniques in their production of plans.

### **3.5 Admission requirements**

Candidate are eligible to register for the degree if they are graduates of the university or they have been admitted to graduate status and have a sufficiently high standard in their previous academic records. The average mark required is 65%.

### 3.6 Assessment

The programme uses a combination of continuous assessment, examinations and assignments to assess students. Most courses are assessed on the basis of continuous assessment, but examinations are held for Planning Law, Local Area Analysis, Local Spatial Planning, and for Integrated Development Planning. Oral examinations are used to adjust marks in project-based courses. In all courses, a sub-minimum of 40% exists for all assignments and examinations. In the Local Area Analysis course, a sub-minimum of 50% exists for the Statistics component, and the test for this component is treated as an examination, with a 45% minimum required to qualify for a re-test (UKZN 2007). In all cases coursework and examination are set and marked by the staff involved in teaching the course (internal examiners). Marks for all courses and projects are moderated by external examiners.

### 3.7 Class numbers and staff-student ratios

On average the staff-student ratio ranges between 1 : 10 and 1 : 15 at any given time. Table 8 shows the student graduation numbers for the three master's programmes for the period 1990–2008.

**Table 8: Number of students, by degree and completion date, 1990–2008**

	Master of Town & Regional Planning	MSc. Urban & Regional Planning (Development Planning)	MSc. Urban & Regional Planning (Environmental Planning)
1990	15		
1991	10		
1992	18		
1993	16		
1994	16		
1995	12		
1996	17		
1997	11		
1998	13		
1999	09		
2000	14		
2001	11	03	
2002	12	04	02
2003	09	01	
2004	03	–	–
2005	05	–	–
2006	07	02	01
2007	07	10	03
Total	205		

Source: UKZN DMI 2008

### 3.8 Student throughput rates

Overall throughput rates for students registered for the programme are as follows:

- 50–60% of students graduate within 2 years of starting the programme.

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- 70–75% of students graduate within 4 years.
  - 25% of students complete coursework but fail to complete their dissertations for a number of reasons; 5% of the 25% are incapable of doing the dissertation.
  - 20% of students are caught up in work situations and therefore not under any pressure to complete their dissertations. Some are already well placed and occupy senior positions, and therefore see no reason to complete the degree programme.

### 3.9 Library and IT resources

Students are exposed to the latest information on planning issues, and have access to cutting-edge IT resources. The School of Architecture, Planning and Housing has a well stocked, dedicated branch library with relevant books, journals and periodicals. It contains the most important source of planning and design materials. Resources within the other university libraries are also available. There is a dedicated 24-hour planning studio which is equipped with computers within a safe environment.

IT resources are adequate and include up-to-date software. Planning students have access to the School's computer laboratory. GIS is available in the LAN, the Media Centre and planning studios. For those wishing to use CAD, AutoCad is also available in the School. Students wishing to use GIS can also use the GIS laboratory in the School of Environmental Sciences.

### 3.10 Curriculum revisions

There have been a number of reviews of the planning programme curriculum within the last 15 years. This is attributable to the high staff turnover and developments in the socio-political environment in the country. The main revisions resulting from these reviews are the following:

1993

- Introduction of the course in Statistics and Socio-Economic Analyses.
- Setting up of Regional Planning Specialities for the second-year programme.

1996

- Introduction of Urban Land Economics and the conceptual component focused on evaluations and property development, as a result of having access to new staff skills and the perception of a changing environment.

2000

- Complete re-structuring of the first-year courses.
- Introduction of the IDP course with three parts – theory, technical and practice – changed to theory, technique and project in 2008.
- Regional Development course introduced
- Course on Cities introduced.

The reason for this review of curriculum was that it was argued by those in practice that new graduates lacked practical skills. As a result new courses were introduced and others revised to respond to these market demands.

2003

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- The IDP focus was on implementation and comprised technical, business plan and project management skills.

2004/05

- Re-structured first-year courses: introduction of Local Area Analysis and Local Spatial Planning.
- Urban Reconstruction introduced (second-year elective course).

More generally, the periods of programme design and revision in the School can be characterised in the following way:

*1975–1981: Establishment phase*

- The postgraduate programme was introduced in 1975 on a full-time basis with a staff component of three. This phase was characterised by the setting up of courses in line with UK courses but with modelling of local conditions. The programme was recognised by the South African Planning Institute (SAPI). The total number of students was six.

*1982–1990: Liberal period*

- Liberal thinking and reform became dominant with a focus on change. This was marked by the admission of large student numbers, ranging from 15 to 20 students. There were staff changes and the period was dominated by leftist thinking. There was a focus on policy work. The politics of planning was high on the agenda in the programme.
- At the beginning of the 1990s the Housing Programme was started.
- There was periodic adjustment in the programme and concern about how to roll it out in response to the changing environment and staff composition.

*1993–2005: Consolidation phase*

- There was a focus on theory and economic development, policy and regional planning, as well as periodic shifts in electives offered in the second year.

*2006–2009: Changing of the guard*

- New directions are intended to be derived arising from the collective interests of the staff, the environment and new priorities.

## **4. Links to the planning profession and professional accreditation systems**

It is recognised that in order for the programme to remain relevant, it needs to maintain a strong relationship with the planning profession. Thus, a number of practising planners are invited to make input into the course through external examinations and guest teaching on an ad hoc basis, in addition to the more substantive inputs by colleagues from professional practices (UKZN 2007). The programme has strong linkages with the SAPI. There is always a School representative in the local SAPI branch. This relationship has been consistent and in the past there have been attempts to get students to attend the SAPI committee meetings, but without much success.

Accreditation takes place every four years.

The provisions of the Planning Professions Act (No. 36 of 2002) govern the registration of professional planners in South Africa. Students are required to undergo a period of two years' practical training

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after graduation in order to register. Such training must cover a number of specified areas of planning practice and must be under the supervision of a professional planner registered with the South African Council for Planners. At present only graduates of the MTRP programme are eligible for registration. Students are also encouraged to nominate a representative to attend the KwaZulu-Natal branch of SAPI in order to incorporate them into the activities of the profession (UKZN 2007).

## 5. Preparing students to operate in 21st-century urban and regional environments

The current planning curriculum at UKZN prepares students to a large extent to operate in the 21st-century urban environment, at both the conceptual and practical levels. The lectures are based on current issues and informed by past experiences. It is, however, acknowledged that there will be a need to revise the curriculum from time to time in order to take into account the changing dynamics in the country and the globalised world at large. Rural-to-urban migration in particular is likely to become increasingly complex and a challenge to the planning of the country's cities. Indeed, the rate of urbanisation witnessed in African cities is unprecedented; coupled with the fact that this population shift is not accompanied by economic development, it gives rise to an increasing concentration of poverty in the cities, particularly in the informal settlements, with associated deficiency and/or lack of services. The result is the continued informalisation of the cities accompanied by deterioration of the physical environment and a general feeling of despondency amongst the poor. In addition, the contestation for space is expected to increase in African cities as the citizenry claim their rights to various resources, including land. Therefore there is an urgent need to re-think how planning is to be undertaken. It must be able to respond efficiently and effectively to the changing city dynamics, including the likely potential conflicts. The revised curriculum needs to take cognisance of the need for urgency and efficiency in the delivery of services. Issues of ethnicity as potential conflict triggers need to be incorporated into the curriculum, including a greater focus on poverty and the informalisation of cities within a context in which planning can facilitate the generation of wealth for the cities' inhabitants. Such developments in the curriculum would facilitate the planning of sustainable human settlements.

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