

**AN INVESTIGATION OF INTEGRATED DEVELOPMENT
PLANNING (IDP) AS A MECHANISM FOR POVERTY
ALLEVIATION IN GRAHAMSTOWN IN THE MAKANA
MUNICIPALITY, EASTERN CAPE, SOUTH AFRICA**

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Abstract

Poverty among individuals, households or communities is not a static condition. There are many factors which contribute to its causes and depth. In South Africa the economic gaps imposed by the previous apartheid government aggravated economic inequalities and caused considerable disparities, which has resulted in high unemployment rates. Inequalities were also manifest in the neglect of infrastructural and service provision as well in the effective absence of independent governance among some race group. This led to a call for pro-active initiatives by the post-1994 democratic government to remedy the living condition of the previously disadvantaged people. As part of its poverty relief drive the South African government has embarked on a series of developmental initiatives in bringing infrastructure related services to the poor and to reduce the enormous prevailing backlog, with the aim of increasing community participation, improving service delivery and promoting the upliftment of the lives of poor people through the medium of local governance.

This study investigated the Integrated Development Planning, which has been undertaken in Grahamstown in the Makana Municipality in the Eastern Cape to respond to the prevailing poverty and underdevelopment among the poor communities. Relying on their developmental mandate to initiate and co-ordinate all development activities within their area of jurisdiction through the IDP, the Makana Municipality has drawn up a development strategic plan in conjunction with the local communities and with other stakeholders and organisations to identify and assess development backlogs within the communities with the aim of addressing such backlogs.

This study revealed from the interviews conducted with some municipal personnel and questionnaires administered to sampled residents of Grahamstown that some faces of poverty, such as unemployment and lack of access to some of the most basic of infrastructure such as, sanitation facilities, water, electricity, formal house, education, security and recreation facilities are apparent in Grahamstown. However, the Makana Municipality through, the IDP has achieved some notable feats in the provision of providing some of the basic amenities such as water, housing, electricity and sanitation

albeit at a slow rate. The mechanism of delivery is hampered by bureaucratic settings within government and the ambiguity attached to some of the projects.

The service and infrastructural developments targeted towards the poor and the involvement of communities in the affairs of the local government might be seen as a partially panacea for poverty alleviation in South Africa. However the capacity of the local governments to effectively carry out this developmental challenge assignment might be a new twist in the developmental challenge facing local governments in South Africa. The thesis provides an overview of the Makana Municipality IDP and the degree to which is serving as one mechanism to address poverty in the Grahamstown urban area.

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CHAPTER ONE

1.1 Introduction

Poverty alleviation has been a major concern for most governments of developing countries as well as for national and international development agencies for a considerable period of time. The South African government is no exception and in its quest to eradicate and alleviate poverty it has prioritized poverty alleviation in its development agenda (Oosthuizen, *et al*, 2003). Poverty is seen as being a multi-faceted phenomenon and everyone's view and experience of poverty is a little different, based on the type of poverty that prevails in that locality. The basic forms of poverty include; alienation from the family, food insecurity, crowded homes, usage of basic forms of energy, lack of access to social services, lack of adequately paid secure jobs and fragmentation of the family (World Bank, 2003).

In order to fight poverty, there is need for governments to put in place mechanisms and plans to alleviate poverty and a need to monitor and evaluate the impact of their policies and programmes on the reduction of poverty and how poverty levels have change over time. Mullen (1995) is of the view that formulating an appropriate strategy for poverty alleviation and the design of an effective delivery mechanism for reaching out to the poor is being actively debated and sought after by among others concerned agencies and by individual governments.

In a related context to that of addressing poverty, Midgley (1994) defines social development, as a social change designed to promote people's welfare in conjunction with a comprehensive process of economic development. The ultimate objective of social development, according to Midgley (1994) is to bring about sustained improvement in the well being of the individual, family, community and society at large. The reduction or eradication of mass poverty, inequality and conditions of underdevelopment are widely accepted indicators of social progress. Midgley (1994) however opined that the dimension of social development should be manifest in the form of improved social

welfare; health; education; housing; urban and rural development; and land reform which would to a large extent, reduce poverty.

The nature of poverty in South Africa is regarded as being quite different from that of other countries, because “two economies persist in one country”; which is seen as being a result of the legacy of apartheid that divided the country into race and class categories (Irinnews, 2003). While there are a significant number of structurally impoverished households, there are also quite a number that move in and out of poverty (Irinnews, 2003). The Eastern Cape is one of South Africa’s poorest provinces, with a relatively high unemployment rate and a relatively large rural population compared with other provinces in the country. In many cases settlements are often cut off from accessing social services, which often stems from isolation enforced by apartheid planning (Irinnews, 2003).

The South African Government since 1994 in its quest to effectively address the problem of poverty and inequality and ensure total transformation of South Africa society has sought to provide a policy framework, regulations, policies and laws for integrated and coherent socio-economic progress based primarily on and stemming from the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) (ANC, 1994). The basic principles of the RDP, according to its white paper are those of integration and sustainability, people driven processes, peace and security, nation building, meeting basic needs and building infrastructure. The RDP is seen as a mechanism that will bring about a people centered society, which measures progress by the extent to which it has succeeded in securing social development, prosperity, liberty and happiness in the lives of the people through meeting their basic needs and building infrastructure (Marais, 1998).

This thesis examines the degree to which such poverty has been and is been addressed in the post-apartheid era in one Eastern Cape town, namely Grahamstown in the Makana Municipality, specifically through the mandated actions of local government. Poverty relief through one specific mechanism, the Integrated Development Planning (IDP) process is the focus. Whilst there are a range of poverty alleviation mechanisms in place,

as this is the primary municipal planning tool which can impact on poverty it was selected for special study and assessment.

1.1.1 Responding to Poverty in South Africa and the Local Government Mandate

Mullen (1995) is of the view that poverty reduction and alleviation have bounced back to a priority position on the agenda of most development initiatives. He opined that a more critical appraisal of national and international interaction methods is now being applied to the poverty eradication problem. Mullen (1995) believes that the failure of past efforts to address poverty alleviation, such as Structural Adjustment Programmes (SAPs) has necessitated the need to move towards policies and programmes that will constitute a direct attack on poverty and as such have poverty reduction and alleviation as explicit central objectives. In the South African case, according to the 1998 Local Government White Paper in South Africa (RSA, 1998), policies and programmes specifically aimed at alleviating poverty should be initiated in ways that will have a maximum impact on social development and on meeting the basic needs of the poor.

This has led to the passing of the development mandate to the local level and as such has required and necessitated the introduction of Integrated Development Plans by municipalities which encompass all the activities of the local government and require the putting into place of necessary infrastructural projects to help address poverty at each local level. This has been made obligatory in terms of the 2000 Municipal Systems Act (RSA, 2000) which obliges local authorities to clearly determine explicit development strategies which can reduce poverty. The National Government in its quest to bring the government closer to the people, has sought to use local governments as a key to mechanism for achieving this (RSA, 1998). Local Governments, according to the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (Act 108 of 1996) are required to serve a political representative function with active community participation in order to achieve improved service delivery, social and economic development and a healthy environment. In other words, they are to give priority to meeting local needs through service delivery, local economic development, spatial planning and health care planning (RSA, Section

153a, 1996). In addition, local governments have to be ‘developmental’ and address the needs of the marginalized in terms of the Local Government white paper (RSA, 1998).

Mokate (2001) is of the view that the key issue for local government in South Africa in meeting the basic needs of the people is to ensure that their own service provision priorities are in line with the national framework of meeting basic needs, all of which include focused targets on health care, basic education, housing, social security, water and sanitation. The importance of providing social and economic infrastructure, which can help ensure that poverty alleviation takes place, cannot be over-emphasized. Local authorities have an important role to play in the proper targeting of services and programmes that will help reduce and alleviate poverty (Bird *et al*, 1995).

Given that the IDP is the principal municipal planning instrument which documents and details infrastructural and developmental goals in all towns in South Africa, it is therefore critical to examine in each local context, as it provides the key to the poverty alleviation framework, mechanism identified and yardsticks adopted by local governments. While it is acknowledged that poverty relief requires more than just municipal action, the relative role played by this form of intervention is assessed in this thesis in the light of the need to establish just how effective municipalities can in fact be in helping to contribute to poverty relief.

1.2 Problem Statement

It is no gains say that most people in South Africa don’t have access to adequate public infrastructure and as such this is one of the primary contributing cause as to why they are vulnerable to poverty. According to Berg-Schlosser, D., & N. Kerstings (2003) such people are housed in substandard houses, they are under-educated and unemployed. Berg-Schlosser, D., & N. Kerstings (2003) is of the view that the growth of their vulnerability increases the spread of poverty in their societies. The need to tackle poverty in poor communities has necessitated that the government, international agencies and NGO’s must pay more attention to the poor so that they can be helped to live more fruitful lives and become the instruments for the growth of democracy (Berg-Schlosser,

D., & N. Kerstings, 2003). One agency, which can help to address poverty, is the responsible local government in each area. This thesis seeks to gauge the degree to which one South African municipality, specifically through its prescribed responsibilities has and is contributing to poverty alleviation locally. This study uses the Makana municipality's interventions through its IDP in the urban center of Grahamstown as the key research focus in this regard.

1.2.1 Poverty in Grahamstown

Sirgy *et al* (2003) states that the Eastern Cape comprises two former 'homelands' whose development was neglected under the apartheid government. The vast majority of its population is African and rural, jobs are scarce and the standard of living is low. Most Eastern Cape workers who were formerly employed as migrant workers on the mines near Johannesburg are out of work. The provincial unemployment rate is 32.5% compared against South Africa's 28.3% rate (South Africa Institute of Race Relations, 2000). Those who are employed earn lower wages than in other parts of the country. Although the economic situation in the Eastern Cape is depressed, the city of Grahamstown never-the-less offers some unique development opportunities for young people. Grahamstown is a leading educational center known for its excellent secondary institutions. It is also the home to Rhodes University, which sponsors a number of local students from disadvantaged backgrounds. The town center and university campus are within the sight of Grahamstown West (i.e. the township) and are within walking distance (South Africa Institute of Race Relations, 2000).

In Grahamstown there is the presence of abject poverty among the community, which arises as a result of unemployment, underemployment, lack of access to infrastructure, living in shacks and sub-standard houses as well as economic and social vulnerability. This is compounded by the fact that there are few economic activities going on in the area. As revealed in the 2001 census data about 49.26% of the total labour force is unemployed, about 11.79% of the population has never been to school, while only about 10.4% proceed to higher education. It was also observed from the figures that households without paid income increased from the previous census while a large majority of

household earns below R 38 400 annually. Some households still live in informal and traditional homes and the majority of the people do not have their own means or mode of transport to get to and from work and school. Some households still use other forms of energy like paraffin and candles and some households are not connected with the water borne sewer system (StatsSA, 2001).

The need for improved standards of living and access to better infrastructure, which is seen as a partially panacea in addressing poverty, has necessitated the introduction of Integrated Development Planning into the workings of the local government. This has been done to provide needed infrastructural facilities to address aspects of poverty and deprivation and in so doing creating employment opportunities for the unemployed (RSA, 2000). Ascertaining the degree to which the Makana Municipality's IDP as applied in Grahamstown is ensuring that development is taking place on the ground and as a result whether poverty is being addressed is the key focus of this study. Grahamstown is the only significant urban center in the Makana municipality (there are only two other very small villages (Alicedale and Riebeeck East) and as such this study, like the majority of the municipality's endeavours focuses exclusively on this one center.

1.3 Rationale

The Integrated Development Plan is aimed at integrated development and management of the area under the jurisdiction of the municipality and is developed in terms of its allocated powers and duties. In terms of the Systems Acts (RSA, 2000) municipalities are required to prepare a five-year strategic plan that is reviewed annually in consultation with local communities and other stakeholders within the municipality. The IDP seeks to promote integration by balancing social, economic and ecological aspects of sustainability without compromising the institutional capacity required in implementation (Akani, 2002).

The IDP is seen as a local pathway to sustainable development in South Africa, and it is used to foster more appropriate service delivery and infrastructural development by providing the framework for economic and social development within a municipality and,

by implication, it facilitates poverty relief. The associated planning process is meant to arrive at decisions such as the design of appropriate municipal budgets, land management, the promotion of local economic development and institutional transformation in a consultative, systematic and strategic manner (Akani, 2002). This will ideally allow for the creation of infrastructure such as housing, water, sanitation, public toilets, roads, electricity, transport, community and social services that will meet basic needs as well as encourage the support and participation of people in making key decisions about where the projects should be located and how to manage them so that they will serve their purpose optimally (Burton, 1997).

In view of the above, there is need for proper planning and implementation of the projects, as well as monitoring and assessment of success on the part of local governments in order to help eliminate poverty among their populace. In this context, the IDP seeks to address poverty as its programme is focused on improving the lives of the poor by putting in place the necessary infrastructure and mechanisms that will ideally permit the attainment of social and economic development.

1.4 The Research Questions

This study was designed to investigate how the IDP is being applied in Grahamstown by the Makana municipality and whether it is helping to address poverty. The principal research questions were as follows:

- What are the socio-economic profiles of people living in areas with high poverty levels Grahamstown?
- What are the most common socio-economic and infrastructural backlogs in Grahamstown?
- What are the municipal plans for the eradication of poverty in accordance with the IDP?
- What are the current and future development options?
- What are the opportunities and challenges that are facing the municipality in terms of service delivery?
- How are these plans translated into action strategies?

- What has been undertaken to date and to what degree have IDP goals been met?
- What are the local peoples views about the IDP projects in terms of their participation and its delivery?

1.5 Aims and Objectives of the Study

The key research aims were:

- 1) To identify current poverty related backlogs in Grahamstown's townships.
- 2) To detail what the municipal personnel's responses have been to the new IDP requirements and what they regard they have achieved to date in terms of the administration and implementation of services.
- 3) To identify and gauge the effectiveness of the Makana Municipality's IDP and associated poverty relief programmes and to establish the views of the residents of Grahamstown's townships regarding their perceptions of the IDP and its effects in terms of addressing current poverty related problems.
- 4) Through the use of GIS to create a spatial data set indicating access to basic infrastructural facilities and services in the target areas.

In order to meet the specified aims, the objectives of the study included;

- 1) To identify the areas where IDP projects are being implemented in Grahamstown's Townships and the social economic status of the people in the affected areas;
- 2) To identify the current and proposed IDP projects in Grahamstown in the Makana Municipality;
- 3) To investigate the status of the IDP projects from the year 2000, in terms of what has been done and what is yet to be done i.e. Planned – Actualized – Ongoing and perceived future projects;
- 4) Using GIS to map the infrastructure provided in the areas of survey;
- 5) To relate actual achievement to original plans, to identify gaps in projects and the possible proposing of potential new interventions;

- 6) To gauge the success of the IDP projects by assessing tangible indicators. e.g. number of houses built, jobs provided and community participation based on community and municipal interviews;
- 7) To identify shortcomings in the IDP development process in Makana Municipality as it affects Grahamstown and to make recommendations on feasible actions that can be done at this present time to alleviate poverty and make life easier for the people.

1.6 Overview of the Research Framework

The research strategy was designed in such a way that the methodology was robust and was able to ensure the validity and reliability of the data collected. Even though qualitative research approaches were used, key aspects of the research methodology that was pursued was based on a positivist approach. The choice of this latter research paradigm fitted well with the research study, as most of the data analysis was in the form of statistical analysis and the categorization of data. The positivist paradigm uses a range of techniques and tools such as sampling, questionnaires, structured interviews, etc. to analyse both qualitative and quantitative data. The formulation of the research questions in section 1.4 above into field interviews schedules was done in such a way that information could be easily collected and analysed for meaningful analysis.

According to Yin (1994:102) data analysis consists of examining, categorizing, tabulating or otherwise recombining evidence to address the initial propositions of a study. A resident survey questionnaire was designed and used for the collection of data in a structured format. In addition to the collection of data by way of surveys and structured interviews, documentary analysis was conducted on published (official or otherwise) reports to augment the other methods of collecting data. Further details on the research methodology can be found in chapter two.

1.7 The Study Area

Grahamstown is one of the major towns in the Eastern Cape Province of South Africa and lies in the Makana Municipality (see Figure 1.1). It is located between latitude 33°17'

South of the equator and 26°31' east of the Greenwich meridian. It has an altitude is about one thousand, six hundred and sixty-six feet above sea level (Southern African Places, 2003). The city lies at the meeting point of four major biomes. The city and its surrounds have a moderate climate, with the average temperatures ranging from 9° to 23° C. The hottest months are December to March and the coldest June and July. The region has a predominantly spring rainfall with the wettest months being October and November and – because it borders an autumn rainfall area – March as well (Makana Municipality, 2004). The city has a population of approximately 120,000 people. Though there are lots of foreign nationals in the city, the city is predominantly occupied by the Xhosa, English and Afrikaans speaking communities (Southern African Places, 2003). The Xhosa and Khoi people had occupied the general area before the arrival of the Dutch and British (Sach, 1979).

Grahamstown was established as military post in 1812 during the era of the Frontier Wars. It later became the chief urban centre around which the British settlers groups were located in 1820 as part of a defined policy to settle the then colonial frontier. It also became the chief military base in the Eastern Cape. By the mid-1800s the city was the second biggest settlement in the country after Cape Town. In 1864, the fortunes of the city changed when the military establishment was closed and the locus of economic activity shifted to the interior following mineral discoveries. The white town developed around church square and the Drostdy barracks area now the Rhodes University campus, around Fort England and the market square. It appears that the African people at that time, though not legally segregated till the colonial ordinance of 1847 was enforced in 1855, lived on the eastern side of the town. Coloured, Asian and some white people lived in the lower High street area in what later became the frozen zone, which was disestablished in the apartheid era (Sach, 1979; Kirkwood, 1951).



Figure 1.1 Map showing Grahamstown in the Makana Municipality
Source: Municipal Demarcation Board, 2004

During the apartheid era, planning in Grahamstown, like in other centres in the country was subjected to rigid racial controls in terms of peoples areas of residence, employment and their access to various amenities. The racially-mixed area near the lower High street was largely eliminated during this era, Group Areas and Group Areas Borders were defined and enforced and plans were made to remove the entire African population to the Ciskei homeland (Pirie, 1984a). In the 1970s the African township was removed from the control of the Grahamstown council and was taken over by the government. This led to the establishment of a separate black local township authority known as Rhini. The period between 1970s and 1980s witnessed political and economic unrest in the townships, which caused the government to declare a state of emergency in the township areas (Sach, 1979).

The post-apartheid era poses many challenges for the government and the people. It has witnessed a lot of changes both spatially and politically. Significant informal housing and squatting housing has developed in Grahamstown, just like in every other South African city (Dullabh, 1994). The Group Areas Act was suspended under the new dispensation and a single non-racial local authority was established with the unification of Grahamstown and Rhini taking place, just like in every other place in South Africa (Sach, 1979; Dullabh, 1994). Also of particular note is the development and the establishment of the King's Flat's site and service scheme and the recent government-housing schemes.

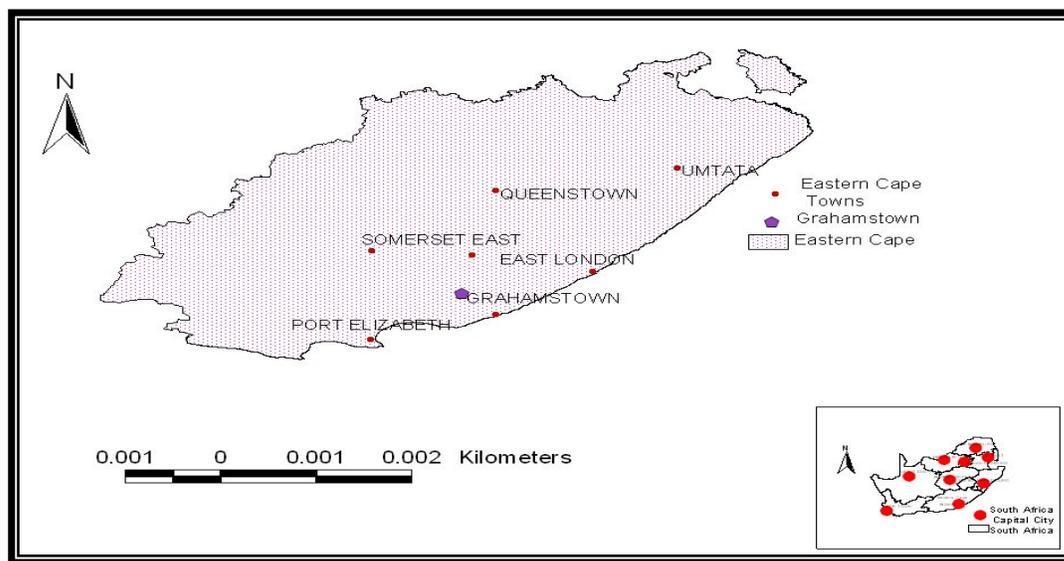


Figure 1.2 Location of Grahamstown in the Eastern Cape of South Africa

The town's current economic base was established during the colonial period, and there is little industrial activity of note, apart from very limited mining, which is restricted to kaolin production, an activity that has experienced some decline in terms of local processing (Sach, 1979). The city is primarily engaged in other activities; prominent among them is that it is a key educational centre having some of the country's top private and public schools, which also have some of the most prominent architectural features in the city and Rhodes University which was established in 1904 and which now generates about 48% of the town's income (Ibid). The effective absence of industrial activity is reflected in an unemployment rate of in excess of 50% of the potentially economically

active population, though economic activity in the form of retail shops and street trading is noticed within the city.

Grahamstown is the district centre of the Albany region and supplies goods and services to a wide area, which includes Kenton-on-Sea, Riebeck East, Somerset East and Port Alfred. It is also the judicial capital of the Eastern Cape Province and has important regional police and ecclesiastical functions. Grahamstown has more than seventy declared heritage sites. One of these is the highest church spire in the country, designed by Sir Giles Gilbert Scott, the architect of many famous buildings of the Victorian era including the Albert Memorial in London's Kensington Gardens, and St Pancras Station in London. It has seven museums and two old forts, which lie within its municipal boundaries (Makana Municipality, 2004). Since 1974, the city plays host to thousands of people from all over the world in the National Arts Festival, which is termed the biggest, and the most vibrant celebration of South Africa's multifaceted culture. It is also seen as lying on one of the premier tourist routes in the Eastern Cape (Southern African Places, 2003).

Grahamstown, like other South Africa's urban centres, contains radically contrasting economic and social differences within its boundaries. These differences are manifested in terms of wealth and class; which largely reflect the colonial and apartheid legacy of the country, which legislated separate areas of residence and employment on racial grounds (Pickard-Cambridge, 1987).

1.8 Structure of the Dissertation

This thesis consists of seven chapters. Chapter One provides a general background (Introduction) to the research, the problem statement, the rationale of the study, the research questions, aims of the study, overview of the research framework and details of the study area. Chapter Two describes the methodology, which was adopted for this study, it contains an statement about the research methodology and the research framework which guided the research process. Chapter Three reviews the literature on poverty alleviation as well as different debates and issues that relate to poverty

alleviation, both in an international and a South African context; it also looks at the workings as well as the legal requirements of the IDP. Chapter Four and Five focus on the empirical analysis of the study area and key findings. Chapter Six provides the, interpretation and discussion of both the findings from both the beneficiaries and municipality. Chapter Seven draws out the conclusions based on arguments presented in the previous chapters and provides recommendations as deemed appropriate by the researcher.

CHAPTER TWO

2.0 Methodology

2.1 Introduction

This chapter describes the specific research methodologies and procedures used in this study. The initial focus in this chapter is on reviewing and interpreting both nationally and internationally documented accounts of poverty and poverty alleviation measures. In addition, the chapter outlines the tools and techniques used for investigating the perceptions of the people living in the Grahamstown Townships about the IDP and its effects in alleviating their poverty. It also details techniques used to ascertain the municipal plans for the eradication of poverty according to the IDP. In the study it was necessary to set research goals that ultimately shaped the direction of this thesis and provided the context that continually served as a focus point from which subsequent research questions flowed. Aims and objectives were set because they shape many of the core research questions and also influenced how the research developed.

This chapter commences by highlighting the differences between quantitative and qualitative research paradigms, which is followed by an introduction to the methodology used. A research framework was formulated for the purpose of conducting the research. Each element of the framework is explained in detail in order to shed light on how each was applied during the research. Lastly, a critique of the framework is presented to elucidate ethical considerations, potential limitations and the general relevance of the findings, which emanated from the use of the framework.

2.2 Quantitative and Qualitative Research Paradigms

Certain research aims lend themselves to a research philosophy that utilizes a quantitative approach. Creswell (2003:18) asserts that “a quantitative approach is one in which the investigator primarily uses post-positivist claims for developing knowledge (i.e., the cause and effect thinking, reduction to specific variables and hypothesis and questions, as well as the use of measurement and observations and tests of the theories), employs strategies of inquiry such as experiments and surveys, and collects data on predetermined

instruments that yields statistical data”. This statement however presupposes that reality can be discovered through observations and logical reasoning. The ontological assumptions are that reality is static and permanent; hence it can be measured precisely by using the right instruments and techniques. The quantitative approach requires the researcher to be distant and independent from that which is being researched, as any involvement of the researcher in what is being observed could render the result false. In this vein the researcher has to be objective when selecting the data collection methods and when analyzing the data during the entire research process. Crotty (cited by Gray, 2004:18) however asserts, “the result of the research will tend to be presented as objective facts and established truths”.

In contrast to the above statements, Creswell (2003:18) states that “a qualitative approach is one in which the enquirer often makes knowledge claims based on constructivist perspectives (i.e., the multiple meanings of individual experiences, meanings socially and historically constructed, with an intent of developing a theory or pattern) or an advocacy/participatory perspective (i.e., political, issue oriented, collaborative or change oriented) or both as the case may arise”. This approach requires the researcher to interact with that, which is being researched. This interaction tends to assume the form of close observation of informants and sometimes living with them (where required). The strategies of enquiry that are usually used are ethnography, action research, grounded theory, phenomenological research and case studies. All these strategies of enquiry however tend to debunk the assertion that ‘reality’ is rooted in objective fact.

In view of the nature and focus of the selected research in this thesis, the researcher adopted a predominantly constructivist, qualitative approach because there are many ways in which poverty can be looked at. However even though a qualitative approach was used, as noted in Chapter 1 there was a reliance on a data sourced through positivist means. This was necessitated by the sheer size of the questionnaire survey. This however did not prevent qualitative-type analysis of the findings. The data collection methods and instruments that have been used in this study mainly utilized close-ended questions and documentary analysis as well as predetermined approaches such as survey questionnaires

and structured interviews. The researcher's aim was also to have a solid foundation in the literature, such that most of the variables were anticipated or known. The researcher used an inductive process where empirical facts are composed; thereafter conclusions are drawn based on those facts. It should be noted however that the beneficiaries' survey questions provides both quantitative and qualitative data. The beneficiaries' questionnaire surveys were used by the researcher to get the views of what the local people had to say about their socio-economic profiles as well as the socio-economic backlogs and their views about the IDP.

The interpretation of those facts has a qualitative as well as a quantitative aspect. The structured interviews with local officials were designed to provide qualitative information about the municipal plans for the eradication of poverty in accordance to the IDP. They were intended to provide a broader spread of views and also to triangulate the information provided in the actual beneficiaries' surveys and to provide further evidence relevant to the study.

2.3 Explanatory Introduction to Research Methodology / Research Design

According to Gray (2004:25) "the choice of research methodology is determined by a combination of several factors. This might stem from the fact that the researcher believes that there is some sort of external 'truth' out there that needs discovering, or whether the task of the research is to explore and unpick people's multiple perspectives in a natural, field setting". However, before the commencement of any study, a researcher must investigate the methods most suitable and relevant for the study inquiry. Welman and Kruger (2001:55) assert that research involves the application of various methods and techniques in order to create scientifically obtained knowledge by using objective methods and procedures". It is however pertinent to state that the research paradigms that are described in section 2.2 were critical in developing the methodology.

Gray (2004:27) emphasizes that a core aspect of the research is the researcher's preference for analytical survey methods in an 'attempt to test a theory in the field

through the association between the variables'. Gray (2004:27) further states that analytic surveys should emphasize:

- a deductive or an inductive approach
- the identification of the research problem
- the drawing of a representative sample from the population
- control of variables
- the generation of both quantitative and qualitative data; and
- general relevance of results (Gray 2004:27).

Each of the above elements is put in plain words below;

2.3.1 The Inductive and Deductive Approaches

There are various ways of drawing conclusions from a research inquiry; these are mainly done via induction and deduction. Gray (2004:400) defined the inductive approach as “the development of theory or inferences from observed or empirical reality”. Deductive approach on the other hand is a process of creating knowledge from inference from theory. Through objective testing or verifying of a theory, rather than developing it, the researcher advances theory, collects data to test it and reflects on the confirmation or rejection of the theory by the results (Creswell, 2003). Thomas (2003) pointed out that the inductive approach is a systematic procedure for the analysis of qualitative data, where the analysis is guided by specific objectives.

In this study the inductive approach was utilized as an exploratory-descriptive and an interpretive tool. The researcher collected data and analysed it in terms of relevant theory in order to ascertain whether the status quo conforms to theory or not. In addition to this, the researcher extrapolated the data in order to determine future scenarios and interventions.

2.3.2 The Identification of the Research Population

A research population according to Gray (2004:403) is “the totality of people, organizations, objects or occurrences from which a sample is drawn”. It is however very

important that the population is defined clearly and accurately. Elements that are being measured and those that are excluded must be specified in order to prevent the researcher from making claims that are outside the range of the population, which would in turn affect the generalisability of the result.

2.3.3 The Drawing of a Representative Sample for the Population

The aim of sampling, according to Sapsford and Jupp (1996), is to save time and effort, but also to obtain consistent and unbiased estimates of the population status in terms of whatever is being researched. Samples are drawn using a sampling frame, in which samples that are drawn must be representative of the population; thereafter it is the basis on which inferences can be made on the measured characteristics of the population.

2.3.4 Control of Variables

All variables (controlled, independent/dependent, dichotomous, extraneous, etc.) that are being measured must be known before hand (Gray, 2004).

2.3.5 The Generation of both Qualitative and Quantitative Data

The generation of both quantitative and qualitative data must ultimately relate to the research questions that have been initially posed. The most important consideration with data is its validity; whether the evidence that has been collected can provide credible generalizations and that when it is put through the test, the same conclusion can be reached. Irrespective of the epistemological grounding that is adopted by the researcher, similar conclusions should be reached if the same sample from the population is used. Any replication of the study must therefore follow the same methods. Data collection methods must however be robust and rigorous (Gray, 2004).

2.3.6 Generalisability of Results

Generalisability of results, according to Gray (2004:399) refers to the extent to which the results of a study, based upon evidence drawn from a sample can be applied to a population as a whole.

2.4 Research Framework

In accordance with the research aims, the formulation of the research framework was undertaken in order to address the following goals;

- to establish the basic socio-economic profile of the local people living in the townships through a simple sample survey and also to establish their views on the effectiveness of the municipal interventions in terms of service provision and their involvement in the IDP process (through consultation or employment).
- the undertaking of structured interviews with the officials of the municipality in charge of the different IDP projects in order to establish the current interventions from trying to help eradicate poverty, as well as the challenges facing the municipality during the implementations of the services.
- the use of accessible and available official documents to compare current municipal plans with the needs of the local people in Grahamstown.

2.4.1 Operationalization of the Research Framework

2.4.1.1 Orientation

“Orientation”, according to the Oxford Dictionary (2004), is the relative direction of an action or process. The orientation in this research context was designed for the purpose of verifying the validity of the research’s aims and the delineation of the literature review and document analysis. Furthermore, based on an existing map of Grahamstown, GIS was used to confirm the delineated study areas. An inventory of all necessary official documentation relevant to this study was obtained from the municipal officers, government websites, books and journals. These documents detail the structure of the IDP and its workings and it was analysed to fit into the context of this research.

2.4.1.2 Planning of Surveys

Also essential was the detailed planning and the design of the survey, in terms of the compilation of the questionnaire, the selection of the field workers, the piloting of the questionnaire and sampling. The questionnaires were finalized in conjunction with the supervisors.

The beneficiaries (Local people's) survey questionnaire (See appendix B) was customized to fit the research aims as outlined in Chapter 1. The questionnaire was designed in such a way that the following information could be obtained:

- Social and demographic information (gender, household and population size)
- Economic data (employment status, income)
- Socio-economic data (access to infrastructure such as water, electricity, communication, health care, recreational facilities, transport, emergency services as well as the types of houses they live in).
- Attitudinal aspects (i.e. ability to pay for the services)
- Their perceptions of the IDP as well the impacts and benefits of the IDP (their involvement and participation as well as services meeting their needs)
- Development backlogs that have not been met by the IDP

Liaison with the supervisor was necessary to ensure that the aspects covered in the questionnaire were sufficient to provide the required results. During the questionnaire refinement process, the options for analysis were determined in order to ensure that the questions asked would yield the required output for analysis. The researcher recruited two field workers to assist in conducting the beneficiaries' survey. The criteria for recruitment consisted mainly of ability, in terms of communication skills, language proficiency and familiarity with local dynamics. The field workers were briefed extensively on all relevant aspects of fieldwork and surveying in order to adequately prepare them to conduct the survey. The field workers were supplied with the following documents to aid with the undertaking of the beneficiaries' survey: background information on the study, questionnaires, contact details and the sampling procedure to be followed.

The sample frame was defined, such that every seventh house in any location where an IDP project was on-going would be questioned. The study required a representative sample, which would be the basis for the generalization of the sample to the whole people living in the Grahamstown township, and as a result of this 130 people were chosen as the sample size because that number equals approximately 10% of the number of

households in the areas where the IDP projects are currently being undertaken. The large size of the chosen sample had the effect of decreasing the margin of error or standard error. The beneficiaries' survey was conducted over a seven-day period, mainly in the afternoons and early evenings (1200hr-1700hr) during the December 2004 holiday. The final sample size of fully completed, usable surveys was 125.

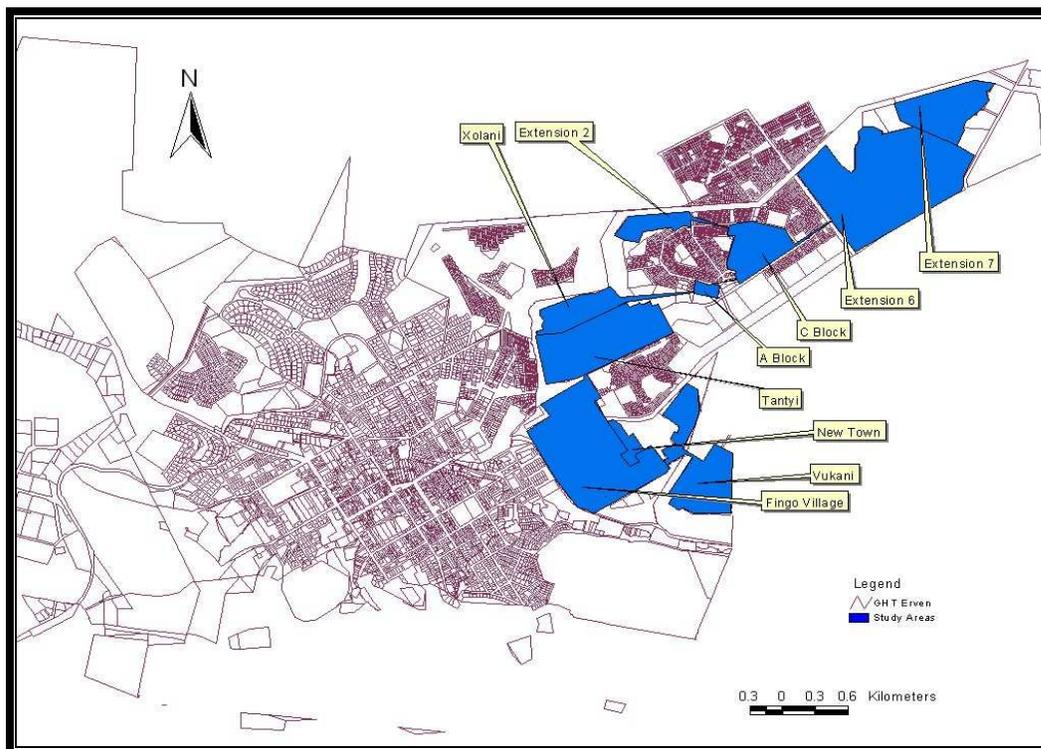


Figure 2.1 Map Showing the Survey Areas in Grahamstown

2.4.1.3 Beneficiaries' Survey

The purpose of the beneficiaries' survey (See appendix B) was to undertake a survey to firstly establish what the socio-economic profiles of people living in perceived poverty areas in Grahamstown are and to determine the socio-economic backlog in those areas. The second objective was to establish peoples' views about the IDP projects and interventions. At least 125 households were surveyed in Grahamstown's townships. For this purpose a two-pronged strategy was used to collect data from the various parts of the town where IDP projects have taken place or are still going on. A systematic stratified sample was drawn from ten areas where projects are going on. However some samples

were drawn randomly in cases where the houses are not laid out in uniform rows but rather are randomly scattered across an area.

The target of the survey was mainly the bona fide resident of those areas. Non-residents and visitors to the areas were excluded from the study. The focus was on any member of the family present who was able to read and write and state logically the view of the family as regards infrastructural provision.

2.4.1.4 Interviews with Key Municipal Officers

Structured interviews were held with officials of the municipality administering the IDP projects. The questionnaire (see appendix A) was designed in such a way that that the following information could be obtained on details regarding Municipal planning in terms of the IDP, namely: infrastructural requirements, service delivery, implementation procedures, development priorities, achievements as well as future plans. The officials interviewed included all the directors of municipal services, which included technical and infrastructural services, social and community services and corporate services (the latter also serves as the spoke person of the municipality). The head of departments under the directors that are involved in the IDP were also interviewed. These departments included primary health care, traffic control, fire fighting and community safety (emergency services), parks and recreation, electricity, water and sewerage, road, land management, housing management, building management, planning scheme management and the Local Economic Development (LED) officer.

2.4.1.5 Secondary Data Sources

Extensive reading was adopted as a method for collecting the secondary data needed to outline the broad views of the meaning and different types of poverty, different perspective on poverty alleviation in general, as well as poverty alleviation in the South African IDP context. The literature, which is germane to this study and recorded data, was obtained from the Rhodes University Library, a web search, the Grahamstown Library, a review of newspapers and journals, reports of the Makana Municipality and from the Statistics South Africa 1996 and 2001 Census.

2.4.1.6 Field observation

Observation was undertaken at the various sites where the projects have been set up or are still going on in order to establish details of the economic viability of the projects, numbers employed, available resources, the utilization of facilities as well as their operational details.

2.4.1.7 Reporting

The reporting stage was employed to interpret the survey and make sense of the important facts and relationships that are apparent in the data in terms of the socio-economic profile of the people. By implication, the IDP was interpreted to be a mechanism for alleviating poverty, there-by potentially affecting the socio-economic profile of the community. Cognizance was taken of the needs and perceptions of local people regarding the IDP, which were obtained through the survey and documentary analysis. Also, the data collected from the interviews with municipal officers was augmented and later triangulated with the later documents. Using standard GIS procedures available in Arc View 3.2, the obtained data from the municipality and the beneficiaries was used to create a map showing the study site locations based on attributes from the beneficiaries results.

In the context of this thesis, the GIS was used to determine the spread of and access to physical infrastructure such as water, electricity, houses, health care services, transport, emergency services, recreational facilities and schools in the different survey areas. However, to arrive at the numbers in the legend on the Figures in Chapter 6, the number of respondents in each area that indicated that they have access to the particular infrastructure was divided by the total number of respondents in that area and then multiplied by one hundred. The numbers in the legend represent the percentage of respondents that has access to the different infrastructures

Finally, the analysis culminated in the drafting of the thesis, which details the key survey results and conclusions and suggestions regarding the future implementation of the municipal IDP.

2.4.1.8 Ethical Considerations

All respondents were assured that whatever information was collected from them through the survey questionnaires would be kept confidential. The Researcher however informed the municipal officers that the information collected from them would be used for academic purposes and not for commercial or other uses. The research does not have a financial sponsor, it was entirely financed from the researcher's own resources.

2.5 Limitations

All research survey methods have some disadvantages and limitations. It is however very important to indicate that threatening and sensitive information was excluded from the survey. Some municipal personnel were also not available during the course of this study and as such some issues with some departments were left out. The GIS section of this thesis is not as detailed as was originally planned because of the inability of obtaining the required and necessary data needed for such work. It should also be noted that information about the source of the respondents' income was not stated by the respondents in the questionnaire, largely because of the sensitivity of such information.

CHAPTER THREE

3.0 Literature Review

3.1 Introduction

Poverty Alleviation has been a major concern for most governments of developing countries as well as for national and international development agencies since the increasing attention it received in the 1980's and 1990's. The understanding of the concept of poverty has broadened and pro-poor development policy options have been expanded in response (African Development Bank, 2004). Issues of good governance, empowerment, gender equality, sustainable livelihoods help to safeguard people against vulnerability to external and internal shocks and provide solutions to the adverse effects of inequality on pro-poor growth. All of these feature prominently in recent poverty reduction strategies (ADB, 2004). Todaro (2000), also states that the standard of living tends to be very low in developing countries and these low standards are manifested in the form of low incomes, poor health, limited or no education and in many cases a general sense of malaise and hopelessness.

The Africa Development Bank (ADB), 2004 claims that it is now widely accepted that there are several dimensions of poverty beyond inadequate income or consumption. Furthermore, there is recognition that the causes of poverty are equally varied. As a result, the range of policy options available in the fight against poverty has widened. Issues of good governance, protection of the environment, effective integration within the global economy, empowerment and sustainable livelihoods now feature prominently in the poverty reduction agenda (ADB, 2004) This is also the case with measures to reduce vulnerability and inequality. In the case of South Africa, the Eastern Cape Province is seen as one of South Africa's poorest provinces with a relatively high unemployment rate and a relatively larger rural population than other provinces in the country (Irinnews, 2003). This is so because in many cases rural settlements are often cut off from accessing social services and are more poverty prone (Irinnews, 2003).

While poverty certainly exists all over South Africa, it is far harder to ignore in the Eastern Cape than elsewhere. Unemployment is perhaps the single biggest problem. A small town like Grahamstown has an unemployment rate of 70%; while a large industrial city like Port Elizabeth has an unemployment rate among the black workforce of over 50% (Cherry 1993).

In order to fight poverty, there is need for the South African government to put in place mechanisms and plans to alleviate poverty and an associated need to monitor and measure the impact of its policies and programmes designed to reduce poverty and to monitor their impacts over time. Mullen (1995) is of the view that formulating an appropriate strategy for poverty alleviation and the design of an effective delivery mechanism for reaching out to the poor is being actively debated and sought by among others concerned agencies and individual governments. In addition, a series of laws have been enacted by the South African government to address the issue of poverty alleviation.

The focus of this literature review is to outline the different definitions and types of poverty and also to provide an examination of how some of the international agencies have constructed the meaning of and their response to poverty. The intention of examining the definition and types of poverty and of providing an overview of the concept is to outline both the key issues impacting on poverty and those which give rise to the different developmental considerations surrounding poverty alleviation.

The literature review will cover the international thinking on poverty as well as responses to poverty, further it will attempt to define poverty and outline the various types of poverty that exists and how have they come into being. It will also look at poverty issues and their current nature in South Africa as well as issues of policy, the laws that seek to address poverty and the role of local government in poverty alleviation. The chapter will also discuss the workings, process and implementation of the Integrated Development Planning (IDP) and the assessment and impact of the IDP and it will finally overview the importance of Geographical Information Systems (GIS) in poverty alleviation, which was used as an illustrative tool in this study.

3.1 Overview of International Thinking on Poverty and Responses to Poverty

The study of poverty has had to be ‘rescued’ from the confusion of conflicting national policies and ideological ‘backbiting’ as much as it has had to be ‘rescued’ from the technical confusion created by the quite arbitrary choice of income cut offs, in different countries across the world (Townsend, 2003). Poverty in advanced industrialized countries has been interpreted differently from poverty in the poor developing countries, because established elites have often sought to marginalize the concept and deny or minimize and trivialize the phenomenon. Poverty as explained by Townsend (2003) is not an arbitrary idea of its beholders, it is regarded as one of the central explanatory concepts of social conditions in the world, as well as one of the powerful motivating forces for countervailing institutional and human action and as such it is a critical subject worthy of attention (Townsend, 2003).

The United Nation Development Programme (UNDP) has contributed to the effort of trying to understand poverty, both by broadening the discussions around the conceptualizations and measurements /assessments of poverty as well as by introducing new approaches in terms of poverty elimination policies (Catagay, 1998). These policies particularly that of capabilities /entitlements, which constitute the analytical basis of the UNDP’s Human Development Reports and the concept of Sustainable Human Development, have helped broaden the understanding of poverty and vulnerability (Catagay, 1998). According to the UNDP perspective, poverty represents the absence of some basic capabilities to function. Functioning, in turn, represent “the doings and beings” of a person. Thus, “the capability approach reconciles the notions of absolute and relative poverty, since relative deprivation in incomes and commodities can lead to an absolute deprivation in minimum capabilities” (UNDP, 1997: 16).

As noted above, the UNDP bases the concept of human poverty, which was introduced in the 1997 Human Development Report, on the capabilities approach. As distinct from income poverty, human poverty refers to the denial of opportunities and choices for living a most basic or “tolerable” human life (Catagay, 1998: 7). It, therefore, takes into

account more than the minimum necessities for material well-being and views poverty as multidimensional (Catagay, 1998).

The ADB (2004), adopting an income based approach cite that the majority of African countries continue to face widespread poverty, in which about 50 percent of the population of Sub-Saharan Africa lives on less than \$1 a day. It reiterates that Africa is the only region where the poverty incidence rate increased in the 1990-1999 period.

The United Nations (2004) in its millennium goals highlights poverty alleviation as one of the major challenges facing the organization in this millennium. The same view was echoed by the ADB (2004); the vision of the bank in its statement has resulted in putting poverty at the center of its Country Strategy Papers (CSD's) and projects, thus strengthening the effort to mainstream poverty reduction. The ADB (2004) echoes the view that the faces of poverty therefore are many, thus signifying the importance of linking activities in the agriculture, education, health and manufacturing sectors not only at the national level but at the individual, household and community level as well, in order to address poverty.

The above highlights the overview of international bodies views on poverty and immediate responses to halt its spread. The next section outlines the definition of poverty

3.2 Defining Poverty

There have been wide divergences in the interpretation of poverty and quite distinct schools of thought have emerged. Its' meaning tends to be culture bound as well as ideologically contrasting. However, the divergences that the meaning of poverty have produced is reflected in the methodologies of its measurement; modes of explanation and strategies of the amelioration, which have begun to attract attention (Townsend 1993). Baulch (1996) concurs with the view that poverty is multi-faceted, and it can be linked with hunger, unemployment, exploitation, and lack of access to clean water, sanitation, health-care or schools. It can also be about vulnerability to crisis and homelessness. Vulnerability is closely linked to asset ownership. It is appreciated that vulnerability to

poverty is countered by the strength of the asset bases of the poor and by the management of their complex range of assets (asset portfolios), particularly in times of crises (Moser, 1996, 1998).

International research highlights that poverty is not always a static condition among individuals, households or communities (Moser, 1996). Instead, it is recognised that while some individuals or households are permanently poor, others become impoverished as a result of general life-cycle changes, specific events such as the illness of a main income earner, or when external economic conditions get worse (Rakodi, 1995). Accordingly, because individuals and households are moving in and out of poverty, researchers suggest that the dynamic concept of vulnerability be used to understand these processes of change (May, 1998; Moser, 1998, 1996; Rakodi, 1995).

Poverty is seen as multi faceted and everyone's view and experience of poverty is a little different, based on the type of poverty that prevails in that locality. The basic forms of poverty include; alienation from the family, food insecurity, crowded homes, usage of basic forms of energy, lack of access to social services, lack of adequately paid secure jobs and fragmentation of the family (World Bank, 2003). Poverty is also known to have a strong influence on the prevalence of diseases (Allen & Thomas, 1992). The concept of poverty has attracted intellectual and political interest, in which governments and ruling groups in most nations are obliged to define the needs of the poor in relation to the income of the poor (Townsend, 1993). Different indicators have different and complementary uses in the identification of poverty and planning. Objective income or consumption measures can be used to give a picture of the extent of poverty at national level and can be aggregated internationally. Similarly, poverty can be understood as a system of relationships that have the cumulative effect of excluding people from processes of development and accumulation. Skewed power relations and economic, political, or social injustices that deny people access to empowering resources such as safe water, health services or education can be contributing factors (Aliber, 2002).

The asset base of the poor was used by May (1998: 7-8) to describe poverty. He identified four broad categories; human capital (such as labour, education, health), social and institutional assets (household relations, trust, access to decision making), natural resources (land, water, common property), and human-made assets (housing, productive infrastructure, social infrastructure). In the same vein, the more assets that individuals, households and communities have or secure access to, and the better these assets are managed, the less vulnerable they are. On the other hand, the greater the erosion of their asset base, the more insecure they are and the greater their poverty becomes (Moser, 1998). From the perspective of this asset vulnerability framework, poverty is characterised by not only a lack of assets and the people's inability to accumulate an asset portfolio, but also by an inability to devise an appropriate coping or management strategy (Moser, 1996; Rakodi, 1995).

Poverty essentially has three closely interrelated aspects; "poverty of money", "poverty of access" and "poverty of power." These make the working, living and social environments of the poor extremely insecure and severely limit the options available to them to improve their lives. Without choices and security, breaking the cycle of poverty becomes virtually impossible and leads to the marginalization and alienation of the poor from society. The most prevalent means of measuring poverty have been and continue to be those related to money. This is so because such measurements are relatively easy to make and quantify (UNESCAP, 2000). While clearly many of these issues are related to not having enough money, it is simplistic to ignore the non-material aspects of the experience of poverty. Baulch (1996) stressed that the poor are not concerned exclusively with adequate incomes and consumption. Achieving other goals such as security, independence and self-respect may be just as important as having the means to buy basic goods and services. Nevertheless, money-metric measures of welfare (such as income or expenditure) "probably provide the best objective proxy for poverty status" (Baulch, 1996: 7).

Individuals, families and groups in the population can be said to be in poverty if (and when) they lack the resources to obtain the types of diet, participate in the activities and

have the living conditions and amenities which are customary or at least widely accepted and approved in the societies to which they belong. It also refers to the case in which their resource are classified to be below those commanded by the average individual or family and that they are, in effect, excluded from ordinary living pattern's, customs and activities (Townsend, 1979).

Whiteford *et al* (1995), argues that households with poorly educated household heads also tend to have a far higher incidence of poverty than those with better-educated household heads. May (1999) distinguishes between the approaches to the measurement of poverty. He looked at varying indicators including objective measures such as income, life expectancy and housing standards, as well as subjective measures which included attitudes, needs and perceptions; as well as measures of the constituents of well being such as health, welfare and human rights, and measures of access to the determinants of well being, including availability of housing, health care, educational facilities and income. A reliable measure of poverty according to Whiteford *et al* (1995) should encapsulate understanding of the depth of poverty in relation to the poverty gap, because it is the sum of differences between the income of each poor household and the poverty line. The poverty gap is seen as being of great policy significance since it indicates the theoretical minimum government transfers needed to the poor households to totally eliminate poverty. However it is argued that transfers are only one anti-poverty policy option available to government. Income generating opportunities for poor people also have to be created and they need to be provided with the capacity to use the opportunities (Whiteford *et al.*, 1995).

Income generating opportunities for poor people also have to be created and they need to be provided with the capacity to use the opportunities (Whiteford *et al.*, 1995). It should also be noted that there are still numerous problems involved in attempting to identify and quantify poverty as no one set of measurements will give a complete picture of situations in terms of the immeasurable factors of welfare such as happiness, security and togetherness (Burkey, 1993). Burkey (1993) opined that for most development workers, estimates of the levels of family income, food and nutrition, infant mortality, shelter,

potable water, sanitation, indebtedness, etc. are adequate to identify those areas and groups of people who are in most need of developmental efforts.

This section has attempted to define the various types of poverty that exists with the aim of formulating the appropriate strategies for alleviation, which tally with the focus of this thesis. The persistence of the most common forms of poverty as revealed in this section such as lack of access to food, nutrition, potable water, sanitation income, employment, often do not allow the poor to break the cycle of poverty. The key facets of poverty will be outlined in the following section.

3.3 Facets of Poverty

Two basic “levels” or “types” of poverty are identified in the development literature; absolute poverty and relative poverty. Simply put, absolute poverty is defined as the cost of the minimum necessities needed to sustain human life. The World Bank currently regards people earning less than US\$ 1 a day (in 1993 purchasing power parity) to be absolutely poor. Relative poverty is defined as the minimum economic, social, political and cultural goods needed to maintain an acceptable way of life in a particular society. The European Union defines the relatively poor as “... persons, families and groups of persons whose resources (material, cultural, social) are so limited as to exclude them from the minimum acceptable way of life in the member state in which they live (UNESCAP, 2000). The different facets of poverty as well as actions that contribute to poverty will be looked into in the latter part of this section.

3.3.1 Basic Needs

According to Townsend (1993) the concept of Basic Needs should be placed within a context of a nation’s overall economic and social development. Under no circumstances should it be taken to mean merely the minimum necessary for subsistence; it should be placed within the context of national independence, the dignity of individuals and peoples and their freedom to chart their destiny without hindrance. Townsend (1993) however modifies some of the definitions of basic need to include; firstly subsistence basic needs

which includes certain minimum requirements of a family for private consumption and adequate food, shelter and clothing as well as certain household furniture and equipment; and secondly, the essential services provided by and for the community at large, such as safe drinking water, sanitation, public transport, health, education and cultural facilities. Townsend (1993) however argues that if poverty exists, there has to be a social structure of poverty, with sections or groups in the population experiencing higher risk of that poverty, and some being recognized to be more impoverished than others.

The lack of access to public facilities and infrastructure is seen as a form of poverty and hence in the South African case, the IDP is trying to provide these facilities and infrastructure in addressing this form of poverty. More broadly it is noted that there should also be an acknowledgement of individual entitlements to social provisions, collective utilities and services of an elementary kind as well as for food and nutrition, shelter, water and sanitation etc. (Burkey, 1993; Townsend, 1993).

3.3.2 Poverty and Politics

Berg-Schlosser and Kersting (2003), argue that the subjective concept of politics amongst marginalized individuals is to a large extent dependent on the evaluation of their influence on the political process. Robinson (2001) asserts that that poverty's problems are a result of political choices made by the rich and the powerful that further impoverishes the poor by undercutting claims for collective obligation to design a better society through political participation in a wider sense which will include activities aimed at ensuring the fulfillment of basic needs, the reaction against social discrimination and the development of an organizational structure to proclaim these aims.

Berg-Schlosser and Kersting (2003) are of the view that the term 'precarious living conditions' is applied to relative situations prevailing in certain housing settlements. They argue that problems related to the lack of infrastructure such as sewerage, waste collection or electricity are compounded by high residential densities, while in some cases basic infrastructure is lacking. They emphasized that such houses are mostly made

up of corrugated sheets, a mud- mixture of clay and sand, woods palms etc. It is however pertinent to state that socio-political measures in the educational, health and social sphere as well as measures aimed at ensuring basic provisions are of greater importance if poverty is to be addressed (Berg-Schlosser and Kersting, 2003).

In most countries of the world, conflicts over the respective responsibilities or lack of financial autonomy between different levels, hinders the effective implementation of policies that are geared towards providing basic infrastructure for the poor (Berg-Schlosser and Kersting, 2003). A look at state interventions in precarious settlements as in the case in Brazil and Chile, thus demonstrates the importance and role of external actors (e.g. the World Bank) in relation to policies towards the urban poor. Over the years, the national authorities responsible for engagement in poor areas have changed their roles and responsibilities as a result of decentralization and democratization at the local level, and more intensive negotiations with residents have become possible and greater insight into their problems can be gained (Berg-Schlosser and Kersting, 2003). The employment and income situation in market economies are the most meaningful indicators for material comfort or poverty. The difficulties of accessing the formal employment market as well as the low level of income are some of the characteristics of urban poverty (Berg-Schlosser and Kersting, 2003).

Slater (1930) is of the view that the state is capable of mobilizing significant volumes of resources, which should address the problems faced by the sectors of the population living in poverty, and should promote respect for human rights in order to strengthen the sense of solidarity and equity in society. Social justice recognizes and is based on the need to legislate with due regards to the conditions of deprivation prevailing among certain social groups or sectors in order to compensate for these inequalities at their root, by means of appropriate measures of special treatment (Ibid). At the same time, it implies an acceptance and promotion of the duty of law itself in the interest of community development, taking into account, naturally existing conditions (Slater, 1930).

Slater (1930) however reiterated that a democratic state committed to social justice, where the rule of law prevails, must itself be the vehicle for the transformation and betterment of society in order to boost its economic, social and cultural development. It is not enough to be a manager of change, without the combined effort of the society as a whole, including the state organs; without which nothing deep, transcendent and lasting can be achieved (Slater, 1930).

Whether expressed in the language of a state's responsibility or that of international human rights, social and economic development requires a competent government leadership, coherent national policy and strong popular commitment. Development is a means of ensuring democracy at the national and international levels, the improvement of incomes, health and social services and generally of the living condition of all people (UN-WSSD, 1995).

3.3.3 Poverty and the Maldistribution of Resources

Poverty may be best understood as applying not just to those who are victims of the unequal distribution of resources, but more exactly to those whose resources do not allow them to fulfill the elaborate social demands and customs which have been placed upon citizens of that society. They are materially and socially deprived in a variety of ways, which can be observed, described and measured. Relationships between the empirical evidence and the development of theory can be properly established (Townsend 1993).

Townsend (1993) reiterates that the term 'unequal distribution' of resources can be applied to poverty, if people cannot obtain equal access to the conditions of life; i.e. diets, basic living standards and amenities which allow them to play the roles, participate in the relationship and follow the customary behaviour which is expected of them by virtue of their membership of the society. He however stress that if they lack or are denied resources to obtain access to these conditions of life and so fulfill membership of society, they may be said to be in poverty.

3.3.4 Social Exclusion

De Haan (1998) points out that the concept of social exclusion is very useful in the sense that it illustrates the multidimensional character of deprivation in which exclusion can have various causes (which often reinforce each other) such as unreliable employment, gender, ethnicity, disability or ill health and the lack of opportunities for participation as well as low income. On the other hand it also focuses on the processes: i.e. on the mechanisms and institutions that exclude people. Social exclusion is the process through which the individual or group are wholly or partially excluded from full participation in the society, which they live in (European Foundation, 1995). The European Foundation (1995) however argued that how the concept of social exclusion applies in different cases depends on the kind of definition given to participation in particular societies. The poor are those who are unable to participate in whatever way, and although they differ between themselves, they may still be regarded as a threat to the social order as much as an object of humanitarian concern.

3.3.5 Social Issues

Sahlins (1997) and Allen *et al* (2000) are of the view that poverty is not about not having even a certain small amount of a commodity, but it is rather seen as a relationship between people. They argue that poverty in this sense relates to social status, and as such, it is seen as the invention of civilization, which has grown with civilization, in which there is an individual distinction between classes and more importantly it can be regarded as a retributive relationship. Allen *et al* (2000) also concurs with the statement when he points out that the term poverty is not absolute, but depends on the value system of a particular society. Sen (1991) puts forward a view, which sees poverty developing from a failure to be able to take a full part in human society but which sees this as a matter of lack of choice or capability rather than simply inadequate material living standards.

In the light of this Korten (1995) in his work entitled 'The Vision of Development', emphasizes that development does not start from the production of goods and services but from people and from human needs and the steps taken to satisfy these needs. He

however reiterates that development has to be people-centered. He also pointed out that civilizations, and perhaps human lives depend on community itself, which forms the basis for alternate development practices, which is guided by three basic principles which Korten (1995) referred to as authentic development. He identified these basic principles to include; justice, sustainability and inclusiveness, each of which is routinely and systematically violated by certain human practices. Korten (1995) however suggests that justice can only be achieved, when priority is given to assist the development of a decent human existence for all people. Sustainability can be achieved when the earth's resources are used in ways that ensure the well being of future generations and he is of the opinion that inclusiveness can only be achieved when every person is given the opportunity to be a recognized and respected contributor to family, community and society (Allen *et al*, 2000).

3.3.6 Human Development Index (HDI)

The Human Development Index (HDI) according to Pycroft (1998) is a composite, relative index, which attempts to quantify the extent of human development within a community. It is based on measures of life expectancy, literacy (education) and income. It is thus seen as a measure of peoples' ability to live a long and healthy life, to communicate, to participate in the life of the community and to have sufficient resources to obtain a decent living. Pycroft (1998) reiterates that the HDI can assume a maximum value of 1, indicating a high level of human development and a minimum value of zero.

The most recent HDI produced by the UNDP is an average of three or four measures of deprivation; which includes vulnerability to death at a relatively early age, deprivation in knowledge, and lack of decent living standard. It is pertinent to point out that the UNDP developed two HDI's of which one is for the developed countries and the other for the developing countries. Poor living standards are measured in the developing countries by lack of access to health services and to safe drinking water where as an income measure is used in the industrialized countries (Pycroft, 1998).

3.3.7 Income

It is pertinent to note that, the lack of money is more of an indication of poverty rather than its cause. In most cases, the poor are not without an income; and they lack the ability to accumulate assets, which is a key ingredient to the creation of wealth and breaking the cycle of poverty (UNESCAP, 2000). Catagay (1998); Meth & Dias (2004) argue that the income of an individual determines to a large extent what can be obtained by that individual and it also determines his/her level of access to other basic needs such as food, clothing, shelter and general well-being.

3.3.8 Living Conditions

Most poor live in overcrowded and unsanitary slums and squatter settlements and often do not have access to basic infrastructure and services. They are forced to live in illegal and informal settlements because they cannot enter formal land and housing markets. The reasons for the formation of slums and squatter settlements are numerous and have been linked to the way formal markets are regulated and structured. The poor are unable to afford the choices offered to them in these markets. In contrast, the informal and illegal housing markets of slums and squatter settlements are specifically geared to meet their shelter needs. In most cases, the occupants of such shelters are often illegal and do not have security of tenure. Because of their illegal status, they are often not provided with formal basic infrastructure and services such as piped water, electricity, waste-water disposal and solid waste collection by government agencies and organizations (United Nations Economic and Social Commission for the Asia and Pacific, 2000).

The lack of basic environmental infrastructure and location on marginal land often translates into higher rates of disease and lower life spans. Similarly, children of the poor are unable to access good education. Often the standards and facilities of the educational institutes they can afford are lower than those available to children of higher-income groups. Moreover, poor children often drop out of school earlier to support their families. Under this circumstance it can be argued that poor education also contributes to entrenchment of the cycle of poverty (UNESCAP, 2000).

3.3.9 Vulnerability

Wresinski (1987) argues that vulnerability is the absence of one or more assured capacities, which permit individuals and or their families to carry out their basic responsibilities and enjoy their fundamental rights. The insecurity which results from vulnerability frequently leads to extreme poverty which tends to prolong itself overtime, thereby becoming persistent and gravely compromising the ability to recover or to exercise these rights and responsibilities within the foreseeable future (Rakodi, 1995; Moser, 1996; Wresinski, 1987).

Wresinski (1997) however reiterates that the different forms of human rights lose their meaning and their force if they are separated them from each other. The life testimonies of the extremely poor demonstrate that they are subject to a chain of vulnerabilities from which there is no exit if they are not confronted in a holistic manner. To struggle for the human rights of all poor people, in the most integral way, is to undertake the most effective action to eradicate extreme poverty. It should however be noted, that the decontextualized vindication of a right is not enough to enable the poor to enjoy their remaining rights (Wresinski, 1987).

3.3.10 Poverty and Perception

Berg-Schlosser *et al* (2003) argue that the description of living condition reveals that most people are affected in various ways and to varying degrees by poverty, but the processes of subjective perception and interpretation of one's personal situation in life are formed not only by common external environmental factors, but also by uniform interpretations of this and by stable communication connections. It should however be noted that the individual socio-economic standard of living is not the primary factor determining the level of poverty; the much more learned values and internal interpretation patterns which decide individual priorities and personal goals go a long way to determine this. In addition to the individual factors (e.g. level of education, age, income, residential area, employment situation), the social networks within which the poor live are also relevant for determining action (Berg-Schlosser *et al.*, 2003).

3.3.11 Summary

This section has outlined the different features of poverty which range from the inability to meet the requirements for private consumption of adequate food and nutrition, clothing, living in informal (squatter) settlements as well as the lack of access to community infrastructure such as electricity, safe drinking water, sanitation and education. It also includes the lack of access to good employment and income as well as the lack of participation in the affairs of the community. The considerations outlined in the aforementioned subsections have individually or collectively shaped how poverty prevails in different societies. The next section will examine the changing responses to poverty.

3.4 Changing Responses to Poverty through Time

The understanding of the concept of poverty has broadened and the pro-poor development policy options have been expanded over time. However, issues of good governance, empowerment, gender equality, sustainable livelihoods, safeguards against vulnerability to external and internal shocks and solutions to the adverse effects of growth on inequality feature prominently in recent poverty reduction strategies (ADB, 2004). It is important to mention that terms such as poverty eradication and poverty alleviation are sometimes used interchangeably in development literature and it is pertinent to distinguish between the two terms. While absolute poverty can be eradicated, relative poverty can only be alleviated because what is minimally accepted today may vary over time, from villages to urban areas and from country to country. Relative poverty also varies with the level of economic development, and the perceptions and expectations of the majority of what is minimally acceptable. For example, while clean piped water may be a minimum acceptable standard of living in a city, it may not be a minimum requirement in a village. Likewise, while internet connections may not be a minimum necessity today, they may become a minimum necessity ten years from now (UNESCAP, 2000).

3.4.1 New Responses to Poverty

Fulfillment of basic needs encompass the aspects of nourishment, health, living accommodation and employment security as well as fairer redistribution. The productive and creative abilities of the poor should be given special support to enable them to contribute to the reduction of absolute poverty and to facilitate a dignified quality of life. Self-help and participation are some of the pillars which support developmental work. Combating poverty can be divided into three areas;

- In the area of political dialogue, system change should be encouraged by advising governments within the framework of Structural Adjustment Programmes, but also through the initiatives of self help organizations. Here the support of structural reforms should improve the chances of indirect and direct strategies for combating poverty. An indirect strategy of combating poverty can happen in some projects where the group target is not clearly defined. Here, trickle down effects are often assumed, which take into account the impoverished environment.
- They are reached directly without any further steps of implementation needed (e.g. via credit, water, infrastructure, employment) or indirectly via measures aimed at social service provision (teacher training, advisory, health service etc.).
- Bilateral development policies view participation as a precondition for the long-term success of projects (OECD/DAC, 1995).

In order to achieve these goals, bilateral development policies state that the capabilities of the actors in the political arena at the national/regional level as well as at the local level must be strengthened. At the town/neighborhood level, the aim is to achieve careful use of resources and the improvement of the living conditions of the poorer groups of the population. Close co-operation between financial and technical aspect is striven for (Berg-Schlosser *et al.*, 2003).

The attempt to eradicate extreme poverty and forge a more just and equitable society necessarily depends on developing a new awareness of misery and, highlighting its human dimensions and overcoming reductionist emphases which conceive of poverty as a simple problem of material deprivation (Van Genugten & Perez-Bustilo, 2001). Since

misery is not predetermined, it rather has its explanation in the injustice of the prevailing economic, political and social systems, which enables a situation of privilege and wealth for some and of exclusion and poverty for the vast majority (Van Genughten & Perez-Bustilo, 2001).

The highest ranking cultural institutions such as national and international governments have the historical responsibility of recognizing and accepting the experiences, thought, wisdom and knowledge of the families trapped in extreme poverty, not as a data bank but rather as the basis upon which to pursue the elimination of misery and to place human rights at the service of humanity (Van Genugten & Perez-Bustilo, 2001). The section has been able to outline the different ways in which poverty can be understood and conceptualized for the purpose of developing strategies to eradicate it. The next section will outline various interventions, which are being attempted.

3.5 International Institutions and Poverty Relief Strategy Plans.

3.5.1 International Overview of Poverty

The ADB (2004) highlights that the majority of the developing countries continue to face widespread poverty, and that close to 50 percent of the population in these regions. Most crucial indicators also reveal notable gaps between Africa and other regions of the world. However, these aggregate figures mark variations within the continent. For example significant differences in the source and depth of poverty exist between North Africa and Sub-Saharan Africa and across countries within Sub-Saharan Africa. As a whole, indicators of poverty for North Africa are better than those for Sub-Saharan Africa (ADB, 2004). The World Bank, the United Nation Development Programme (UNDP), the International Labour Organisation have all become increasingly important actors in terms of shaping the international development agenda and in a growing variety of issues that relate to poverty alleviation (UNDP, 1997).

Poverty in most developing countries is associated with low level of education, poor health status and high fertility rates. As noted above there are also pronounced spatial dimensions to poverty as well and this is reflected in the high inequality in the world.

Other important factors closely related to poverty include persistent conflicts, the HIV/AIDS pandemic, environmental degradation, poor governance, declining international prices for primary commodities and gender inequality in access to productive assets, employment opportunities, political representation and social services (ADB 2004).

3.5.2 International Programmes Targeted at Poverty Alleviation

The United Nations Development Programmes (2003) in its development agenda entitled the 'Millennium Development Goals', which is an eight theme statement, focusing on reducing extreme poverty and hunger, also seeks to achieve universal primary education, promote gender equality, reduce child mortality, improve maternal health, combat HIV/AIDS and other diseases, ensure environmental sustainability and develop a global partnership for development.

In the context of this work, the UNDP (2003) asserts that poverty rates are falling in some regions while many people are getting poorer in other regions. The focus is to put mechanisms in place to meet the objectives of the goals. Universal primary education, equality in terms of employment and infrastructural provision, improved maternal and primary health care, the fight against HIV/AIDS and other diseases as well as developing partnership for development will all go a long way to reduce poverty as indicated in the report. The UNDP (2003) asserts that government of developing countries will have to ensure their own development through implementing policies and programmes aimed at eradicating poverty.

In view of this, Motloug and Mears (2002) argue that specific knowledge about the group affected by poverty and their economic characteristics is needed to improve their situation. Todaro (2000) also argues that a direct attack on poverty by means of poverty focused policies and plans can be more effective in both the short and long term. Motloug and Mears (2002) reiterate that poverty cannot be attacked without a detailed knowledge of its location, extent and characteristics. Kim (1997) argues that poverty in some regions like Africa is more of a rural phenomenon with most of the poor (who

constitute about 60% of the population) depending on agriculture for jobs and income. He asserts that the rural poor have very limited access to credit, land and extension service which he attributes to lack of genuine political commitment to land reform or public sector support for rural development.

Maxwell (1991) however, opined that poverty analysis and detailed planning, as well as more qualitative measures and participatory approaches will be most appropriate if poverty is to be alleviated, which would require the decentralization of government and local empowerment. Townsend (1993) however states that national governments and international agencies have had problems in defining poverty and distinguishing it from inequality.

The UNDP (2000) states that anti-poverty plans must be comprehensive and must be more than just a few projects that 'target' the poor. The UNDP (2000) reiterates that such plans must be comprehensive in order to be effective and must require adequate funding and effective co-ordination by the different government department responsible for its implementation

"If there are poor and marginalized people, they do not enjoy the status of citizens, because civil and political rights are merely formal recognitions. What difference would recognition of the right to poverty make to those who are poor if they possess nothing, or the right to vote if its exercise is ineffectual in changing the situation of social exclusion", (United Nation-World Summit on Social Development, 1995). The WSSD (1995) advocated that sustainable development could only be made possible when the political, economical and social rights of all people are fully respected, as these help to create the social equilibrium, which is vital if a society is to evolve in peace. The right to development is the measure of the respect of all other human rights (WSSD, 1995). This is a situation in which all individuals are enabled to maximize their potential and to contribute to the evolution of the society as a whole.

According to the Commission on Human Rights, (WSSD, 1995), a relationship exists between human rights and economic and social development. The General Assembly of the World Summit on Sustainable Development (WSSD) recognized that development is a comprehensive economic, social and political process which aims at the constant improvement of the well being of the entire population and of all individuals on the basis of their active, free and meaningful participation in development and in the fair distribution of benefit resulting there from. As such, there is a responsibility for the creation of national and international conditions favourable to the realization of the right to development.

“Article 1 and 2 of the WSSD report stipulates that the right to development is an inalienable human right by virtue of which every human person and all people are entitled to participate in, contribute to, and enjoy economic, social, cultural and political development, in which all human rights and fundamental freedoms can be fully realized” (WSSD, 1995: Page No. not indicated). It goes further to state that:

the human person is the central subject of development and should be the active participant and beneficiary to the right of development. All human beings have a responsibility for development, individually and collectively, taking into account the need for full respect for their human rights and fundamental freedoms as well as their duties to the community, which alone can ensure the free and complete fulfillment of the human being, and they should therefore promote and protect an appropriate political, social and economic order for development. States have the right and the duty to formulate appropriate national development policies and aim at the constant improvement of the well being of the entire population and of all individuals, on the basis of their active, free and meaningful participation in development and in the fair distribution of the benefit resulting there from (WSSD, 1995: Page No. not indicated).

3.6 Evolving Debates in terms of Poverty Alleviation

Mullen (1995) points out that poverty reduction and alleviation have returned to a priority position in the agenda of most development agencies, thus he opined that a more critical

appraisal of national and international interaction methods have been applied to the poverty eradication problem.

Mullen (1995) argues that the failure of past efforts to address poverty alleviation in most developing countries, such as through Structural Adjustment Programmes has necessitated the need to move towards policies and programmes that will constitute a direct attack on poverty and, as such, have poverty reduction and alleviation as explicit and central objectives. According to the 1998 Local Government White Paper in South Africa, policies and programmes specifically aimed at alleviating poverty should be initiated in such manner that they would have a maximum impact on social development and the meeting of the basic needs of the poor (RSA, 1998). Several policies such as the Growth Employment and Redistribution (GEAR) aimed at alleviating poverty in the past have failed, not because they were not well implemented, but because such programmes do not impact on the lives of the real poor people. In most cases such programmes as Growth Employment and Redistribution Strategy (GEAR) rely mostly on market forces.

Burkely (1993:12) states that the 'first step in assisting the poor people onto the path of development must therefore be an analysis of the cause of poverty affecting a particular people in their own particular situation. This analysis should preferably be carried out with the active participation of the people themselves'. The key issues in anti-poverty strategies as put forward by (Moser, 1998) are therefore to build up the asset base of the poor and to increase their capabilities to manage their existing package or portfolio of assets. Moser (1998) asserts that this asset vulnerability framework for dealing with poverty provides a conceptual base for understanding and applies equally at all levels of policy analysis from that of national government down to the operations of local government.

The International Labour Organisation (ILO, 1995) suggests that if poverty is to be alleviated, the following aspects must be seen as important, namely: enabling poor households to gain access to productive assets and employment opportunities and to receive adequate prices/payment. They are of the opinion that this can be achieved by

increasing the productivity of labour and the assets of poor households through access to capital, education and skills and the need to provide adequate access to a range of basic services and other types of infrastructure that might be needed to improve the capacity of the poor.

The creation of more employment opportunities is not regarded as the sole solution to the problem of poverty (Motloug & Mears, 2002). Barker (1992) stressed that this has to be achieved in a new and more labour-intensive fashion. Far-reaching economic and social measures are also needed, thus providing more work and sharing available work more widely can go a long way towards alleviating poverty. Employment creation is however seen as an essential ingredient of any poverty focused development strategy (Todaro, 2000). REMOVE

The World Bank (1993) asserts that employment serves as a net for those who become unemployed because it will address the problem of idleness, which will also inhibit crime. Lachaud (1990) & Barker (1995) however reiterated that because it serves the poor, it thus provides a channel for targeting aid to the poor. Todaro (2000) argues that a policy designed to bring about far reaching structural changes in the distribution of assets, power and access to education is urgently needed. Todaro (2000) stressed that without such radical structural changes and the redistribution of assets, the chances of improving the living condition of the majority of the rural and urban poor may be improbable, or even impossible. Motloug & Mears (2002) asserts that although the task of reducing poverty may be difficult, it is by no means impossible because poverty is neither a natural nor an inevitable phenomenon. The United Nation Development Programmes (UNDP, 1997) however indicated that poverty alleviation is not unrealistic but rather a practical and achievable goal has to be set and pursued. It stressed that economic policies rather than political considerations have to guide the transformation process to make poverty alleviation a success and reverse the mistake of the past.

This section has outlined the different views that have emerged in terms of developing appropriate poverty responses, bearing in mind that the success or failure of the strategies

will determine to a large extent the faith of those living in poverty of the hope that poverty can be overcome. The next section will outline the nature of poverty that exists in South Africa.

3.7 Poverty in South Africa

Poverty is generally acknowledged as one of the most serious problems facing post-apartheid South Africa (Budlender, 1999). The biggest challenge facing South African localities today is their inability to cope with the alarmingly high levels of unemployment that are severely retarding both economic growth and the poverty alleviation programmes (Loots, 1998). In certain areas, such as within the former homelands and in some of the informal settlements, statistics has shown a level of unemployment rising as high as 65% and even in some cases growing into the 80-percentile bracket (Nel, 2001; Nel & Hill, 1996) while some employment trend analysts like Borat (1999) and Loots (1998) have openly expressed their concern about the reliability of existing unemployment data.

However, since the coming to power of the ANC, a series of surveys have been undertaken, in part, to monitor the employment trend in South Africa. The October Household Surveys (OHS) as they have become known have succeeded in revealing some disturbing unemployment statistics. Going by the definition of unemployment that includes those who are jobless but who are looking for work, the unemployment rate in 1999 was approximately 23.3% (OHS, 1999). However if the traditional expanded definition which not only includes the unemployed and those actively looking for work but even those who have given up looking for employment, then the level of unemployment is seen as increasing to approximately to 36.2% (Statsa, 2001; OHS, 1999)

Access to basic infrastructure is a central tenet of the poverty debate in South Africa. Regulation of parastatals in utility provision has had an impact on the penetration ratios of vital services such as water, telecommunications and electricity, thereby affecting the quality of life of the poor. The other important issue has been the extent to which market

structure or regulation policy has had an impact on infrastructural investment (Budlender, 1999).

Most people in South Africa don't have access to adequate public infrastructure and as such are vulnerable to poverty. Pearce (2003) supported this view when she echoed that such people are housed in substandard houses, they are under-educated and under-employed. She is of the view that the growth of their poverty increases the spread of poverty in their communities in which the cycle of their poverty can be passed to the next generation if not well addressed.

The nature of poverty in South Africa is quite different from that of some other countries, because "two economies persist in one country" (Irinnews, 2003). The black-white divide exacerbated this during the apartheid era as well as intra-black divisions (Landman, 2003). Past policies of segregation and discrimination have left a legacy of inequality and poverty and, in more recent decades, low economic growth. The apartheid system was heavily biased towards providing health, education and housing services to the white minority, to the detriment of the black population who were denied the opportunity to accumulate human and physical capital. Labour market policies were aimed at protecting the position of white workers through active policies such as job reservation, while inferior education, influx control and the Group Areas Act ensured little competition from other race groups. Apartheid also unequally distributed resources (including land, mining rights and access to capital), thereby marginalizing a large sector of the population to menial and poorly paid sectors of the labour market, if granting access at all (Baulch, 1996).

The 'Speak Out' on the Poverty Hearings sponsored by the South African NGO Coalition (SANGOCO) in 1998, brought to mind many of the experiential aspects of poverty, including exposure to crime and violence, a sense of vulnerability and powerlessness, disrespect from government officials etc. The South African Participatory Poverty Appraisal (SA-PPA) of (1999-2000) portrayed the relationship between poverty and hopelessness, social isolation and family fragmentation (May *et al.*, 1997; Aliber, 2002).

While there is a group of structurally impoverished households, there is also quite a number that move in and out of poverty (Irinnews, 2003). According to the RDP, poverty is not the result of lack of income; it is mainly a measure of the proportion of basic needs that are currently unmet, which actually determines poverty in South Africa today, (ANC, 1994 in Motlounge and Mears, 2002). Townsend (2003) argued that some other forms of poverty could be caused by idleness, improvidence and insobriety, which were defects, which could be overcome by discipline and new attitudes.

3.7.1 Poverty Thriving on Inequality in South Africa

Poverty is seen as not the same as inequality. The two have to be distinguished, though they are connected, because it is easier to compare sections of the population, regions and countries on some measured interpretation of resources (i.e. inequality) or income than it is on some measured interpretation of poverty. A measure of poverty must apply not just to the legal end of the resource or income distribution, but must also apply to the selection of criteria applying to a threshold of income at which needs are not met or there is an inconsistent risk of severe or multiple deprivations (Townsend, 1993).

Townsend (1993) defined the poverty income line as that income level below which a minimum nutritionally adequate diet plus essential non-food requirements are not affordable. He stated that many people in the third world are living at standards, which can be described more closely, to utter destitution. Bangladesh is a very good example of such countries. Townsend (1993) argues that there are also some powerful structural forces 'lurking' even in the most orderly of societies, which perpetuate extreme poverty and inequalities. Some forms of poverty are caused as a result of a dual policy; which is partly national and partly international, or as a result of controls over the distribution and redistribution of resources within and between countries and territories. Inequalities in South Africa are extreme as this is seen in the income and the geographical dimensions to the incidence of poverty.

The Gini Coefficient is seen as the most popular indicator of income inequality and previous studies of income distribution have suggested that SA has one of the highest Gini scores in the world (Whiteford *et al.*, 1995). However the Gini coefficient measured in 1993 for the total population remains one of highest ever recorded. The within race Gini coefficients are also very high which is an indication that inequality within races is contributing to overall inequality (Whiteford *et al.*, 1995). South Africa's individual-based Gini coefficient is 0.73 (Statssa, 2000), which is excelled by only a handful of countries in the world. As revealed in May *et al.* (1997) and Aliber (2002), the wealthiest ten per cent of the population accounts for 40 percent of all private income earned, which implies smaller than average household size. Brazil is one of the few countries that have a higher Gini Coefficient than South Africa (May *et al.*, 1998). The World Bank also describes South Africa as one of the world's most unequal economies, with less than 3.9 per cent of income being earned by 40 per cent (Marais, 1998).

As made evident in the course of the poverty hearings, perceptions of continued inequality do much to contribute to the disillusionment and frustration associated with material poverty (Aliber, 2002). Inequality is also evident in terms of access to services, health status, etc. For example, 18 per cent of households within the poorest deciles travel more than one kilometer to get water (Budlender, 1999 in Aliber, 2002). Budlender (1999) concurs that the unusual aspect of the South African situation are the extreme inequalities in the country despite the fact that it is rated as an average income country, because such ratings are based on some aggregate values such as average per capita income which conceals the fact that a large number of people are extremely poor while a smaller number are extremely wealthy.

An examination of South Africa's changing income distribution between 1991 and 1996 by Whiteford & Van Seventer (2000:20) argues that "the rise in inequality within population groups and within the society as a whole is driven on one hand by rising employment of well-paid, highly skilled persons and on the other hand, declining employment of lower-paid, less-skilled persons who were forced into poorly remunerated informal sector employment or unemployment". Meth & Dias (2004) however concurs

that unless a fundamental shift occurs in the path along which the economy is moving, there is a little hope for a reduction in inequality and poverty.

This section has been able to outline the nature and type of poverty that exists in South Africa as well as some of the causal factors of this poverty, in which inequality in income, employment and access to infrastructure and services are clearly key variables. Having outlined the nature and type of poverty that subsists in South Africa, there is a need to look at how this poverty will be eradicated. The following sections will look at the nature and type of development interventions initiated in South Africa in order to eradicate poverty

3.8 The South African Government and Poverty

Landman (2003) is of the view that the most important issue facing South Africa ten years after its transition to democracy is breaking the grip of poverty on a substantial portion of its citizens. The South African government in its quest to eradicate and alleviate poverty has prioritized the cause of poverty alleviation on its development agenda (Oosthuizen, *et al.*, 2003).

The need to tackle poverty in poor communities has necessitated that the government and world agencies pay more attention to the poor so that they can be helped to live more fruitful lives and become the instruments for the growth of democracy (Berg-Schlusser & Kesting, 2003). In order to recognize the nature of poverty that prevail in South Africa, a Participatory Poverty Assessment (PPA) was undertaken in South Africa by May et al (1998). The report characterized the poverty of the poor as:

- Alienation from kinship and the community: The elderly living without care from younger family members were seen as 'poor', even if they had an old-age state pension (which provided an income which is relatively high by local standards). Similarly, young single mothers without the support of older kin or the fathers of their children were perceived to be 'poor'.

- Food insecurity: Households where children went hungry or were malnourished were seen as living in poverty.
- Crowded homes: The poor were perceived to live in overcrowded conditions and in homes in need of maintenance.
- Use of basic forms of energy: The poor were regarded as lacking safe and efficient sources of energy. In rural communities, the poor - particularly women - walk long distances to gather firewood.
- A lack of adequate paid, secure jobs: The poor perceived lack of employment opportunities, low wages and lack of job security as major contributing factors to their poverty.
- Fragmentation of the family: Many poor households were characterised by absent fathers or children living apart from their parents. Households may be split over a number of sites as a survival strategy (May *et al.*, 1998).

Knowing the extent and magnitude of poverty that exists in South Africa, the South African government has in response initiated policies and enacted laws aimed at ensuring poverty relief and alleviation.

3.8.1 Policy and Laws Implemented to Towards Poverty Alleviation

The South African Constitution, the White Paper on Transforming Public Service Delivery (1997), the White Paper on Local Government (1998), the Local Government: Municipal System Acts (No. 32 of 2000), and the Local Government: Municipal Structures Act (No 117 of 1998) are seen to be the leading measures, in the over-riding quest of promoting development and addressing poverty (Mathya 2002, Atkinson 2002).

The sustainable development objectives aimed at poverty eradication and alleviation are all consistent with South Africa's guiding policy mandates, including the Reconstruction and Development Programme (1994), the Constitution (1996), the Growth, Employment and

Redistribution (macroeconomic) strategy (1996), the Integrated Sustainable Rural Development Programme (2000) and the Urban Renewal Programme (2001), as well as with a variety of new legislative initiatives and the re-demarcation of municipal boundaries (DPLG, 2002).

Aliber (2002) reiterates that the South African government over the years has initiated a series of initiatives that have had a direct bearing on poverty eradication and sustainable development. The range of the policy includes,

- Anti-poverty strategies, which includes the Poverty Alleviation Fund and the general move towards development welfare;
- Public-works programmes aimed at promoting environmental conservation and job creation which have since been named the Extended Public Works Programme, the Working for Water Programme and the Land Care Programme
- Major infrastructure programmes, with a focus on the national housing scheme; and
- Second-generation ‘grand’ integration strategies in the form of the Integrated Sustainable Rural Strategy and the Urban Renewal Strategy (Aliber, 2002).

3.8.2 The Reconstruction and Development Programmes (RDP)

The South African Government since 1994, in its quest to effectively address the problem of poverty and inequality and ensure total transformation of South Africa sought to provide a policy framework for integrated and coherent socio-economic progress through the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP), (ANC, 1994). It was also described as one of South Africa’s first socio-economic strategies (RSA, 1994). As stated by (Habib & Padayachee, 2000) through the RDP, the coming into power of the ANC ended South Africa’s isolation in the international economy when it was forced to deal and cope with the pressing issue of global competition. This took place despite the government’s initial plan of balancing reconstruction and redistribution with financial responsibility.

The basic principles of the RDP, according to the RDP White Paper, are based on integration and sustainability and it is a people driven processes. Also integral are: peace and security, nation building, meeting basic needs and building infrastructure (ANC, 1994). The RDP is seen as being a mechanism that will bring about a people-centered society, which measures progress by the extent to which it has succeeded in securing social development, prosperity, liberty and happiness in the lives of the people, and by meeting their basic needs and through building infrastructures (Marais, 1998).

Stewart (1997:3) argued that the RDP was designed to overcome the “dire problems of poverty and acute inequality”, but Marais (1998) also noted that it was a programme created to deal with social justice, reconciliation and the building of a new South Africa. An information brochure that was issued by the ministry responsible for the RDP put the government’s stance on participatory development into perspective by stating that ‘society must take the leading role and responsibility for their own development in the process of reconstructing the new South Africa’ (RSA, 1994 [b]: 1). The RDP focused on five main programmes with strong emphasis on meeting basic needs; developing the nation’s human resources; building the economy; democratizing the state and society; and implementing the RDP (RSA, 1994).

Liebenberg & Theron (1997:128) state that of special relevance in the five programmes of the RDP is epitomized in the first one entitled ‘Meeting Basic Needs’. In order to address the backlog regarding basic needs, the programme envisaged a people-driven process in which local communities will participate in making key decisions in conjunction with the RDP structures (RSA, 1994:9). The participatory decision-making process was envisaged to take place within the context of a general strategy which aims to meet basic needs through creating opportunities to develop human potential; boosting production and household income; improving living conditions through access to basic physical infrastructure and social services; and establishing a social security system and safety nets to protect the poor (ANC, 1994: 15-16).

The recommendations laid out in the RDP were aimed at changing almost every facet of the South African society. As stated by the office of the President (RSA, 2003) in the recently published “Towards a ten year review”, over a million houses were built, electricity and water and telephone services were extended to several million people (Binns & Nel, 2002).

What was seen as a failure however, were the hundreds of thousand of jobs that it was predicted would be created through public work programme (Marais, 1998). It is pertinent to say that service delivery and job creation were supposed to have been enough to set South Africa well on its way to economic growth. The RDP was however plagued by serious challenges in its first two years before its’ ministry was finally closed in 1996. The major problem was that the country was not able to tackle the problem of unemployment sufficiently (RSA, 1996). Adedeji (1996) reiterated that the failure of the RDP to produce the number of jobs required to put South Africa back on its feet, coupled with insufficient domestic savings and increasing pressures from international bodies and organizations were apparent signals to economic policy makers that they should reform the macro-economic framework of the national economy as a means of staving off further economic decline. They sought to include in the new economic agenda some important elements such as decreased spending on social welfare, improved fiscal restraint and the co-option of labour.

3.8.3 The Growth, Employment and Redistribution Strategy (GEAR)

In an attempt by the South African economy to bounce back and prove that it is internationally competitive, the government undertook many of the same structural changes that countries around the world were implementing to ward off further economic erosion (Sellars, 2000). A macro-economy strategy the ‘Growth Employment and Redistribution’ (GEAR) was commissioned in December 1995 and released by Trevor Manuel in June 1996 (SA Ministry of finance, 1996[a]). GEAR was seen as the ANC’s reinterpretation of policy in response to pressures from the international economy

(Stewart, 1997). GEAR has since effectively replaced RDP as the economic policy used by the national government to promote national economic growth (Rogerson, 2000).

Amongst GEAR's objectives was the creation of a competitive, fast-growing economy capable of supplying sufficient jobs for all the work seekers (Loots, 1998; RSA 1996). The GEAR was seen as an indication of a new approach to policy which is top-down yet flexible and 'adaptive'. It was envisaged at its inception that GEAR would be able to create 400 000 jobs and produce GDP growth of 6% annually by the year 2000 (RSA, 1996). Most other economic strategies such as small business support as well as other economic initiatives as revealed in the later White Paper on Local Government were formed with GEAR macro-economic goals in mind (RSA, 1998 [a]; 1995, NGDS 1996). It should however be noted that these expectations did not come to fulfillment and to a large extent the genesis of an economically prosperous nation still waits. The implication of GEAR policies for South Africa's poorer localities is that they have been pushed to the back of the national government's priority list and now play a second fiddle, so to speak to a market-lead economic strategy.

The failure of GEAR has further exacerbated local economic crises. As a result of the adoption of a neo-liberal framework and its subsequent failure to attract intended amounts of foreign investment and contribute to poverty alleviation and to a wider transformation, South Africa has since been faced with the problem of de-industrialization and the shrinking of employment in the formal sector (Bhorat, 2000). During the 1990s about one million jobs has been lost in which about one hundred thousand were lost in the Free State Goldfields mining sector alone (Nel & Binns, 2001). Bhorat (2000) concurs with the view that about 1.5 million jobs were lost between 1975 and 1995 of which about 400000 occurred in the manufacturing sector.

3.8.4 Local Economic Development (LED)

Since 1994 LED has emerged as a central facet of policy and planning for both urban and rural construction (Nel, 2001; Philander & Rogerson, 2001; Rogerson, 2002: a). South

Africa today is faced with a problem of attributing a defined definition to the concept of local development, as it appears that there are diverse opinions about the definition of local development. Although the major directions taken by LED Planning in South Africa's cities shows evidence of a strong poor growth bias, it is clear a priority for national government in terms of the outcomes of LED is that it should contribute towards addressing problems of unemployment and poverty (Abrahams, 2003; Nel & Binns, 2003; Nel & Rogerson, 2004; Rogerson, 2000).

The precise scope of LED has been the subject of much contested debate. Most analysts view it as a process in which partnerships are forged between local governments, the private sector and the community based groups to create jobs, manage existing resources and stimulate the economy of a well defined territory (Helmsing, 2001a; 2002b). The World Bank (2003:1) expresses the view that LED's purpose is to "build the economic capacity of a local area, to improve its economic future and quality of life for all". Tomlinson (2003) reveals that there are differences of opinion between government departments as to what local development should focus on. Hindson (2003) in Gibb (2004) revealed that some local stakeholders in East London consider local development to be a process whereby the local business environment would be strengthened through improved access to credit and tax incentives, while others claimed that it should focus on sustainable livelihood and poverty alleviation. However, the Department of Trade and Industry agrees with the first point of view and supports business and job creation while the Department of Provincial and Local Government however stresses the need to focus on the idea of pro-poor development (Tomlinson, 2003).

The volume of post-modern and post-development research now being undertaken demonstrates that western policies makers are recognizing that past methods of focusing nearly all development on structural macro-economic strategies have missed the point of development thinking altogether (Binns & Nel 1999, Simon 1999, 1998, Pieterse, 1998, Stiglitz 1998). Binns & Nel (1999) went further to argue that development appears to have moved beyond an apparent impasse towards a new positioning associated with locality or people-centered developmental approach. Simon (1998: 220/221) concurs,

stating that “compelling evidence from around the Globe suggests that the dominant aspirations of poor people and their governments remain concerned with meeting basic needs and enhancing better living standards”.

It is however pertinent to state that local development could best be achieved through self-reliance, in which certain actions would have to be taken by individuals to satisfy their own needs. It should however be bottom-up, endogenous and people centered (Pieterse 1998, Simon 1998, Stohr 1981). Stock (1985) further elaborated on the concept of self-reliance in which he described self-reliance as an association through which locality, community and individual undertake that which will make them to be responsible for their own development and to base their development on what they know and want.

The mid-1990s witnessed a period of profound change that has almost reshaped all sectors of the South African society. The transformation that occurred in the political arena thus represented a victory for the previously politically oppressed black population, but that did not negate the fact that there still existed numerous economic challenges for many areas and the economy as a whole (Nel, 2001).

3.8.4.1 LED Initiatives Targeted at the Poor

The South African Department of Provincial and Local Government (DPLG) drafted an important LED policy document, entitled ‘Refocusing Development on the Poor’ in 2002. This document presented a case for promoting ‘pro-poor’ development, which would explicitly target low-income communities and the marginalized (DPLG, 2002). The DPLG identified six developmental LED strategies for support; it includes community-based economic development; linkages to human capital development; infrastructure and municipal services, leak plugging in the local economy; and, retaining and expanding local economy activities (Rogerson, 2004). This document offered a potential national framework for LED activity by municipalities which could be wedded to a strong pro-poor focus in terms of sustaining a developmental approach to their local economies (Bond, 2003; Rogerson, 2004).

Three critical areas have been identified which will benefit the poor in the LED setting relate to; improving regulatory frameworks, municipal service delivery and the creation of employment through the stimulation of local economic activities (Rogerson, 2004). The key sphere for creating employment relates to the activities of the informal economy, including a range of home based enterprises and of micro-enterprise activities (Skinner, 2000; Xaba *et al.*, 2002; Skinner & Valodia, 2003). Rogerson (2004) suggests that the existing support intervention can be either direct or indirect. He reiterates that the direct support for job creation will require local government policy intervention, which will provide a more facilitating environment, especially for the functioning of both survivalist and growing micro-enterprises. The forms of policy intervention identified by Skinner (2002) and Gibb (2004) range from the development of a local information base, zoning changes, marketing support and promotion, facilitation of periodic markets and assistance for development of appropriate vocational training.

Direct support can include local measures to improve the built environment for the activities of emerging entrepreneurs, including the facilitation of small business hives, incubators or nurseries, the provision of markets or making available premises for use as local business information, support or advice centers (TIPS, 2004; Rogerson, 2004). Local job creation initiatives in poor communities focusing on improving the skill base of the poor or raising the value of human capital of poor communities should be promoted (Gibb, 2004) as well as those targeted to support those economic activities in which there is a high level of labour absorption of poor communities in the informal economy, which includes clothing, tourism and agriculture (Rogerson, 2003a).

The national government is currently redesigning and rolling out a parallel pilot programme to further assist the strengthening of the implementation capacities of local government for Small Medium and Micro Enterprises (SMME) developments through focused support for capacity building and micro-finance which has been identified as a critical support need for emerging micro-enterprises.

This section has been able to outline some of the different poverty relief strategies taken by the post-1994 South African government, which target the meeting basic needs through job creation and infrastructure building. It was however observed that many of the poverty relief interventions have failed and as such have necessitated the focus of the poverty relief programmes to be modified. The next section will outline the role of local government in the poverty relief process.

CHAPTER FOUR

4.0 South African Local Government Policy and the Use of Geographical Information Systems in Poverty Research.

4.1 The Role of Local Government in the Poverty Reduction Process

Van Rooyen (2003) is of the view that South Africa does not have a culture of actively engaging communities in Local Government development affairs and in the poverty alleviation process. Democracy has brought a new emphasis to transparency in government activities, greater accountability and the notion of respect for human rights through creating the atmosphere for achieving human and social development and poverty alleviation (Van Rooyen, 2003). This approach significantly differs from the old-style paternalistic approach to managing development where community information and consultation was limited. Integrated Development Planning, Local Economic Development projects, various forms of municipal partnerships, municipal taxation and services rating issues aimed at poverty reduction and alleviation all require effective community participation processes (Van Rooyen, 2003). This involves decentralization as well as efforts to mobilize and strengthen civil society structures, processes and institutions at lower levels of government. This has to be done in such a way that will allow their relationship with the central and sub national governments to be more interactive and mutually reinforcing, in which the challenge of poverty reduction will not be reduced to a government or individual responsibility but will be a joint responsibility (Mogale, 1995).

Municipal government has undergone a difficult transition since 1999, which witnessed the amalgamation of urban areas and their rural hinterlands and the combining of several urban areas within single municipalities thus reducing the duplication of senior staffs, the consolidation of municipalities into uniform spatial areas that make sense from an economic, topographical and infrastructural point of view and the inclusion of richer and poorer areas, thus making some redistribution possible (Atkinson, 2002).

Local government should play a pivotal role in reshaping and strengthening local communities, by intensifying service delivery, especially to the poor and thereby deepening the foundations for democratic, integrated, prosperous and non-racial local community (Mogale, 2005).

Local government authorities are challenged to develop programmes and design services to address the needs of people with different experiences and status because it is at this tier of government that close and trusting relationships have to be built between municipalities, individuals, interest groups and the whole communities (Mathye, 2002). This has been made obligatory in terms of the South African Municipal Systems Act of 2000, which obliges local authorities to clearly determine explicit development strategies, which can reduce poverty, and to consult with communities (RSA, 2000). Vanderschueren *et al* (1996) reiterates that approaches to poverty reduction at the municipal level should be designed in ways that are meant to strengthen and complement (rather than replace) those anti-poverty strategies implemented at macro- and micro-levels.

The National Government in its quest to bring the Government closer to the people has sought to use Local Government as a key to achieving this (White Paper, 1994). Local Governments, according to the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (Act 108 of 1996), are required to serve a political representative function with active community participation in order to achieve service delivery, social and economic development and a healthy environment. In other words, they are to give priority to meeting local needs through service delivery, local economic development, spatial planning and health care planning. (RSA, 1996[a]: 153).

The needs of communities are addressed through a variety of approaches and mechanisms by the different spheres of government. Developments such as Integrated Development Planning (IDP) and Local Economic Development (LED) have been and continue to be experienced in the local sphere of government and as such local communities should be afforded the opportunity to articulate their expectations and to

prioritize their needs (Mathye, 2002; Van Rooyen, 2003). Van der Walt & Knipe (1998) and Coetzee *et al.* (2001) however reiterate that it is necessary that communities be informed and made aware of and even be educated on the basics of what developmental role local government could afford them, and that they are made stakeholders in municipal affairs in one way or the other. In the same vein, Korten (1990: 67-68) emphasizes that the process of development is based on '...personal and institutional capacities that acknowledges the fact that only people themselves can define what they consider to be improvement in the quality of their lives'. Mathye (2002) stressed that the community also need to be aware that in reality resource constraints are prevailing and therefore in most cases, projects and resources allocation are provided on the basis of priority.

As revealed by Moser (1998, 1996), the greatest asset of the poor is their capacity for labour. Accordingly, municipal actions towards employment creation can represent important options for poverty alleviation. Indeed, it is stressed that 'employment generation as the means for alleviating urban poverty has historically been one of the major strategies for alleviating poverty in the developing world' (Stren and Gombay, 1994:16). A range of local government interventions in the developing world have facilitated job creation and assistance to poor communities. The key area for policy consideration relates to support for the activities of the survivalist informal economy, including a range of home-based enterprises, and of micro-enterprise activities (Stren & Gombay, 1994).

The essential task of poverty programmes or initiatives introduced at any level of government is to enhance the asset base of poor communities, households and individuals by improving their access to physical and social assets (Stren & Gombay, 1994). Mokate (2001) is of the view that the key issue for local government in meeting the basic needs of the people is to ensure that their own service provision priorities are in line with the national framework of meeting basic needs, which include health care, basic education, housing, social security, water and sanitation. The importance of providing social and economic infrastructure for poverty alleviation cannot be over-emphasized. Local

authorities have an important role to play in the proper targeting of services and programmes that will reduce and alleviate poverty (Bird *et al.*, 1995).

4.2 Conflicts in Terms of Municipality's Developmental Roles

Local government in South Africa is undergoing a process of transformation from apartheid's highly unequal, racially classified local government apparatus towards a more integrated, developmental, equitable and sustainable sphere of government. This will require provincial and local government capacity-building and the reflective institutionalization of service delivery instruments under the jurisdiction of local government (Mogale, 2005). In carrying out the developmental duties assigned to local governments, there is need to distinguish the activities which different levels of local government may undertake.

South Africa has two tiers of local government: district municipalities and local municipalities. Traditionally, the district municipalities have had very limited functions, viz. the allocation of capital grants (derived from their levy revenue) to local municipalities and the management of a few district-level bulk functions (e.g. large scale water supply) (Atkinson, 2002). Two contrasting points of view have emerged with regards to the future role of district and local municipalities as regards the allocation of powers and functions between district and local municipalities which is now under review (Atkinson, 2002). Atkinson went further to state which of the municipalities, whether district or the local should be the primary developmental tier. The first perspective that most developmental functions should be concentrated at the district level is based on three comparative advantages, which they possess;

Firstly, it is more cost-efficient to build up more capacity at the forty-seven district municipalities rather than at the two hundred and thirty seven local municipalities; secondly, it enables a degree of redistribution from wealthier towns within a district municipality's jurisdiction to poorer areas and thirdly, some developmental functions are best addressed at the district wide level. Some functions involve several local

municipalities (e.g. district based tourism), whereas other functions can be done at a lower scale if done within several municipalities simultaneously (e.g. the rapid rollout of sanitation projects) (Atkinson, 2002). In line with this the Municipal Structures Amendment Act (2001) amended section 84[1] of the Municipal Structures Act. Under the new Act, four local functions [water, sanitation, electricity and environmental health] were allocated to the district municipalities.

There is a contrasting view, which holds that as most developmental functions are labour intensive, a great deal of personal contact between managers and communities is required. This would entail a primary role for local municipalities (and possibly for branch offices of local municipalities), as many district municipalities are simply too large for such functions (Atkinson, 2002). Another argument put forward by Atkinson (2002) and Visser (2001) in support of the importance of local municipalities, is precisely that they are local and as such are better tuned to the specific need of localities. Local diversity may require different local developmental policies and programmes and ultimately, local municipalities should be politically answerable to their own communities for the developmental choices they make. This argument puts the developmental onus within the local municipalities' court (Atkinson, 2002).

4.3 Local Government and Their Developmental Role in South Africa

4.3.1: Laws Governing Developmental Local Government

The landmark 1998 White Paper on Local Government introduced the concept of 'developmental local government' which was defined as 'local government commitment to working with citizens and groups within the community to find sustainable ways to meet their social, economic and material needs and improve the quality of their lives' (Rogerson, 2004; RSA, 1998: 17). Pycroft (2000) reiterates that the launch of the White Paper on Local Government in 1998 established a blueprint for the transformation of local government in South Africa (Pycroft, 2000). The White Paper (RSA, 1998) lays the guidelines for South Africa's municipalities to follow in their attempt to provide local development through promoting job creation and boosting the local economy.

Section 153 of the 1996 Constitution explains the developmental duties of local municipalities which requires that each municipality should structure and manage its administration as well as its budgeting and planning process in a way that gives priority to the basic needs of the community and promotes the social and economic development of the community (RSA, 1996). The 1998 White Paper on Local Government concurs with the view and stipulates that the local government is and should be responsible for the provision of household infrastructure and services, which is seen as an essential component of social and economic development. This includes services such as water, sanitation, local roads, storm water drainage, refuse collection and electricity. It goes further to stress that good basic services, apart from being a constitutional right, are essential to enable people to support family life, find employment, develop their skills or establish their own small businesses (RSA, 1998). The White Paper (RSA, 1998) stressed that local government can play an important role in promoting job creation and boosting the local economy. Investing in the basics - by providing good quality, cost-effective services and by making the local area a pleasant place to live and work - is the key starting point (RSA, 1998).

4.3.2 The role of Developmental Local Government

Municipalities in South Africa are at a critical juncture in their developmental mandate. Atkinson (2002) hinted that since 1994, when the transition to democracy took place in South Africa, South Africa inherited a dysfunctional local government system, based on inappropriate jurisdictions, structures and programmes. Municipalities are now required to become the foremost development agencies within the government system. It is pertinent to state that, municipalities must not only undertake a variety of infrastructural projects, they must also define and implement complex social and economic development projects (Atkinson, 2002), which for many is a very real challenge given capacity and resource constraints.

International and national experience indicates that the activities of local government, rather than national programmes, may be the most critical interventions for local level

poverty reduction, for addressing inequality and, more specifically, for providing an environment that maximises the potential and short-circuits the negative tendencies of the informal sector (Isandla Institute, 1999). Mathya (2002) echoes the same view that several mechanisms in the local sphere are meant to facilitate transformation in the way services are delivered. She also identified other mechanisms aimed at facilitating participatory and inclusive development.

Atkinson (2002) highlighted the importance of local government in this regard, based on several key factors,

- 1). Local government is intrinsically multi-sectoral. It is the only sphere of government that has the mandate to bring together a variety of sectoral issues within one developmental policy, programme or project;
- 2). Local government is closest to the people. The municipal offices are in most cases located closer to residents than other levels of government, which makes it easier for access. More importantly, the ward system of representation, unlike the proportional representation system at the provincial level and national level, indicates that councillors must attend to the needs and interests of specific neighborhoods.
- 3). Real development requires on-going involvement with beneficiaries and communities, whether in the form of leadership development, institutional capacity-building, public participation in planning or project implementation and more frequently conflict management.

In a real sense for development activities to succeed, they must be based at a level of government that is staffed by people who are physically accessible to residents and who preferably live within the local community (Mathya, 2002). Mogale (2005) concurs with the above view that local governance reinforces the opportunities for citizen-state interaction and potentially better addresses concerns close to the hearts of the local poor.

Bagchi (2000: 398) argues that a developmental local government is one 'that puts economic development as top priority and is able to design effective instruments to promote such an objective'. The instruments identified include, forming new formal

institutions, the weaving of formal and informal networks of collaboration among citizens and officials and the utilization of new opportunities for trade and profitable reduction (Mogale, 2005). Atkinson (2002) pointed out that Government is a means and not an end. It should however be seen as a tool and an instrument to achieve a desired (developmental) end. She stressed that a development-oriented government is one that has designed its internal relationships in a way that specific developmental goals are achieved.

The past ten years in South Africa has witnessed great progress in designing municipal systems and governmental principles intended to promote sustainable development, through development oriented government structures and governance systems in South Africa (Atkinson, 2002). Based on the importance of the issues outlined above, Atkinson, Pycroft and a host of other authors highlighted that local government has a key role to play within the development renaissance in Africa, which has already begun in South Africa. Having outlined the developmental roles of local government, there is a need to discuss the mechanism through which local government can perform these developmental roles in this present dispensation. The following section outlines the process of Integrated Development Planning in support of the developmental role of Local government.

4.4 The Integrated Development Planning (IDP) Process and its Implementation

4.4.1 The IDP as a Mechanism for Development (Poverty Alleviation)

The South African Government in its quest to bring about a people-centered society, in which progress can be attained in at all levels and which improves the lot of the poorest in the society has encouraged the passing of the development mandate to the local level (Local Government) and as such has required and necessitated the introduction of Integrated Development Plans which will encompass all the activities of the local government, putting necessary infrastructural projects in place to get rid of poverty at each local level. The IDP is a plan that is prepared by municipalities for the purpose of planning and implementation of their projects through a consultative and participatory process with their residents within their areas of jurisdiction as outlined by Municipal Systems Act of 2001 (Mathya, 2002; Harrison, 2001; Pycroft, 1998). Since mid-2001,

South Africa's Municipalities have been required to prepare Integrated Development Plans (IDPs) in terms of the Municipal System Act (2000) as a statement of its development needs and strategies and the ways it intends to address local development challenges such as poverty (Atkinson 2002).

The IDP is one of the key tools for local government to cope with its new development role which is seen as a contrast to the role-played by local government in the past. The IDP is now seen as a function of municipal management, and as part of an integrated planning and delivery. The IDP process will arrive at decisions on issues such as municipal budgets, land management, promotion of Local Economic Development and institutional transformation in a consultative, systematic and strategic manner. The IDP, however will not only inform the municipal management, who are also required to guide the activities of any agency from other spheres of government, corporate service providers, NGOs and the private sector operating within the municipal area, (Department of Provincial and Local Government [DPLG], 2000).

Integrated Development Planning as an instrument of local development lies at the center of this new system of local government and represent the driving force for making municipalities in South Africa more strategic, inclusive, responsive and performance driven in character (DPLG, 2002). The IDP is a municipal plan that deal with all the projects, programmes, plans of other agencies (national/provincial government departments, parastatals, development agencies, private sector) operating in or affecting a given community (DPLG, 2002). It is seen as a major shift from traditional forms of planning in South Africa (DPLG, 2002). The IDP is strategic in nature and transcends being merely a physical and spatial plan for the municipality. Its usefulness in promoting and speeding up local economic development lies in this strategic nature. The Municipal Systems Act also stipulates that the IDPs should have explicit plans for the economic sectors of the community (DPLG, 2002).

The IDP is defined as a 'participatory approach to integrate economic, sectoral, spatial, social, institutional, environmental and fiscal strategies in order to support the optimal

allocation of scarce resources between sectors and geographical areas and across the population in a manner that provides sustainable growth, equity and the empowerment of the poor and marginalized' (DPLG, 2000: 15; Rogerson, 2004). In essence, according to the Department of Provincial and Local Government (DPLG), the IDP is 'conceived as a tool to assist municipalities in achieving their developmental mandates' (DPLG, 2000: 15) and as a planning and implementation instrument to bring together the various functions and development objectives of municipalities (Rogerson, 2004).

4.4.2 The IDP Process

The IDP methodology provides a detailed description of the phases of the IDP process and of the planning activities required in each phase, the information required, the purpose of the project, the required outputs and the recommended processes (DPLG, 2000). The phases in the IDP process as stated by the DPLG (2000) include;

1) The assessment of the existing level of development, which includes the identification of the problems faced by the communities, in-depth analysis of their level of importance as well as prioritizing the problems.

2) The municipality is expected to come up with strategy that will solve the problems of the community, the strategies include

- Vision: This is the municipality's vision to address identified needs
- The municipality's Development priorities and objectives
- The municipality's development strategies, bearing in mind the type of projects to be embarked on (DPLG, 2000).
-

3) The municipality must ensure that the projects identified are directly linked to the priority issues and the objectives that were identified. This will include

- Forming "project task teams"
- Formulation of project proposals

- Setting indicators for objectives
- Project outputs, targets/locations
- Projects activities and time schedules, and
- Cost, budget estimate and source of finance (DPLG, 2000).

4) The municipality will have to harmonize (screen) the projects in terms of content, location and timing in order to arrive at a consolidated and integrated programme. This would include;

- An integrated spatial development framework
- Integrated sectoral programmes that must include LED, HIV/AIDS, poverty alleviation, gender equity issues etc.
- An Integrated financial plan (Both capital and operational budget)
- A consolidated monitoring/performance management plan
- An institutional plan (DPLG, 2000).

5) This is the final stage in which it is ascertained that the municipality identifies priority problems/issues in line with its vision, objectives and strategies. This is crucial, because at this stage planning is linked to the municipal budget. The provincial/national government and public then make comments. The comments are then incorporated and responded to before final adoption by the municipal council, which is headed by the mayor (DPLG, 2000)].

4.4.3 The IDP as an Integrated Tool for Development

Integrated Development Plan is aimed at the integrated development and management of the area of jurisdiction of the municipality concerned in terms of its powers and duties. Municipalities prepare a five-year strategic plan that is reviewed annually in consultation with communities and stakeholders. The IDP seeks to promote integration by balancing the social, economic and ecological pillars of sustainability without compromising the institutional capacity required in the implementation (Akani, 2002; Visser, 2001).

The IDP is seen as a local pathway to sustainable development in South Africa, and is used to foster more appropriate service delivery by providing the framework for economic and social development within the municipality. The process is meant to arrive at decisions such as municipal budgets, land management, the promotion of local economic development and institutional transformation in a consultative, systematic and strategic manner (Akani, 2002). This will allow for the creation of infrastructure such as housing, water, sanitation, public toilets, roads, electricity, transport, community and social services that will meet basic needs as well as encourage the support and participation of people in making key decisions about where the projects should be located and how to manage them so that it will serve its purpose optimally (Burton, 1997). Mathye (2002) reiterates that the IDP is the principal strategic instrument for local councils, which informs planning and development, all planning decisions and management and development in the municipality. She goes further to say that service provision in any sphere is about meeting the basic and strategic needs of individuals, groups and communities. IDPs are built on a consultative process through which local government structures engage with local residents to understand their needs and priorities. As such IDPs can have a fundamental impact on poverty.

The efficacy of the IDP is that they provide a benchmark according to which goals can be set and pursued and the monitoring and evaluation [M&E] of anti-poverty interventions can be undertaken (Aliber, 2002). Aliber (2002) stated that the IDP process could provide a potent vehicle for the pursuit of sustainable development. It is reasonable to expect that, with time, the IDP process will become more and more effective provided there is adequate local government capacity and community organization. In view of the above there is need for proper planning and the implementation of projects as well as monitoring and assessment of success on the part of the local government in order to get rid of poverty among its populace.

These IDPs are intended to be multi-sectoral programmes, including a wide variety of development, ranging from hard services such as provision of water, sanitation,

electricity, housing and road to soft or human development issues such as land reforms, poverty alleviation, tourism and Local Economic Development (Atkinson, 2002). An Integrated Development Plan is however not stagnant and represents ever-changing policy and strategy that must grow and evolve with the Local Authority and its people. Many aspects influence the objectives, projects, indicators and programmes that are proposed in the IDP and therefore annual review is critical to ensure the implementation of plans, measure their development impact, ensure the efficient use of resources and measure the Council's performance (Makana Municipality, 2004).

4.5 Local Government Challenges Regarding IDPs Implementation

There are challenges, which might hinder the proper implementation of the IDP. Atkinson (2002) and Harrison (2001) highlighted three of such issues, which include the level of project management capacity within the local governments, the design of municipal organizations and the redefining of existing functions. There is a glaring lack of project management capacity skill within most local governments, which has often been identified as a crucial blockage in delivery (Jackson *et al.*, 1999; Harrison, 2001; Atkinson, 2002). Harrison (2001) argues that many local governments in South Africa are so weak institutionally that they cannot perform the most basic functions of management and service delivery and a sophisticated level of integrated and coordinated planning remains a long way off.

Reedy (2000:293) however asserts that 'The restructuring of the local government training system has to be pursued within the wider context of challenges facing local government to transform it from narrow service delivery orientated character to one that is developmentally orientated, participatory and responsive to the community in which it has to take place within the context of stability and continuity in local government'. Atkinson (2002) is of the view that while various grants address various aspects of the developmental challenges facing municipalities, none of them provide general financial support for the new developmental role of local government- i.e. to implement a variety of programmes and projects identified in the IDPs. There are important new overhead costs which municipalities will need to bear, in order to implement their IDPs. The

implications of implementing the IDPs are now becoming evident. If additional funding streams are not provided, municipalities will experience their new developmental role as nothing other than a huge unfunded mandate (Atkinson, 2002).

In building up of municipal developmental capacity, a great deal of effort needs to be expended by the national and provincial departments, which would include;

- The assessment of the content of municipal IDPs and a draft preliminary estimate of the developmental capacity to implement the various programmes and projects by the national and provincial line departments
- The costing of the municipal development management should be done (e.g. Funding development officers posts), and the finance and fiscal commission should be approached to investigate possible additional intergovernmental transfers to pay for these additional municipal overheads (Atkinson, 2002).

Harrison (2001) highlights some of the challenges facing a successful implementation of the IDP to include; the failure of many local councils to accept ownership of consultant-prepared IDPs, and to use them to direct their budgeting process; the continued lack of integration and linkages between the IDP and planning within other spheres of government; the poor quality of analysis and reports produced by many ill-prepared planners, whose traditional focus was on spatial planning rather than development planning; poorly constructed participatory process; institutional conflicts around planning issues involving official (often resistant to change) and the newly elected and inexperienced councillors; poor linkages between the IDPs, broader spatial frameworks and the details of land-use management systems; poor linkages between planning processes at district and local scales; and the difficulties in linking planning and budgeting processes with varying time horizons (Harrison, 2001).

The critical question asked by Atkinson (2002) is whether the municipalities have the capacity to implement their IDPs? Or will the IDPs become dust-covered tomes that grace municipalities' bookshelves?

4.6 Assessing the Impact of South Africa's Poverty Interventions

The existence and functioning of a nation and its government, is predicated on the need for orderly human interaction, and the provision of a systematic mode of delivery for a wide array of services, ranging from purely governance services to the provision of a variety of social services. Laws, regulations and practices evolve to provide definite guides for human and governmental conduct. The state provides a social framework that aims at satisfying the social wants, claims, demands and expectations involved in the existence of a society, by giving effect to, as much as possible, with the least sacrifice, a generally acceptable ordering of human conduct (Nigeria Direct, 2004).

Democratic societies create a number of rights for citizens, and in return, certain basic duties and responsibilities are expected by the citizen from the state. A symbiotic relationship is thus created where there are legitimate expectations, and citizens expect their government to deliver a minimum basket of goods and services effectively and efficiently. In such societies, government is mainly funded by citizens' taxes, and in return, they demand accountability and a transparent administration of state resources. This background provides the rationale of high quality service expectation by the citizens, and the rendering of the same, and continuous attempts to improve service delivery on the part of government (Nigeria Direct, 2004).

Aliber (2002) argues that the most successful anti-poverty initiative during the post-apartheid era has been the investment in infrastructure and facilities. He is of the view that much of this has directly benefited the rural and urban poor, for example in improving access to electricity and safe water and the building of new schools and health clinics. Aliber (2002) argues further that these initiatives do not exhaust the policy developments that have, or have had a bearing on poverty eradication and sustainable development; they cover a sufficiently broad spectrum to help appreciate progress to date. One of the key achievements is the building and transfer of low-cost housing through the National Housing Programme. As of June 2001, more than 1.1 million units had been delivered, accommodating 5.7 million people, which represents a phenomenal 14 per cent of the total population. Of the units delivered, 90 per cent have been on the

basis of full subsidies for households with monthly incomes of less than R1500 (Aliber, 2002). Also worth noting are the significant, albeit generally short-term, labour-intensive jobs created as part of housing and infrastructural provision.

4.7 Geographical Information Systems (GIS) in Poverty Alleviation

4.7.1 Introduction

Over the past decades, large volumes of digital spatial data have been created using Geographical Information Systems (GISs), computer-aided design (CAD), and image processing systems. The need to visualise and explore these data is becoming widely recognized (Kraak and MacEachren 1999). At the same time, there is also a strong incentive to distribute the results efficiently (Huang, Jiang & Hui, 2001). Cowen (1994:3) defines a GIS as a spatial data processing system with three important components: spatial database, analytical functionality, and visualization capability, in other words, it is seen as a system of “hardware, software, livewire and procedures designed to support the capture, management, manipulation and analysis of spatially referenced data, for solving complex management problems”.

The use and implementation of GIS over the years is seen as one of the many responses to rapidly emerging technology, which previously only used to be the preserve of the large organizations that could afford the expensive hardware and could exploit the seemingly complex software (Alterkawi, 2004). The use of GIS over the years has generated significant benefits, which include; it saves time and therefore might accelerate official procedures, it increases efficiency and can afford innovative application possibilities, it generates revenue through sales of value added products, improves accuracy even between different data providers, automates time, saves time, money and human resources.

4.7.2 The Importance of Geographical Information Systems

Medykyj-Scott (1993) argues that the use and importance of GIS has spread across regions and it is now used in both local and regional contexts to monitor changes and

manage natural resources, because of its finite nature which requires careful and thoughtful management and planning. Its use also includes scientific and planning applications as well as many administrative uses such as property registration and the management of public utilities like water, electricity etc. Meyers (1999) support the assumption that the primary goal of any utility is to plan and manage the use of facilities to deliver commodities such as water, natural gas, and electricity to consumers.

Medyckyj-Scott (1993), reiterates that the essence of a GIS is to bring together data from different sources which contribute to a specific decision or a set of decisions and integrates this compound information on the assumption that more information and better presentation can improve the decision(s) being made. He highlighted that GIS applications often use data that were already collected for some other purposes and it integrates them with other, previously unrelated datasets. Sources of such data might include satellite images, a variety of maps and cadastral sources, census and environmental surveys. GIS is increasingly accessible to planners and is now an important tool for urban planning in developed and developing countries alike (Yeh, 1999). Abbott (2003) shares this view in the recognition of the fact that large scale, replicable upgrading of informal settlements is only possible through the use of spatial information technologies and at this time there is need to recognise that the primary aim of the upgrading is for the social and economic development of the community. It can also facilitate the co-ordination and monitoring of particular land use types and related environmental changes, thus enabling development planning managers to establish, in good time, whether or not urban or regional planning is progressing according to plan (Denshaw, 1991; Talen, 1998).

4.7.3 The Use of GIS in Poverty Alleviation

It has been observed that a large majority of all decisions taken by local, regional, national and international governments, as well as organizations that look into poverty related issues depend on a spatial context or have spatial impacts through their actions. The spatial context as well as general trends in society drives towards more exhaustive

information processing before a decision can be reached. This however requires the application of a GIS before such information can be analysed and presented in a spatial context (Alberades, 1992).

The growing potential of GIS has made it a relevant and useful tool in poverty alleviation. This is seen not only in the inventory mapping of poverty but also in the mapping of the results of various poverty measures chosen for geographically targeted areas. This helps to establish a direct relationship between information and its location on the earth in an ordered spatial framework. Geographical targeting that determines the place of residence as the main eligibility criterion can be an effective way of reaching the poor in countries where there are substantial disparities in the living conditions between geographical areas (Datt *et al.*, 1993).

GIS is also used as a tool to show where there are various socio-economic lapses in service delivery as well as the uneven distribution of services. In this vein, the significance of GIS to development planning is apparent (William, 1999). It is used by development planners for the systematic pursuit of flexible, socio-economic objectives such as the planning of housing, educational facilities, health services, transport and other services that tend to meet the basic needs of people (Burgess *et al.*, 1997). The spatial analytical functionality inherent with GIS has made it possible to focus attention on the quality of data available at a spatially disaggregated level (Higgs & White, 1997). GIS has also been used to facilitate analysis of the accessibility of social groups to rural services with the aim of incorporating this information in indices of need (Higgs & White, 1997). The use of GIS in poverty alleviation dates back to 1983 when the first major use of GIS, as a planning tool in informal settlement upgrading, was used in Belo Horizonte in Brazil, when the Profavela2 Law was passed, which opened the way for the upgrading and development of the favelas in the city (Abbott *et al.*, 2001).

Poverty mapping in its various forms involves techniques that permit sufficient disaggregation of a poverty measure to local administrative levels or even smaller geographical units. All poverty-mapping techniques imply alternative schemes for

weighting a particular poverty index, and may imply alternative poverty ranking to the chosen unit (Abbott *et al.*, 2001). This in turn facilitates targeting and support.

Types and depth of poverty, measured in a range of different ways, vary between and within countries, regions and other geographic and administrative units. Spatial heterogeneity can develop for a variety of reasons such as differences in geography, history and ethnicity, access to markets, public services and infrastructure, and other aspects of public policy (Davies 2003). As Davies (2003) suggests, poverty mapping has two primary uses; first, the spatial identification of the poor; and secondly, poverty mapping has in many instances served to target social, agricultural, emergency, environmental and anti-poverty programmes. Poverty maps have been “crossed” with environmental and agricultural-system maps in order to use visual spatial analysis to discern correlations. They can also be used to create, as a by-product, explanatory and dependent spatial variables for use in multivariate analysis in combination with recently developed tools that permit spatial dimensions to be incorporated in multivariate examinations of poverty issues (Davies, 2003).

Poverty mapping is essentially a tool; its functionality must therefore be seen and evaluated in the light of the objectives for which it is put to use - and the research and policy questions and hypotheses upon which it can shed light. Poverty mapping should be initiated with clear objectives in mind that will help to guide interpretation of the output and determine the appropriate methodology. Although poverty mapping can serve as a useful exploratory or directed tool in establishing and presenting the spatial relationship between a pair or series of indicators, it can also lead to serious misinterpretation of causal relationships between variables (Davies 2003).

Most types of poverty mapping increasingly depend on data generated by Geographical Information Systems (GIS), where values are fixed to specific locations. The spatial location of poor people facilitates integration of data from sources such as satellites, censuses, household surveys, sectoral surveys, models and simulations which facilitates

the analysis of the determinants and impacts of poverty. GIS techniques provide five functions in poverty mapping (Bigman & Deichmann, 2000). These are;

- Integration of multiple databases from different sources;
- Analysis of spatial association between variables;
- Inclusion of spatially generated explanatory variables into the multivariate analysis of the determinants of poverty, including natural capital and infrastructure, and access to public services and products and labour markets;
- Disaggregated poverty measures can serve as an explanatory variable for other outcomes; and
- Policy comparison and formulation through dynamic mapping or monitoring.

4.7.3.1 International Case Studies

A case study of the use of GIS in poverty alleviation is seen in the work of Manansala (1999), who developed and demonstrated a GIS based monitoring system for the city government of Angeles in the Philippines, developed to improve poverty monitoring and analysis. This was done to enhance the formulation, planning and implementation of poverty alleviation programmes. The system was developed in a GIS environment to integrate and structure different poverty sets from various sources in a common database, to facilitate data analysis and their integration to the geo-information of the city and to provide for a spatial dimension to interventions. Another case study as discussed by Bigman *et al* (2002), presents a methodology for mapping poverty within national borders at the level of relatively small geographical areas, i.e. at the district level in India. This sought to identify a high number of people living below poverty line in the districts in a cost effective manner.

4.7.4 GIS in the South African Context

After the start of the active use of GIS in the mid 1980s, the development of geographical databases, training of staff, the emergence of successful private sector companies and software have emerged in such a way that makes GIS an effective tool assisting in the development of the country (Macdevette, 1994; Macdevette et al., 1999). GIS is now

used in all levels of government and in many sectors of the society. Geographical databases are now available for key national issues such as demographics, education, soil, climate, geology, communications and the electricity infrastructure. National government uses GIS to support national census, water resource planning and development, agricultural and forestry management, environmental management, and health management amongst others. National parastatals (organizations owned fully or partially by the state e.g. utilities and science councils), use GIS for research and development, forestry, electricity provision and telecommunication, while local government use GIS for a wide range of planning and monitoring work. Although certain sectors such as nature conservation and agriculture are using GIS at the provincial level, it is not widely used for provincial management. GIS is used extensively in the private sector in areas ranging from the siting of franchise operations to logistical planning and mining operations (Macdevette *et al.*, 1999).

4.7.4.1 GIS and the Development of a National Spatial Development Framework

The forum for Effective Planning and Development (FEPD) was set up to develop a coordinated National Spatial Development Framework to guide investment in South Africa. Recognising the need for information to support decision-making, the FEPD commissioned a Development Planning Framework Atlas and an attendant computerised spatial information system. This was done to provide information to support development planning at national, provincial and local levels, (Macdevette *et al.*, 1999).

4.7.4.2 GIS in Land Reform

In South Africa, the apartheid government policies supported the development of a highly distorted land ownership system, in which 80% of the country's land was owned by 13% of its people. As a result, land reform is therefore a priority within the Reconstruction and Development Programme of the government. The Department of Land Affairs has initiated an integrated programme of land reform and intends to use GIS as a tool to support the reform process at the national level (Macdevette *et al.*, 1999).

4.7.4.3 The Use of GIS in Participatory Planning for the Allocation of Land to Accommodate Low-income People (Low Cost Housing) in Cape Town

Past policies of racial segregation resulted in the distorted, segregated as well as segmented spatial development of the city of Cape Town. The location of appropriate sites for low cost housing close to transportation networks and jobs opportunities has become of great importance for the new government and to involved communities. The principles of the RDP requires that a participative and community driven process be used. A participatory process driven by stakeholders should be able to generate and explore a variety of options and scenarios. The system should be able to generate the capacity that would provide the communities with real power to create the future rather than being the selectors of the best option as demonstrated in this case (Macdevette *et al.*, 1999).

4.7.5 The Relevance of GIS in Makana Municipality

In view of the above case studies, this study reveals that the use of a Geographical Information Systems to can be applied to examine the spatial extent of existing infrastructure in the perceived areas of poverty concentration in Grahamstown and the neighbouring town within the municipality. It also seeks to provide spatial information on the socio-economic characteristics of the residents of these poor locations so as to facilitate decisions that will increase infrastructure provision for the poor. Although community participation can be built using existing datasets, communities need to be involved in articulating their needs so that the authorities can develop relevant new datasets pertaining to additional criteria (Macdevette *et al.*, 1999).

4.7.6 Summary

The use of GIS is seen in many areas of human endeavours apart from its use in utility deliveries. Its application is now visible in areas that include telecommunication, transportation, emergency management, land administration, military applications, libraries and urban planning. Its application is also worthy of mention in social and environmental issues such as in health and health care applications, monitoring of land cover and land use for urban and regional planning, landscape conversion, environmental

monitoring and assessment, agriculture as well as its application in government at the (local, national, regional and global) scale (Longley *et al.*, 1999).

4.8 Summary and Conclusion

This chapter has attempted to sketch the different definitions and types of poverty as well as to provide a brief analysis of the meanings construed and steps taken in response to poverty by some of the international agencies. It has also sought to identify the nature of poverty in South Africa with the aim of implementing the right policies towards its alleviation. It has also revealed that poverty alleviation has risen to the fore-front on the agenda of most if not all national and international development agencies.

In the context of this research, the role of local government in South Africa has also been reviewed because the local government has been positioned to play a leading role in the planning and implementation of suitable IDP mechanisms aimed at alleviating poverty. The current understanding of IDP has been associated with the notion of ‘developmental local government’, which will be driven by the principle of local development through the proper participation of local stakeholders and communities within local government programmes. All local governments in South Africa have been mandated by statute to prepare a five-year strategic plan as a statement of its development needs and strategies which will be used as a local pathway to development, through the fostering of appropriate service and infrastructural delivery and by providing the framework for social and economic developments within the local government.

The use of GIS revealed in this chapter will go a long way in assisting the local governments and the other spheres of government in achieving the purpose of poverty eradication through service and infrastructural delivery by determining the spatial location of the poor to infrastructure and other services that will be provided for proper targeting as well as the continued assessment of infrastructure and access to the infrastructure.

However, limited institutional capacity within the local government has been identified as a factor that might hinder the proper implementation of the IDP. As noted by Harrison (2001), the IDP may become too technical and limited by considerations of resource constraints, rather than providing a vehicle for local actors and stakeholders to express their desires and think creatively about the future, so that the dividends of democracy through high quality service expectation by the citizens, the rendering of the same, and continuous attempts to improve service delivery on the part of government may be delivered.

CHAPTER FIVE

5.0 Findings from the Municipal Personnel

5.1 Introduction

This chapter will present key findings from interviews undertaken with municipal personnel engaged in IDP processes and implementation in Grahamstown. In terms of providing a context, this chapter will also look into the legal framework of how the IDP came into being as well as the workings of the IDP from the South African constitutional point of view. The key research aim of this part of the study was to identify the recent development interventions that have been undertaken in Grahamstown in terms of the IDP process with a particular view to addressing poverty concerns. With reference to the IDP, the secondary aim of this part of the research was to establish what the Municipal personnel responses have been to the new IDP requirements and what they have achieved to date in terms of the administration and implementation of services, which can address poverty concerns. The research also sought to find out what problems have been encountered as well as to gauge the effectiveness of service delivery.

The principal research questions examined in this chapter were as follows;

- What are the municipal plans for the eradication of poverty in accordance with the IDP?
- What are the current and future development options?
- What are the opportunities and challenges that are facing the municipality in terms of service delivery?
- How are the plans being translated into action strategies?
- What has been undertaken to date and to what degree have IDP goals been met?
- How are the local community involved in the implementation of the projects and programmes?

In summary this chapter examines the impact of the municipality's Integrated Development Plan (IDP) as a mechanism for poverty alleviation by looking at the focus and effects of development programmes, which have been put in place by the

municipality in accordance with the IDP. The chapter draws specifically on the findings of interviews with municipal officials and as such reflects their perceptions and view points. The following chapter will attempt to gauge the community's perception of the IDP and will allow for comparisons to be drawn.

5.2 The IDP Process in the Makana Municipality

In accordance with the Municipal Systems Act (2000), an Integrated Development Plan was prepared by the Makana Municipality in April 2002. The document was approved by the Makana Council and submitted to the Office of the MEC of the Department of Housing, Local Government and Traditional Affairs, as required by statute. This document, including a projects register, is available for perusal at the Municipal Offices. The purpose of this Integrated Development Plan is to ensure the efficient allocation of resources available to the municipality to those projects and programmes that will address specific development priorities within the municipality (Makana Municipality, 2004).

5.2.1 The IDP Review and Amendment

An Integrated Development Plan is however not stagnant and represents the ever changing policy and strategy that must grow and evolve with the local authority and its people. Because there are many factors that influence the objectives, projects, indicators and programmes that are proposed in the IDP, an annual review is necessary to ensure the implementation of plans according to the project register, to measure the impact of the developmental projects and services and to ensure the efficient use of resources in order to better assess the municipality's performance.

The Municipal Systems Act (2000: 32) requires that municipalities must monitor and evaluate their performance annually and in undertaking the review, amend the IDP if necessary in accordance with a municipality's assessment of its performance measurements and in line with changing circumstances (RSA, 2000). The annual review of the IDP is necessary in order to ensure the relevance of the IDP in keeping up to date as the municipality's strategic plans, to inform other stakeholders of the municipal

business process, including institutional, financial planning and budgeting and to inform the cyclical inter-governmental planning and budgetary cycle (RSA, 2000).

In compliance with the required review process, the Makana Municipality has taken some institutional measures in order to ensure that the review process will be successful. Some of the steps taken include a designed programme of action for the process that indicates the main activities, resources and time frames; assigned specific roles and responsibilities; and confirmed organisational arrangements, including the confirmation of the IDP Steering Committee and the procedures and mechanisms for public participation. The Makana Municipality have furthermore embarked on a programme that includes meetings of the IDP Steering Committee, the Representative Forum and other stakeholders, to consider any shortcomings in the original IDP process and then to incorporate improvements in the review document (Makana Municipality, 2004). The project register which contains important aspects such as funding sources, estimated project value, amount budgeted for in the financial year as well as other comments regarding the IDP has to be revised and take cognizance of the amendments made and the new funding allocations in the IDP process (Makana Municipality (2004).

The IDP Steering Committee is largely an internal structure within the municipality. The members of this committee include the councilors as well as the ward/ community committee. The steering committee consolidates inputs that have been collected and synchronizes them for implementation. The IDP Representative Forum, includes all government departments in Grahamstown, NGO's, CBO's, the business community, ward/community committees, councilors, senior management of the municipality and the head of municipal departments (Nkuhlu, 2005 pers. comm.). The function of the Steering Committee, Representative Forum and other stakeholders will be elaborated on in the latter part of this chapter.

The content of the Makana municipality's IDP will not be detailed in depth but the areas that are germane to this study will be revealed. The areas include the adoption and review of the IDP discussed above, as well as those that deal with development priorities plans

of providing and delivering services and other infrastructure to alleviate poverty within the Makana municipality.

In line with the above, there is a need to look at the assessed developmental need in Grahamstown in order to channel resources to the projects and programmes that will address particular development requirements within the municipality.

5.3 Development Priorities

The existing Makana Integrated Development Plan (April 2004) is largely based on the findings of a consultative process led by the IDP Representative Forum and the IDP Steering Committee. Various forum meetings and workshops were held which resulted in the following development priorities being identified (Makana IDP Register, 2004), namely;

1. Potable water
2. Sanitation
3. Housing
4. Electricity and Communication
5. Emergency Services (including Disaster Management)
6. Land Redistribution
7. Primary Health Care (HIV/AIDS) (TB and access to care and environmental health)
8. Sports and Recreation
9. Transport
10. Safety (Crime Prevention)
11. Education and Training
12. Local Economic Development (job creation and poverty alleviation) (Makana Municipality, 2004).

Most of the development priorities identified seem to have arisen from the historical backlogs in the provision of infrastructure and basic needs as was made evident in the previous population census. These priorities highlight the challenges the Makana Municipality is faced with.

The targets and objectives of the aforementioned priorities are listed in the table (5.1) below.

Table 5.1 Target Objectives of the Identified Development Priorities in the IDP

Priority	Target/Objective
Water	To provide portable water for all people as well as provision of bulk water in order to realize the eradication of bucket sanitation.
Sanitation	See to the eradication of bucket system by installing water borne sanitation system to all households and to improve service delivery regarding the maintenance of existing sanitation.
Housing	To protect the property rights of the poor through strict control of the sale of state housing, to provide sites to beneficiaries so that informal housing may be developed as an integral part of the overall housing delivery process and the provision of free housing to all poor household.
Electricity	To meet the electrification needs of all areas, street lighting, costing analysis for free electricity and improving maintenance level.
Emergency Services	To establish a satellite fire station in Grahamstown East, to establish a disaster management center, preparation of a risk plan and establish a communication network through the stakeholders.
Land Re-distribution	Land ownership audit and land use planning to investigate the allocation of land for farming and other activities.
Health Care	To establish a HIV/AIDS, sexually transmitted infections (STI) and tuberculosis project, improved access to primary health care, upgrade of present health services and establishing clinic satellite points.
Sports and recreation	To provide level areas for sports and the provision of playgrounds for children, to provide varied facilities in the indoor sports center in Grahamstown East, to build multipurpose centers in some identified locations and the provision of recreation facilities in all settlements and suburbs.
Transport	To upgrade signage and implement traffic calming measures, promote safe public transport and undertake public road safety education, to Establish, maintain the Makana Transport forum and tar all municipal roads.

Safety (Crime prevention)	Lobby and assist all organizations to provide sufficient law enforcement to combat crime, to establish a municipal police force, and combat crime with the assistance of South African Police.
Education & Training	Construction of new school building, conduct major and minor school building renovations, upgrade school sports facilities, to establish a satellite library in Fingo Village and establish a mobile library.
LED	To set up marketing plans; to encourage agriculture; support, advertise and develop tourism and to promote initiatives to establish festivals and attract conferences.

Source: Makana Municipality, IDP Register, 2004.

The conditions affecting the initiation and implementation of any project were indicated by (Tshungu, 2004 pers. comm.) the Director of Technical and Infrastructural Services in an interview. Tshungu (2004, pers comm.) indicated that, the requirement for any project to be executed is that it has to be included in the IDP and it has to be a project identified by the council. The beneficiaries of such projects have to be the households and communities that are in dire need of the infrastructure.

The current IDP (Makana IDP, 2004) utilised existing strategic guidelines set up by the municipality in accordance to those (set up by provincial government) to develop objectives and strategies from all of the previously identified development issues in order of priority. Finally, a register of projects and activities, which have been developed, is required to ensure that the implementation of all previously identified projects has been completed. The items listed in the register include: the project description; the total estimated cost; possible funding sources; the responsible department; budget allocations; and the possible effect on the operating budget (Makana IDP Book, 2004).

5.4 Development Project Criteria and Evaluation

As stated in the Makana Municipality IDP register (2004) the guidelines listed below are critical to the IDP process and to guide decision-making. These criteria are subject to on-going consultation with Council and the community in terms of the evaluation and

prioritization of projects. Summaries of the criteria from the Makana Municipality IDP Register (2004) are listed below;

- Is the project in the interest of the community?
- Is the Council already committed to such kind of project?
- Can the Council afford it?
- Is the project a necessity or a luxury?
- Is there an alternative?
- What will the consequences be if the Council postpone the project?
- Will the project generate income and eventually pay for itself?
- Will the project result in higher rates and tariffs?
- Will the project create job opportunities?
- Will the project uplift service levels?
- Does it support the aims of the RDP?
- Does it support the principles “some for all rather than all for some”?

The IDP process seeks to achieve the following;

Holistic development: The impact of a project on all the other activities of the municipality; sustainable development through understanding and nurturing resource-based development; forging partnerships for the purposes of democracy, creating better environments and sharing of financial costs and redressing of past imbalances through an active contribution to addressing past inequalities as indicated in the list above (Makana IDP, 2004).

In response to the identified development priorities, there is a need to put mechanisms in place to see to the proper delivery of services and infrastructure to address the developmental needs.

5.5 Principles For Service Delivery

The White Paper on Local Government (RSA, 1998) emphasizes that all citizens in a local government area should have access to at least the minimum level of services. There is a hierarchy of services which can be prioritised by local authorities based on the

demand of customers but with consideration of the broader public good. Services must be affordable to all users in the municipality. This can be done through the setting of tariffs, which balance the economic viability of continued service provision; and the determining of appropriate levels of services (RSA, 1998).

A municipality is required to ensure the quality of products and services rendered, including attributes such as suitability for purpose, timeliness, convenience, safety, continuity and responsiveness to service-users. Municipalities remain accountable for ensuring the provision of quality services, which are affordable and accessible, regardless of the delivery mechanism that is used (RSA, 1998). The White Paper (RSA, 1998) also stipulates that an integrated approach to service delivery should be adopted by municipalities. This will involve taking into account the economic and social impacts of service provision. In the same vein, organizational and financial systems, which support sustainability, must be put in place by the municipality, and it should be noted here that the sustainability includes financial viability and environmental sustainability (RSA, 1998). It is relevant to state that the best possible use must be made of public resources to ensure universal access to affordable and sustainable services and to provide value for money, which should also ensure promotion of the competitiveness of local commerce and industry. In so doing local government must also promote the democratic values and principles enshrined in the Constitution (RSA, 1998).

It is pertinent to mention that a wide-ranging series of tasks and responsible agents/departments within the municipality have been identified and it would be of crucial importance to assign a specific official to assume responsibility for this entire process. It is expected that some tasks may even flow over into future review processes and as such will require specific attention (Makana Municipality, 2004).

5.5.1 Funding

Access to funding, as revealed by Mr. Tshungu (2004) (Director of technical and infrastructural services), is a principal concern for the implementation of the Makana

Municipality's IDP, particularly as regards infrastructure provision. Different departments responsible for infrastructure provision within the municipality source their funding individually through the municipality from different sources, such as the Department of Water Affairs and Forestry (DWAF), the Consolidated Municipal Infrastructure Programme (CMIP), the Cacadu District Municipality (CDM) as well as the Provincial Government, through funds such as Municipal Infrastructural Grant (MIG) and Provincial Housing Board (PHB), while some funds generated internally within the municipality are also used to further the objectives of the IDP.

It should however be mentioned that the national government funds some capital projects, and the funds are allocated through the National Treasury. The grants are referred to as the Municipal Infrastructural Grants (MIG). The MIG is part of government commitment to eradicate poverty and is aimed to assist in implementing the capital projects and in creating conditions for local economic development (Xonxa, 2005 pers. comm.).

These funds in most cases come in form of grants. Some funds are also generated internally within the Municipality to keep up with some running and sundry costs. It is however pertinent to mention that although the municipality prioritises different projects, normally based on community endorsement, the actual implementation of projects is subject to the availability of specific funds from the various sources. Such project must feature in the project register, which contains important information such as funding sources; estimated project value as well as the amount budgeted for the project in the fiscal year (Makana Municipality, 2004). The project register is a document that contains all the IDP projects that the municipality has deemed necessary. It also shows the source of funds for the projects as well as the progress reports of the stages of each project. The register is reviewed annually to include new projects that have been completed and the newly identified projects.

The conditions which the municipality should fulfill, in order to receive continued funding for its projects are that it should write a monthly progress report on its

expenditure, in which details of infrastructural progress should be included. A full report is to be written after the implementation of the various projects describing the successes achieved as well as problems encountered in the implementation of the projects (Tshungu, 2004 pers. comm.).

This section will now proceed to a discussion of the key service and infrastructural interventions listed in 4.3.0, and what has been undertaken by the responsible municipal department on them to date.

5.5.2 Water and Sanitation

The lack of basic services such as water and sanitation is a key symptom of poverty and underdevelopment. The provision of such services must be part of a coherent development strategy if it is to be successful (Department of Water Affairs and Forestry (DWA), 1994). The DWA, Makana Municipality and the Cacadu District Municipality are the main funders of water infrastructure in the Makana IDP.

Water and sanitation were prioritised in the Makana IDP, and other infrastructure such as roads/storm water; electricity and housing should follow after the individual (house or person) has had access provided to water and proper sanitation. As regards water, it is pertinent to say that all yards/households in Grahamstown are connected to a water supply point and where a squatter camp exists; the communal standpipes that cater for people living in the camps are provided. The standard standpipes within a squatter area serve households within a distance of 200 meters and if the settlement extends more than 200 meters another one must be erected to cater for the people living in the next 200 meters (Booi, 2005 pers. comm.).

According to one of the municipal officers in charge of water infrastructure (Booi, 2005 pers. comm.), water infrastructure is well distributed and user costs are kept to a minimum through the municipal subsidy. Booi (pers. comm., 2005) however pointed out that the first six thousand litres of water utilised or consumed monthly by all indigent

citizens is free after which they pay a subsidized amount for all litres used after the six thousand litres; as long as they are registered as indigent citizens with the municipality.

According to Rudolecky, (2005 pers. comm.) of the Makana Municipality Planning Scheme Administration, there are three types of sanitation that exist in Grahamstown and they are categorised as waterborne sewer (flush system), buckets and VIP (Ventilated Pit Latrines). The Makana Municipality is in the process of eradicating the sewage bucket system in areas that do not have the flush system. New systems have been constructed while construction is on-going in areas where households still use the bucket system. The motive behind the construction of the new systems is to upgrade the bucket system to the waterborne system. Areas where sewage pipes already exist are prioritized for upgrading from bucket system to the flush system because the sewer mainline pipes already exists in those locations, after which construction of sewage pipes will begin in other areas where sewage pipes do not exist with the goal of upgrading them to the flush system. It is pertinent to state that the IDP's sewage and sanitation section focuses on registered urban land use and not squatters. The squatters are provided with water by the municipality but the occupants have to provide sanitation for themselves because the land, which they occupy, cannot be provided with sewer lines. Such lands would have to be formalized, in which case it has to be surveyed and pegged if they want it to be regarded as urban (Rudolecky, 2005 pers. comm.).

The IDP sanitation programme is split into two zones; Grahamstown East and West. Grahamstown West consists of the western and central part of Grahamstown and the coloured areas (Mary Waters, Ghost Town and Hoogegenog) while the Grahamstown East comprises of all the suburbs in the black townships. The municipal personnel in charge of sanitation however said that almost a hundred percent coverage has been achieved in the provision of sanitation in the Grahamstown West because all the stands (houses, plot or even) have been connected to the water borne sewer system. However work is still in progress to convert Bucket and VIP to flush systems in some parts of the Grahamstown East where such exists as indicated in the IDP (Rudolecky, 2005 pers. comm.).

5.5.3 Housing

The Provincial Government through the Provincial Housing Board (PHB) is funding the IDP housing projects, since housing projects are a programme of the government through the respective municipal IDPs. The Africa National Congress (ANC) government during elections promised two things, which were housing and job creation. Housing delivery has been met to a certain extent, but much has not been achieved as regards job creation (Nxamileko, 2005 pers. comm.). The slogan of the party (ANC) has however changed to poverty alleviation through job creation (Ibid). So, one mechanism to provide more jobs for the people, given the current situation on ground is for the people to be directly involved in the implementation of the various projects initiated by the government through labour-intensive construction programmes as stated in the IDP (i. e. as part of the Public Works Programme or through the provision of contract labour to municipal project). While the major focus of the municipality is to get rid of the bucket system and change to the flush system, it also has a strong commitment to housing provision as revealed in the IDP register (Nxamileko, 2005 pers. comm.).

The criteria for benefiting in housing projects are set out by the national government in the national housing code (RSA, March 2000) and are as follows;

‘He or she must be married (in terms of the civil law or in terms of a customary union) or habitually cohabits with any other person, or he or she has proven financial dependents; He or she must be a lawfully resident in South Africa (i.e. citizen of the Republic of South Africa or in possession of a valid permanent resident permit); He or she is legally competent to contract (i.e. over 21 years of age or married or divorced and of sound mind); The gross monthly household income of his or her household must not exceed R3,500.00. A prospective beneficiary will be required to submit adequate proof of income, and in the case of income received through self-employment, must sign an affidavit stating the amount earned; Neither that person nor his or her spouse must have benefited from previous housing subsidy scheme, or any other state funded or assisted housing subsidy scheme which conferred benefit of ownership, leasehold or deed of grant

or the right to convert the title obtained to either ownership, leasehold or deed of grant, with the exception of the consolidation subsidy and relocation grant. A person who received only a vacant serviced site under the previous dispensation on the basis of ownership, leasehold or deed of grant, however qualifies for a consolidation subsidy. This criterion is not applicable to persons who qualify for relocation assistance or disabled persons. In the event of divorce, the terms of divorce order will determine a beneficiary's eligibility; and he or she must be acquiring property for the first time, except in the case of the consolidation subsidy and relocation assistance. This criterion does not apply to disabled persons (National Department of Housing, 2000)'. The essence of this criterion is to protect the property rights of the poor by state control of allocation and sale of state housing.

It is however pertinent to state that people earning above a specified amount of money according to the National Housing Code (2000) do not qualify for a housing subsidy but if their houses falls within areas where IDP housing is being constructed, such houses will have to be upgraded from the bucket to flush system because the facilities are laid out in the entire area (Nxamileko, 2005 pers. comm.).

There is always a procedure that the municipality follows before houses can be constructed despite its commitment to housing delivery. A survey has to be conducted in order to prioritise the area or set of people who are in need of housing. After the survey, all prospective beneficiaries are advised to file an application for a housing subsidy, after which the municipality would send all the applications to the provincial government for approval. After approval of the successful applications, money is then released to provide houses for the successful applicants (Nxamileko, 2005 pers. comm.).

The size of houses constructed according to the Makana IDP is 40 Sq Meter, compared to the 30 Sq Meters houses funded by the national government (It was revealed that it was the plan of the municipality to construct spacious houses to reduce overcrowding in homes. It consists of one bedroom, a lounge, and a small toilet, though the houses are not

plastered nor painted but they are well roofed with no ceiling. The prospective inhabitant can then use their personal money to further furbish the houses to their own taste.

The applications for the following areas have been approved for construction as stated by Nxamileko, (2005 pers. comm.) of the Housing Department of the Makana Municipality (see Table 4.2). The commencement of work in the transit camp is pending the release of fund though that has been approved.

Table 5.2 Housing Plans Since 2002

Location	Size	Status	Comment
Victoria Road	102 Units	94% complete	Started in Jan. 2004, but work is still in progress
Extension 6	226 Units	Completed	100% completed
Vukani	1074 Units	76% complete	Started in Nov. 2002, but work is still in progress
Transit Camp	-	-	Pending release of funds
Tantyi	250 Units	95% complete	Started in July 2004, but work is still in progress
New Town	90 units	10% complete	The project commenced in Jan. 2005 and work is still going on
Kings Flat	234 Units	96% complete	Started in Nov. 2003, but work is still going on.

(Source: Nxamileko pers. Comm., 2005)

Nxamileko (2005 pers. comm.) explained the reason for their choice of the locations shown in Table 5.2. He reiterated that New Town and Tantyi were old locations dating back to the 1860's which had later been given to the owners by the then apartheid government without developing them, so this has since called for intervention from the municipality because the sites were already there and the structures needed to be upgraded to become proper houses. The site on Victoria road is a strip land located between two developed or established townships areas. This however called for

improvement so as to match the general standard of development in that area. Kings Flats and Vukani were areas upgraded as a response to the needs of the people of that locality that were living in squatter camps. People living in those houses under construction were moved to the transit camp so that work could be easily undertaken on the sites without disturbance from the inhabitants. In line with the above-mentioned reasons, it is pertinent to state that one of the objectives of the IDP housing delivery process stipulates that site and other assistance should be provided to the poor so that informal housing may be upgraded as an integral part of the housing delivery exercise.

Before houses are constructed on a site, the area must be detailed on a lay-out plan, which also incorporates other prospective sites like schools, hospitals and recreation grounds which are approved by the relevant government departments. It must also contain churches and crèches which would be applied for by church organisations and NGOs. The essence of the layout is to have an integrated approach that can be easily maintained. The Technical and Infrastructural Services department are responsible for the provision of other infrastructure like sewerage, roads and water before houses can be built, because all these have to be in place before housing construction can commence (Nxamileko, 2005 pers. comm.).

It should also be noted that in any areas between existing /registered urban areas where squatter camps exist, the squatters are considered in such plans which allows for the possibility of upgrading them to becoming declared urban areas. These areas are referred to as “In-fill-Areas”. Development in some in-fill areas is in progress.

The housing projects in place before the implementation of the IDP were the Hooggenoeg and the Extension 8 and 9 projects, which fell under the earlier RDP housing projects list (Nxamileko, 2005 pers. comm.).

According to Nxamileko (2005, pers. comm.) the municipality has nearly managed to reach its housing delivery goals and while in pursuit of that goal it won the prize for housing delivery in the Eastern Cape Province for 2003.

There are no successes without problems, as explained by Nxamileko (2005 pers. comm.). The problems encountered during the implementation of the housing projects included labour disruption, which are mostly caused by wage disputes, issues related to providing correct personal documentation (the use of old ID Book, Birth Certificates, homeland documents), catering for local and non local people (which relates to the difficulty in identifying the original locals of Grahamstown as opposed to those that recently migrated from other places) and disagreement between beneficiaries. This in most cases causes conflict when some new inhabitants are provided with houses and some others who see themselves as being the long-standing locals that have not benefited and believe that they should benefit first before the 'new' locals can be entitled to any benefit. Nxamileko (pers. comm., 2005) was also of the view that people are not 'enlightened' and as a result they do not understand procedures and know how things work within the municipality. There is also a problem with the identification of sites because some sites might have a higher economic value than others. Some sites have been seen to contain high deposits of kaolin and clay, which might be used for other activities, like prospective clay industries and the mining of kaolin as indicated in the IDP (Nxamileko, 2005 pers. comm.).

There are also some bureaucratic problems being faced in the implementation of the housing projects. It takes a long time for the provincial government to approve funding application for prospective sites. It also takes them a long time to approve the list of beneficiaries, through a screening process. This is done in order for the government to identify if the beneficiaries have not received any subsidy in other places within the province. This causes a lot of delay because, in some cases the money for the projects is available, but approval of the list of beneficiaries by the provincial government takes significantly longer (Nxamileko, 2005 pers. comm.).

Maintenance of the bulk infrastructure after providing housing is a major concern because there is only a budget of 3% from the municipality's annual budget to cater for infrastructure maintenance like fixing pipes, filling of potholes, repairing sewer pipes

lines and storm water drains which affects the community and not individuals. In the case of the houses, the people living in them are responsible for the maintenance of the houses themselves without any assistance from the municipality (Nxamileko, 2005 pers. comm.).

In terms of economic development, once there is a housing project going on in an area, there are always spin-offs of economic activities around the new sites. Such activities include the opening of shops, taverns and shebeens (informal drinking pubs), taxi transport coming to pick up people, shoe repairs shops and some other retail trades. This supports one of the goals of IDP namely that the projects undertaken must bring some positive impact on other activities and as well brings sustainability through income earning to the people (Nxamileko, 2005 pers. comm.).

Local people are clearly involved in the implementation of the IDP projects because they provide the manual labour at the building and construction sites and some of the professionals in the community are hired for the professional jobs such as contractors and engineers. Some of the people providing manual labour also receive on the job training through active participation and mentoring in the project construction, while some beneficiaries agree to provide labour on their own house construction at no cost (or wage) so that the municipality can provide other benefits such as the ceiling and plastering materials to be used on the house which were not originally included in the houses. It is however pertinent to state that in Grahamstown about four thousand households have benefited from the IDP housing scheme since it is the goal of the IDP to provide free housing to people and encourage participation from the local people during the implementation of IDP projects (Nxamileko, 2005 pers. comm.).

Nxamileko (2005) said that the housing section of the municipality at this stage is satisfied at the rate at which work is going on and what they have achieved in terms of housing delivery since the inception of the IDP.

5.5.4 Electricity

The Electricity department is part of the Makana Municipality and is responsible for the distribution of electricity in town as the municipality holds the license for distribution, from which Eskom is the sole generator and transmitter of electricity in the country. In the 'old South Africa', Eskom was responsible for the transmission, generation and distribution of electricity in the township areas, but in terms of the new dispensation, Eskom is only responsible for the transmission and generation while the municipality owns the license to distribute electricity. Eskom however still distributes in some towns because they are partially responsible for the funding of some of the projects (Van Der Watt, 2005 pers. comm.).

In the 'old South Africa', the municipality distributed electricity to the town (Grahamstown West), while Eskom distributed electricity to the townships, but now that the two are merged the municipality owns the license to distribute. Under this new dispensation the Grahamstown electricity service is being controlled by the municipality, but Eskom play an important role in the provision (generation, transmission and partial distribution) of electricity (Van Der Watt, 2005 pers. comm.).

Electricity is one of the infrastructural developments provided for in the Makana Municipality IDP. In that document reference to electricity mostly covers the provision of free street lighting as well as poles and grid lines to new sites. The Makana Municipality, the Department of Mineral and Energy Affairs (DMEA), Consolidated Municipal Infrastructure Programme (CMIP) and Eskom mainly fund the electricity infrastructural projects listed in the Makana Municipality's IDP register. Van Der Wath (pers. comm., 2005), reveals that in terms of the workings of the electricity department and as indicated by the IDP, the previously disadvantaged communities get first priority in the provision of this service so that all people can have equal access to this service. A minimal connection fee is charged for individual household electrification where such provisions have not previously been made in the area, though this connection is highly subsidized by the municipality and Eskom. The most recent electrical installation in the form of street

lighting was done in Vukani, Kings Flats and the squatter camps in 2005 and in some cases is still ongoing (Van Der Watt, 2005 pers. comm.).

Electrification for new houses built under the IDP, were budgeted for through tender funding. The government advertises for prospective contractors to come forward with their tender and the contract is awarded to the contractor that meets the municipality's standards and specifications, after which the contractor must install some electricity wiring in one or two of the newly constructed building units for inspection. The electrification (wiring) of the units is included in the budget given to the municipality by the contractor. The poles and grid lines for such new sites are however provided for by the electricity department (Van Der Watt, 2005 pers. comm.).

Van Der Watt (pers. comm., 2005) hinted that before the commencement of the IDP, electricity was provided by the municipality and housing developer. The housing developers in those periods bought an area of land for development after which they sell the developed houses to individuals. This system has since ceased to operate, because the government is now solely responsible for all lands and housing schemes but there are still some developers doing business by putting in tender funding through the municipality to implement projects. Some individuals however construct their private houses on lands allocated to them within the formalised areas in which new poles and grids are not required (Ibid).

About a thousand houses in Grahamstown now use prepaid electricity meters. The squatter camps also use pre-paid meters (Pay As You Go), while the remaining houses in Grahamstown still use the billing system. There is however a move to change from the billing systems to the pre-paid meters system (Van Der Watt, 2005 pers. comm.). The municipality is duly responsible for the maintenance of all of the electricity projects, which also involve street lighting. In cases where a fault occurs, the people living in such areas will have to report the fault to the municipality and the fault would be looked into for repairs (Van Der Watt, 2005 pers. comm.).

The local people are involved in the electrification and street lighting process to some degree. They provide manual labour and some of them were also trained in the course of the implementation of the projects by the Consultants (Contractors) for specialized projects. In cases where contracts are awarded to contractors from outside Grahamstown because the local contractors do not have the capacity to implement such projects, the contractors has to involve local contractors as sub-contractors, providing them with minor jobs on the contract and also allow for the local supply of the manual labourers needed for the whole projects (Van Der Watt, 2005 pers. comm.).

The electricity department does encounter some problems such as the non-payment of electricity fees, which results in the disconnection of electricity at the homes of defaulters. There are also complaints from people about the location of some of the electric poles; they complain that the positioning of some of the electric poles disturbs other activities around it. Another problem that the electricity department encounters has to do with the conflict of interest with other municipality departments during implementation of some projects. Such conflicts basically arise when there is need to carry out an activity which might result in tampering with infrastructure or other services that are on going or have been completed. For instance, when cables are being laid, roads have to be dug, or water pipes has to be removed, which might infringe on where houses are to be built or even infringe on where sewer mainlines were to pass (Van Der Wath, 2005 pers. comm.).

The goal of the department in terms of electricity provision has been fully attained in all houses in the formalised areas except in the new built up areas, which are still undergoing electrification. It should be noted that some squatter camps do not have electricity connections in their houses because they fall outside the formalised areas. In order for them to be included in the layout, such camps have to be surveyed and pegged. This is necessary because each plot has to be numbered and included in the layout plan of the municipality (Van Der Wath, 2005 pers. comm.).

5.5.5 Emergency Services (Including Disaster Management)

The Emergency Service and disaster management according to table 5.1 is one of the development priorities indicated in the Makana Municipality IDP. The importance of the department is seen in the area of preventing unforeseen contingencies, such as fire, flooding and other disasters and also to respond to disaster when it occurs. There is a disaster advisory forum, which consists of different role players both from within the municipality and from the public. This is in adherence to the objective of the IDP.

The forum was constituted in 2003 and they meet twice every year. The forum is divided into task teams, as this enables the role players to take responsibilities for certain task and issues concerning disaster management. There is room for review as indicated by the IDP because it is an ongoing exercise that depends on available technology and procedures. The targeted beneficiaries of the emergency services and disaster management include everyone in the municipal area because disaster is something that can occur to any person. At the moment the emergency services department do not have the capacity to cater for all the people to the same level in the municipal area as stated in the IDP objectives (Julius, 2005 pers. comm.).

Julius (pers. comm., 2005) states that the emergency services department have a broad plan that covers all areas within the municipal jurisdiction. In adherence to this plan, a risk Analysis has been undertaken in accordance to the IDP in order to analyse all risk areas and provide permanent relief to the vulnerable people. An example of this is the flood area analysis, which looks at areas vulnerable to flooding. The essence of this is to ascertain the number of houses within the area with the aim of possible relocation of the people if needs arises due to emergency. Julius (2005) further stressed that the department only responds when the needs arise.

The Emergency services department does work together with other departments in carrying out some of its function. The main interaction with other municipal departments is seen with the housing department during the evacuation of people when a disaster occurs. If an evacuation is necessary the responsibility to relocate the affected people into new sites is that of the housing department. Julius stressed that there was virtually no

strategies in place before the creation of the emergency services office in the late 1990's but that has changed now that the emergency service programme has now been aligned with the IDP (Julius, 2005 pers. comm.).

The main funder of the emergency department is the Cacadu District Municipality through the Makana Municipality, as well as Consolidated Municipal Infrastructure Programme (CMIP) now referred to as Municipal Infrastructure Grant (MIG). The department also puts in a small budget for temporary reliefs, structures and needs (Ibid).

The department recruits volunteers for training in order to have more personnels. The volunteers receive training in the two basic courses; Fire Fighting and First Aid. The volunteers are not remunerated for their services but they are always provided with the necessary paraphernalia such as meals and transport. However, there is no direct statistics of the number of people that have benefited from the programme because most of the people that are directly involved are the workers (staff) of the department as well as the volunteers recruited from within the municipal area (Julius, 2005 pers. comm.).

The last time that a flood occurred was in 2002, and this necessitated the building of storm water drainage around the city as well as the construction of corrugated iron structures in the flood areas and other areas liable to flooding to prevent water from penetrating into structures, thereby providing relief to the people (Julius, 2005 pers. comm.). Flooding in some cases is caused as a result of poor building structures, which has necessitated the building of more drainage canals. The timing of the building of canals has always posed a problem because the housing projects are seen as an ongoing process and as such the building of such canals can only commence after the houses has been built. This is due to the fact that attention has always been focused on what is perceived, as the present need and not on what could happen in the future (Julius, 2005 pers. comm.).

There is a standard time the department adheres to in terms of responses to emergency based on the risk zoning (High, Medium and Low). It takes about seven minutes from

when a call to the department is received to get to the high risk zone, twelve minutes to get to the medium risk zones and 15 minutes to get to the low risk areas, but in practice it normally takes more than the required time to get to Grahamstown East which is the low risk area. As a result of this hindrance and the need to provide the necessary relief at the appropriate time, there is a need to move the station closer to this area or to construct a satellite one. However, there is a mutual aid agreement with the neighbouring Ndlambe Municipality and the Army to assist in providing relief to people when a major disaster occurs (Julius, 2005 pers. comm.)

The main problem encountered in the implementation of the projects according to Julius (2005 pers. comm.) has to do with co-ordination and co-operation from the other departments within the municipality. This is so because disaster management is limited to the emergency service department and it is not a co-function of other departments. As a result of this, other municipal departments tend not to provide the necessary assistance, which makes the disaster management department struggle to get information and other necessary assistance when needed from the other municipal departments. There is also the issue of financial problems, which affect funding for new equipment and plans for contingencies, because disaster management is not about what is currently happening but also the unforeseen disasters. The only problems encountered with the community have to do with their level of patience when matters are being reported.

There are also bureaucratic problems, which have to do with getting money from the municipality via the district municipality. This in most cases causes delays in implementing some of the projects and activities. It also affects the normal functioning of the department, despite the fact that the head of the department is empowered to use his discretion on certain issues but he does not have the power to influence other departmental heads when there is need to get some things done or approved immediately. A lot of time is spent before the plan of project is approved because it has to go through several of committees within the Makana Municipality and the district municipality before it could be approved (Julius, 2005 pers. comm.).

The department for its future plans has made an inventory of its existing staff and equipment and has proposed a plan to equip itself with new infrastructure such as vehicles and the recruitment of staffs to increase its manpower, although volunteers are being recruited for training purposes to supplement the permanent staff. It also has a plan to build a fire station in Grahamstown East, which happens to be the poorest area (Julius, 2005 pers. comm.).

5.5.6 Land redistribution

Land redistribution is a programme, which according to the Makana Municipality IDP that requires urgent attention. According to Humin, (2005 pers. comm.) of the Land Management section of the Makana Municipality, the main activity of the land management department of the municipality is to carry out land use surveys, land use planning and a land ownership audit in order to investigate the allocation of land for farming and other activities to people. This is necessary because the Makana municipality is pro-active in the land redistribution exercise and has bought a few farms around Grahamstown in furtherance of black ownership and empowerment. This is of key importance because the constitution has enshrined everyone's right to economic and political power through land ownership and this is also one of the objectives of the IDP land redistribution process (Humin, 2005 per. comm.).

The bulk of the land bought by the municipality for this redistribution purpose were vacant farming lands and the lands are now used for farming activities such as goat farming and ostrich farming. However, the farming activity also depends on the availability of water as well as the economic exchange rate of the Rand. Land redistribution for housing was also started in the municipality in year 2000. The housing sector has witnessed huge successes as a result of this redistribution, which has caused the unblocking of the housing market for the low-income earners to fit in. This has benefited lots of local people because they are also employed in the construction of the houses (Humin, 2005 pers. comm.).

The main funder of the agricultural aspect of the redistribution exercise is the Department of Land Affairs (DLA) while the housing and properties side is funded by the national government through the provincial government (Ibid).

The beneficiaries of the land redistribution exercise are mostly poor people of all races and the process also allows for the empowerment of the previously disadvantaged black families and businesses. Priority is however given to the people that have no money to buy land of their own. Before giving out land to the poor people for farming, the municipality must have met with the community to determine their farming needs, after which it advertises to the general public inviting them to write application for land tenure (Humin, 2005 pers. comm.). The people (beneficiaries) are required to write a proposal about what the land would be used for, after which the municipality assesses the proposals and further scrutiny then takes place. Issues such as the suitability of the land for farming, the type of training and education the beneficiaries have acquired, investment capabilities and production capability are then looked into. The municipality on its part does offer training and other necessary assistance to the prospective farmers that are successful with their application (Humin, 2005 Pers. Comm.).

Lands are also leased out for other businesses such as brick making and allocated for housing construction. As regards construction, section 25 of the Constitution (RSA, 1996) which deals with issues of the right to property stipulates that the prices for such construction must be fair and reasonable and must not tally with the real market value because the focus is to enhance empowerment through access to assets by creating a parallel market, so that the poor families can also have a capital base and a fair share in the market (Ibid).

The economic developments attached to the land redistribution exercise are enormous if well managed. There is portion of land in Grahamstown that is rich in kaolin reserves and this is set aside for possible future links to the proposed industrial development in COEGA Industrial Development Zone in Port Elizabeth (Humin, 2005 pers. comm.).

It must however be stressed that the some local people have benefited from the farming training and as such practice their own farming while some others have benefited immensely in the housing sector. The technical skills of the poor people in Grahamstown is low and as such it would require strong leadership to achieve the desired economic change that comes with the land re-distribution process as indicated in the IDP (Humin, 2005 pers. comm.).

Very few problems seems to be encountered with the local people because, in carrying out its activities, the department adheres strictly to the laid down land management policy coupled with the fact that the municipality does not own lands that could bring about conflict through pre-existing disputes. The only problem encountered has to do with bureaucratic delays in the approval of subsidies and funding because it takes lots of time before documents are approved by the district municipality (Humin, 2005 Pers. Comm.).

5.5.7 Primary Health Care

The primary health care department oversees all health care issues in all communities in Grahamstown and the Makana region as a whole. The department's IDP priority according to Titi-Boso (2005 pers. comm.) is to make health care accessible to all people within its area of jurisdiction as stipulated in the IDP document. The health care department has set up a specific programme to cater for HIV/AIDS, Sexually Transmitted Infections (STI) and Tuberculosis called the HAST project. It started in 2000 and the programme is being implemented in all clinics in Grahamstown. The focus of the HAST project is two fold; internal and external. The internal component has to do with the staff of Makana municipality while the external concentrates on the general public. The Makana department of health has succeeded in marketing this programme in all clinics through the help of the Provincial Department of Health and Makana Municipality, which are the main partners and funders responsible for the smooth running of the programme (Titi-Boso, 2005 pers. comm.).

The reason behind this initiative came as a response to the seriousness of these dreadful diseases. In order to make the treatment freely accessible to people, the department of health does not attach any particular criterion before admission to the HAST project, because it is a programme aimed at reducing the spread of the HIV/AIDS and Tuberculosis in the whole community. The activities of HAST include public education, awareness as well as treatment. Before the commencement of the HAST programme, STDs and TB treatments were being given by the clinics without proper monitoring, but the treatment of these diseases is now being closely monitored and reviewed in the IDP monthly report (Titi-Boso, 2005 pers. comm.).

The success of the programme can only be gauged by looking at the number of people coming forward for education, screening and treatment. This, the department attributes to information dissemination because people are becoming more informed about these diseases and the outcome is quite encouraging. There is still a lot to be done because there are still many people to reach out to. In order to effectively carry out the duties, more buildings should be constructed and equipment, facilities as well as human resources needs to be put in place to be able to efficiently and effectively meet the rising number of people (Titi-Boso, 2005 pers. comm.).

There are no statistics of the number of people that have benefited from this programme because the clinics are for everybody and it is an objective of the IDP to make health care accessible to everyone, so lots of people go to the clinics for different reasons but on the average, forty people do go for screening every month in the six clinics in Grahamstown (Ibid).

There are many challenges experienced although with no conflicts occur with the people (patients). The challenge is however on the part of the staff considering the fact the clinics are under staffed and as a result the staffs has to put in extra time to cope with the situation. In so saying, time factors become a challenge. There is a shortage of space (waiting and consulting rooms) and buildings (Titi-Boso, 2005 pers. comm.).

It should be mentioned that the other clinic services such as anti-natal care, post-natal care and treatment of other minor ailments and illnesses are given at no cost at the clinics in accordance to the stated intention of the IDP to make health care accessible to all people (Ibid).

The services are free because the targeted people are the poor and the non-working classes; and the reason for this is to curb exploitation of those that can't afford it, though some working people do 'beat the system' to get treatment. The services rendered range from consultation to observation and treatment as well as follow up investigation (Titi-Boso, 2005 pers. comm.). There are other Community Based Health Education and Development (CBHED) projects formed in compliance with the IDP mainly focusing on growth, monitoring of children under five years of age, TB preventative education, immunization, family planning and the promotion of good nutrition through home gardens. They also render assistance with some of the health campaigns. It is however important to mention that NGO's are also involved in the treatment and care of some of the victims (patients) as well as informing and educating people on health related issues (Titi-Boso, 2005 pers. comm.).

The only problem encountered with the public is that people don't really know how things work in the clinics and as a result they misconstrue some actions taken in the clinics. For instance, when they are expecting some known medications (pills) which has in the interim been phased out and other alternate medication (pills) are prescribed to them, the people then get the impression and notion that drugs and medicines are not available in general. The waiting time they spend before they are attended to tends to be long but everything is been done to reduce this time to the barest minimum, so that people won't wait for hours before they are attended to (Titi-Boso, 2005 pers. comm.).

Titi-Boso (2005 pers. comm.) hinted that the health department does encounter bureaucratic problems because the primary health care is a function of the provincial government in conjunction with the municipality. There are also other municipal functions that are performed in these clinics and as a result of this the service delivery

standard must align with that of the provincial department of health while the conditions of service must align with that of the municipality. It is pertinent to state that the mission and goals of the municipality differs from that of the provincial department of health, because the department of health focuses on health in general while the municipality focuses on all the development priorities listed in its plan (Titi-Boso, 2005 pers. comm.).

The financial year of the municipality (July – June) also differs from that of the Provincial government (April- March), so the performance management systems of these two tiers of government differ and it affects our functionality (Titi Boso, 2005 pers. comm.).

On the issue of the involvement of local people in the implementation of the project as required by the IDP, the only people that are involved are the health professionals that have the knowledge of clinical procedures as well as those involved in the health education but the general public and most importantly the poor are the beneficiaries (Titi-Boso, 2005 Pers. comm).

5.5.8 Sports and Recreation

The main IDP related activity undertaken by the Parks and Recreation Department of the Makana Municipality, according to Budaza (pers. comm., 2005) is to identify areas and level them for sports and recreational activities. This stems from the fact that there are limited sports and recreation grounds in Grahamstown to cater for all the sporting and recreational activities in the town. The reason for the development of these projects is due to the fact that the past government did not put structures in place to cater for the needs of people living in the Grahamstown East, thus there is the need to address the imbalances that stems from the previous apartheid government. The targeted beneficiaries of the projects are the youths, poverty stricken communities and the previously disadvantaged communities and the sporting communities at large (Budaza, 2005 pers. comm.).

Councilors within different communities have been mandated to identify plots and areas where more playing grounds can be constructed because the municipality is determined to construct two playing grounds every year for the next few years (Ibid).

There are no conditions attached for putting up infrastructure, but there must be an identified need for such infrastructure and this has to be made known to the municipality through the various sports associations and local committees. The municipality council then deliberates upon these plans before it can be passed for approval, on the provision that there is land and money available (Budaza, 2005 pers. comm.).

The bulk of the current sports and recreational projects were started in December 2003 and they are part of an ongoing exercise. There is the Grahamstown Botanical Garden project, which is also underway, and this look set to put Grahamstown on the international map as a green destination. Rhodes University is implementing the project. The IDP register has mandated Rhodes University to undertake the role of site agent while the Local Authority assists in an advisory position (Makana IDP, 2002). The rebuilding efforts are envisaged to have a strong commercial impact in the city of Grahamstown. The project is community based and the staff are drawn almost entirely from the local Grahamstown community, which is also seen as a great boost in a town that is struggling with high unemployment rates (Clifford-Holmes, 2005). The money spent on the programme has been injected back into the Grahamstown economy and the project has so far seen the successful employment of 18 previously unemployed people in phase one and 48 in phase two in various job categories. This has been achieved through diverse, well-organized in-house training courses. The aim is to add economic and social value to the community by empowering the local people and equipping them with essential skills (Clifford-Holmes, 2005).

One of the major sports projects in the poorer communities is the indoor sport centre located between extension five and Extension six. The project has been completed and it is a joint effort of the Rhodes University Sports Council Community Outreach Programme and the Makana Municipality. It is funded by the National Lottery Funds,

through an application submitted by Rhodes University Sports Administration. The centre comprises of a computerised score board, basketball equipment, netball equipment as well as a gymnasium. The facilities are maintained and managed by the municipality (Budaza, 2005 pers. comm.). The construction of a cricket pitch is also being undertaken. The municipality has provided the land for the cricket pitch's construction while the United Cricket Board has provided the money, and it is envisaged that the project will be completed before the end of 2005. The municipality and the Grahamstown Local Cricket Association jointly manage the project. There are also two playgrounds under construction. One is in extension 7 and the other is attached to a school near Fingo Village (Budaza, 2005 pers. comm.).

Before the commencement of the sports projects, there were two fields used interchangeably for soccer and rugby in Grahamstown and there were very few facilities to support these sports. However, there is need to provide more development programmes which will include an after-school sports academy which will focus on six sporting codes that will include; rugby, soccer, basketball, cricket, netball and hockey.

It is important to state that many people have benefited, either directly or indirectly from the programme. Soccer clubs, rugby clubs, cricket clubs as well as different schools have also benefited from these IDP identified projects. Some schools have also been supplied with various sports equipment by the municipality depending on the sports that such schools are active in (Budaza, 2005 pers. comm.).

The major problem of the IDP as regards sports and recreation is its vagueness. In some cases it does not specify the number of projects as well as the specific locations for such projects, which make it difficult for the department to prioritise and implement some of the projects. Also, land for recreation purposes are not included in the lay-out plans of the new areas when constructing houses. This might be due to the fact that there is a shortage of available land in the Grahamstown East area, and other available land is far from where the people reside. This is a problem because the recreational facilities should actually be constructed close to the people homes. There is also the problem of funding of

some programmes because the municipality only budgets money for the managing and the maintenance of the infrastructure (Budaza, 2005 pers. comm.).

The only problem encountered with the people during implementation of the projects has to do with protocols and procedures. They also tend to wait till the last minute before they make requests for venue bookings. There are also bureaucratic clashes in the implementation of some programmes; this however emanates from the fact that the department operates under the municipality and through the provincial government and district municipality (Budaza, 2005 pers. comm.).

Lots of local people have benefited either directly or indirectly in the projects as directed by the IDP. During the construction of any facility, about 20 to 25 casual labourers are employed on temporary basis depending on the period of completion of the projects after, which two people would be employed on permanent basis to manage the project. Most of the workers also receive on the job training. The committee of the community where the project is to be located in most cases determines who works with the contractors. It is also envisaged that the community would produce some sports professionals in the near future, bearing in mind that the essence of these provisions is to cater for people's needs and aspirations (Budaza, 2005 pers. comm.). The department is however happy about its achievement within the limited time frame since it came into operation (Budaza, 2005 pers. comm.).

5.5.9 Transport

Transport is one of the development priorities indicated in the Makana Municipality IDP register. The main activity concerning transport in the municipality as indicated in the IDP was to upgrade signage and implement traffic calming measures. It should be noted that the nine local municipalities in the Cacadu District Municipality engage and embark on almost the same kind of transportation projects according to their respective IDPs. There are round table discussions at the district level, which involve the municipal

managers, mayors, councilors, the traffic police and other people from the consultation forum, as well as other stakeholders as stipulated by the IDP (Kapp, 2005 pers. comm.).

The previously disadvantaged groups are at the center of interest and when there is a need for a project, as indicated by the responsible councilors, after he/she has consulted with the people in his/her ward, such project has to be prioritized before it can be implemented because of limited funding (Ibid).

The funding for the provision of infrastructure and maintenance is the responsibility of the Cacadu District Municipality and the Makana Municipality but the traffic department does the implementation and other administrative duties (Ibid).

The local people are involved in the implementation. The projects provide job opportunities for them. Many people have benefited as labourers and contractors during the implementation of some of the projects embarked upon by the transport department (Kapp, 2005 pers. comm.). The traffic department has been able to reduce accident rates in the 2004/2005 year, it has also seen to the proper functioning of the traffic forum (as it was indicated in the IDP) which has assisted in building three junior traffic centers and it is hoping to form partnerships with Rotary, because the IDP encourages partnerships with community organization. It also runs staff development programmes and had secured funds from Cacadu District Municipality for the building of taxi shelters. The traffic department was selected as one of the few departments to be quality control audited (Kapp, 2005 pers. comm.).

Some of the projects that were undertaken as stated in the IDP register are shown in the table (5.3) below;

Table 5.3 Completed Transport Project on Signage Upgrade and Traffic Calming Measures

Location	Project	Status
Joza	Speed Bump	Completed

Grahamstown Central	Road signs, marking, Street Name	Completed
Cradock road	Painted Island	Completed
Beaufort Street	Road Marking, rumble strips	Completed
African Street	Traffic Circle	Completed
Oakland	Painted Island and marking	Completed
Beaufort Street	Robot Controlled crossing	Completed
Discom Taxi Rank	Robot Controlled crossing	Completed
Bathurst Street	Safeguard the bus stop areas	Completed

Kapp (pers. comm., 2005)

As shown in the table 5.3 above, the projects highlighted have been completed and there are plans to provide and maintain street names and road marking in the entire Makana area. What has been completed to date only focuses on Grahamstown central (this needs to be done every 3 – 6 months). Other objectives include the construction of intercity bus terminal on Bathurst Street and construction of shelter/ bus stops at the taxi ranks and their routes as well as embarking on public road safety enlightenment. Ten out of the thirty proposed shelters have been completed. The department has also completed the junior road safety programme and road safety lecture in most schools in Grahamstown to sensitize scholars on road safety issues (Makana IDP, 2004 & Kaap, 2005 pers. comm.).

The few problems encountered during the implementation of the projects emanated from lack of funding as well as complaints from local people that the bus stops/ shelters would eventually become the hideout for criminals to carry out their illicit activities and as such they do not want the shelters close to their houses (Kapp, 2005 pers. comm.). There are plans by the municipality to upgrade and tar all municipal gravel roads in Grahamstown in order to keep and maintain the roadworthiness of vehicles and to facilitate taxi access within the residences so that people can board taxis from their streets instead of walking to the main streets (Makana IDP Register, 2004).

5.5.10 Safety (Crime Prevention)

As revealed by the director of Social and Community Services, Ms. Madlavu (2005 pers. comm.) safety is a function of the South Africa Police Service (SAPS) and the municipality only intervenes through co-functioning with SAPS. This they achieve by participating in the police forum, which is a joint venture with the SAPS and the traffic department. The local representatives of wards are also part of the forum because issues discussed are those that are put forward by them. The forum is established so that the peoples' voices can be heard and so that proper policies that will bring relief to people and reduce vulnerability to crime can be put in place (Madlavu, 2005 pers. comm.). However negotiations and lobbying are ongoing to establish competent and effective judicial system, to provide sufficient law enforcement to combat crime as well as for establishing a municipal police force (Makana IDP, 2002).

5.5.11 Education and Training

As indicated the Makana Municipality IDP project register (2004) the department of education is responsible for the provision, construction and renovation of school buildings. However, in support of education, there are municipal plans to establish a satellite library in Fingo Village. This is being looked into and it would be a joint venture undertaken between Rhodes University and the Makana Municipality (Makana Municipality IDP Register, 2004).

5.5.12 Local Economic Development

Local Economic Development is one of the foundations of the IDP for achieving employment and economic growth within localities. The Makana municipality's LED programme is small when compared to the status of LED in other South African cities. This is so because most programmes and initiatives in the IDP book are driven by the municipality, which has access to limited resources. The motive behind this however is to put some structures in place that can lay the basis for establishing job creating economic programmes for the poor people (Xonxa, 2005 pers. comm.). This should be achieved by the municipality through structuring and managing its administration and its budgeting

and planning processes in order to give priority to the basic needs of the poor people and to promote the social and economic development of the poor community (DPLG, 2002).

According to the Makana Municipality LED and IDP officer Mr. Xonxa (pers. comm. 2005), a handful of initiatives have begun within the municipality to strengthen the economic prowess of the municipality in providing economic development opportunities for its citizens. The municipality has conducted feasibility studies in order to identify business plans. One of such initiatives is the Business Information Center (BIC), which is a product of collaboration between the Makana Municipality and Rhodes University. This was initiated to facilitate Small Medium and Micro Enterprises (SMME) development through the provision of assistance for the drawing up of business plans as well as forming and boosting interaction with financial institutions. In order to facilitate easy access to information, the computers in the BIC are linked to the Business Referral and Information Network (BRAIN) of the Department of Trade and Industry, so as to get easy access to business information on the Internet (Xonxa, 2005 pers. comm.).

BRAIN is an organisation instituted by the Department of Trade and Industry (DTI), to improve the competitiveness and growth of SMME in South Africa through the supply of high quality, value-added information through existing delivery structures to help ensure improvement in the business of SMMEs, with an emphasis on the historically disadvantaged individual businesses (BRAIN, 2005). It should however be mentioned that an agency has been set up by the Department of Trade and Industry referred to as 'Khula'. Khula was established to facilitate access to credit for SMMEs through various delivery mechanisms such as commercial banks, Retail Financial Intermediaries (RFI's) and Micro Credit Outlets (MCO's). Khula is seen as a wholesale financial institution that facilitates financial assistance to entrepreneurs through the various financial mentioned above. Khula also provides mentorship services to guide and counsel entrepreneurs in various aspect of managing a business, (BRAIN, 2005). This to a large extent tallies with the focus of this thesis on IDP as a mechanism for poverty alleviation, because Khula has been generating self-sustaining enterprises, in line with the objective of IDP through the promotion of SMME development by providing access to funding which addresses the

issue of unemployment amongst the populace. It must be noted that before the finance is granted by KHULA, the potential beneficiaries have to write an application that would describe the type of business the money would be used for (Xonxa, 2005 pers. comm.).

5.5.12.1 Tourism

The municipality has set up various plans to support, advertise and develop tourism through its Makana Tourism Framework Plan. Some plans are already in the making which includes the establishment of B & B's in previously disadvantaged areas. People living in such disadvantaged areas have been encouraged to make rooms available in the form of B & Bs for visitors during the National Arts Festival, Freedom Festival and Scifest, so that they can earn some money during such periods. There are plans to promote initiatives to establish festivals like the Makana Freedom Festival and also to attract conferences to the municipality (Xonxa, 2005 pers. comm.).

It is however pertinent to mention that there are projects, which are planned and these include the development of rondawels at the Settlers Dam for which the municipality is still lobbying for investors. Other projects include replanning the spatial extent of the Central Business District (CBD) incorporating Knight Street and the Village Green. Schools are also to be encouraged to bring up events such as centenary celebrations, derby and festivals (Xonxa, 2005 pers. comm.).

5.5.12.2 Arts and Crafts

The Makana Municipality has, in diverse ways, been encouraging the production of Arts and Crafts through marketing and the organisation of exhibitions to promote local arts and crafts. There is an SMME exhibition drive, which the municipality uses as a form of marketing for the local crafters wares in which all crafters are encouraged to display their wares. The Department of Arts and Culture is trying to organize a workshop, which aims to expose the local crafters to the production of both high quality and standard goods (Xonxa, 2005 pers. comm.). The municipality also helps by procuring materials for the local crafters as well as entering into collaborative agreements with other municipalities

to form an alliance, in which the local crafter would be exposed and also generate additional income.

Xonxa (pers. comm., 2005) commented that they do encounter problems. The problems usually encountered in the implementation of LED projects revolve around the issue of funding. Much lobbying has to be done to seek funding for the projects. Another problem within the municipality is that not all the LED/IDP projects are prioritized equally in the budget, because some projects receive higher priority more than the others which in the long run impacts on delivery. LED has however recorded success in the following areas apart from the aforementioned.

5.5.12.3 Agriculture

The Makana Municipality has got plans to create more employment through citizen participation when its agricultural projects begin operation. The plan is to identify potential farmers as well as training resources. They have met with the local Farmers Association with the aim of developing a relationship with that association and providing assistance when necessary. It is also included in the LED plan to investigate agricultural opportunities and to develop markets for the produce, (Xonxa, 2005 pers. comm.). One of the agricultural opportunities is the Makana Goat Community Center. According to the draft plan of the project management and implementation, the center's activities will entail the development of the infrastructure, institutions, and the skills and business acumen required for the provision of long term employment and sustainable development in the eRhini (Grahamstown) community, of which a large percentage of its population is unemployed (Xonxa, 2005 pers. comm.). It aims to strive positively to impact on the income of the surrounding community by providing jobs. This would be achieved not entirely through the agricultural project alone but as a business entity working on business principles.

The Makana Community Goat Center would be on or near the (seven hundred and thirty five) 735-hectare farm already being utilized by local farmers. The goat center would

entail the purchase of a nuclear milk goat herd with the aim of producing various milk products and the development of a dairy and milk processing plant. Spinoffs would include leather crafting utilizing the goat skins, a curio shop at which to sell the wares of the center and other products produced by the community. It would also have a restaurant at which traditional meals would be served and a conference center for clients and for hosting community meetings. The traditional healers would have a facility to demonstrate the healing traditions of the Xhosa people and there would also be an entertainment choir and performers. There would be a nursery to produce vegetable seedlings for local farmers and community gardens. The gardens at the center would produce fresh produce for the restaurant and they would sell the surplus to the community.

The manufacturing plant would manufacture soft cheeses and a range of goat milk products such as yogurts and flavoured drinking milks and frozen and fresh milk when it commences production. It is envisaged that the center would directly employ 67 people, where as the indirect employment in all LED projects would be about 100 people from the B&B including their catering and laundry staffs.

A workshop would be provided on site where woodwork and leather crafting could also be undertaken by various crafters. It is envisaged that eventually about 200 people of the Grahamstown (eRhini) community would benefit as a result of these enterprise (Xonxa, 2005 pers. comm.).

It should be mentioned that there are some NGOs and CBOs involved in agricultural training projects for the vulnerable groups such as women, children, the unemployed in the poor communities in order to eradicate poverty, inequality and unemployment and to create opportunities for people to fulfil their aspirations through increase access to food, making sustainable, effective use of available resources and developing the skills necessary for improved livelihoods and self sufficiency (Xonxa, 2005 pers. comm.).

There is also the need to mention that there is also a public- private partnership between the Municipality and the Fuch Foundation. This partnership has produced a project called

the Mzam'omhle Compost Project, which produces compost from garden refuse (Xonxa, 2005 pers. comm.). This is aimed at providing employment for the poor through recycling of refuse.

5.5.12.4 Summary

Plans are in progress to investigate other agricultural opportunities that will be of benefit to the community while the B&Bs that has been developed in the eRhini (Grahamstown) area would be linked to the center, so that overseas visitors can be referred by them for accommodation and they can handle and promote this enterprise over festival time. The major problem encountered by the LED department is the lack of funding to implement the identified projects and initiatives.

5.6 Involvement of Local People

The Municipal System Act (RSA, 2000) requires all municipalities to build appropriate mechanisms, processes and procedures that will allow for the capacity building of the local communities by involving them in the affairs of the municipality. As stated in the Municipal System Act (RSA, 2000) this could be achieved by involving the local community in the development, implementation and reviewing of the municipality's performance management system and allowing the community to participate in the setting of appropriate key performance indicators and performance targets for the municipality. Participation by the local community in the affairs of the municipality can take place through political structures set up for participation in terms of the Municipality Structures Act (RSA, 2000).

As far as the IDP is concerned in Grahamstown, interaction with the community is very important and necessary because the Municipal System Act (RSA, 2000) has given all municipalities the mandate to interact with their local communities and because the communities are important stakeholders in the decision making of the municipality (Nkuhlu, 2005 pers. comm.). Section 17 (2) of the Municipal System Act (RSA, 2000) stipulates that members of the community must be able to lodge complaints and petitions.

It also stipulates that the municipality must notify the public on issues relating to the municipality when appropriate, hold regular public meetings with the delegates of the local community and also have a consultative forum with the recognized community organisations and traditional authorities and also make sure that the municipality report back to the local community (RSA, 2000).

In line with the above declaration, there are different consultative forums that have been formed within the communities and between communities and municipality that are involved in the assessment of the community's need and feedback of the community's view to the municipality. Such forums includes the ward committee/community forum, which are statutory committees required in terms of the Municipal System Act (RSA 2000). Their role according to the IDP is to liaise with the community and the municipality about the needs and aspirations of the communities. The members of the community/ward committee are drawn from existing structures within the communities, which includes churches, community based organizations (CBO), NGO's, ward councilors and some individuals elected within the community, they co-ordinate structures within the community, with the involvement of the municipality. The essence of this forum is to get feedback from the community about their needs and aspiration on issues of welfare and infrastructural provision to the municipality with the aim of addressing the concerned identified issues as indicated in the IDP (Nkuhlu, 2005 pers. comm.).

There is also the IDP representative forum, which includes all government departments in Grahamstown, NGO's, CBO's, the business community, ward/community committees, councilors, senior management of the municipality and the head of municipal departments (Ibid).

As mentioned earlier, the IDP steering committee is largely an internal structure within the municipality. The members of this committee include the councilors as well as the ward/ community committee. The steering committee consolidates inputs that have been

collected and synchronize them for implementation (Ibid). It can be argued here that the final decision in including a project in the IDP register rest on this committee.

The communities are involved through participation in general meetings with the different committees. In addition engagement is encouraged by the municipality, which places adverts in the newspapers, and approaches people that cannot make it to the various community meetings about the IDP asking for a community assessment of what their views and aspirations are. The different views, desires and aspirations are collected through the various community assessment programmes put in place by the different consultative forums and these views and aspirations are subject to what the municipality can afford in its budget. Feedback on the programmes is sent to the community on what can be implemented and how it would be implemented (Nkuhlu, 2005 pers. comm.).

In meeting the needs and aspirations of the communities, it is pertinent to say that service delivery also brings substantial benefits through job creation, both during construction and during on-going operations (RSA, 1998). The involvement of local people in project implementation in Grahamstown comes in diverse ways. Contracts are allocated to contractors with the agreement that the contractor has to employ people from the local community where the project is taking place as some of his personnel as sub-contractors and unskilled workers in the implementation of the projects. If the need arises, and if there are not enough qualified local people needed for some positions, the contractors can then bring in some of his personnel or outsiders to fill the vacant gaps (Tshungu, 2005 pers. comm.).

The IDP projects are labour intensive and as a result of this, lots of the local people are involved through employment in the implementation and are selected from the wards where the projects are taking place. In most cases they serve as manual labourers, though some local people do act as sub-contractors to contractors from outside. In practice, during the provision of infrastructure and services, jobs are created through the procurement and the installation of machinery ranging from the digging of trenches, to the laying of pipes, construction of toilets and houses, maintenance etc, while some

people are employed on permanent basis to manage some of the projects. It is pertinent to state that some people receive hands-on training during the implementation of these projects through mentoring and active participation (Tshungu, 2005 pers. comm.). The only problem encountered with the local people during the implementation and their involvement is that they expect too many things to be done within a short period of time without taking their complaints through the appropriate channels (Tshungu, 2005 pers. comm.).

5.7 Conclusion

It is evident from the findings provided in this chapter that the municipality's commitment to poverty alleviation through the IDP is clear. It is apparent that some projects have been completed, some are in their final stages and some haven't been started, and it is also clear that plans are on-going to commence other projects that the community deemed fit, which are outlined in the IDP. Plans are also being implemented to educate, inform and advise the poor community of the programmes and the roles and responsibilities of all role players. It is however important to state that the implementation of the projects and activities which have not been implemented depends largely on the availability of funds.

The result of these interviews indicate that most municipal departments seem to have achieved a lot in terms of addressing the poverty related issues identified in the development priorities, through the provision of service and infrastructure as well as creating employment for people as indicated in the IDP objectives. The interviews also reveal that there are challenges and problems encountered in the implementation of the IDP.

The findings from this chapter as regards community engagement in meetings with different stakeholders to determine their needs is in line with the view of Motloun and Mears (2002) that specific knowledge about the group affected by poverty and their economic characteristics is needed to improve their situation. Such knowledge about the needs and aspirations of the poor are gained during such meetings. Todaro (2000) also

asserts that a direct attack on poverty by means of poverty focused policies and plans can be more effective in both the short and long term. The IDP is perceived as the mechanism that contains the plans for implementing the policies.

In achieving alleviating poverty, the municipality has been able to implement some programmes in the IDP aimed at providing the basic infrastructure such as water and sanitation, electricity, housing, health care and provision of emergency and recreational facilities. It has also sought to improve the poor peoples' productive assets and employment opportunities during the implementation of infrastructure provisions as well as through LED which tends to provide capital and skills needed to increase the poor people's productivity. The above was echoed by the International Labour Organisation (ILO, 1995) when it suggests that if poverty is to be alleviated, enabling poor households to gain access to productive assets and employment opportunities and to receive adequate prices/payment must be made possible. They are of the opinion that this can be achieved by increasing the productivity of labour and the assets of poor households through access to capital, education and skills and the need to provide adequate access to a range of basic services and other types of infrastructure that might be needed to improve the capacity of the poor.

This chapter revealed that the CBOs and NGOs have a prominent role to play in the IDP implementation towards poverty alleviation. The NGOs and CBOs are seen as an integral part of the poverty alleviation process by the municipality in its fight against poverty.

It must however be said that overcoming the problems within the municipality capacity as revealed in this study and as echoed by Harisson and Mathye in the literature will go a long way in making poverty alleviation a success through the local government.

Although, the aim of the IDP is to address poverty related issues through infrastructure and service provision and participation, it is pertinent to mention that while some people have benefited from these services and infrastructure and other benefits that comes with it others are yet to benefit from it and their condition remain unchanged.

In the next chapter, the validity of these results will be checked against the views of the community as regards their views and experience of municipal interventions through the IDP so as to measure the actual level of development intervention attained through the IDP.

CHAPTER SIX

6.0 Beneficiaries Findings

6.1 Introduction

This chapter will present key findings from the survey of the beneficiaries (people living those areas in Grahamstown where IDP infrastructural projects have been implemented) regarding their perceptions of the IDP and its effects. The key research aim of this study was firstly, with reference to the IDP, to establish their perceptions of the IDP and its effectiveness in addressing current poverty related backlogs such as in water and sanitation, electricity, and housing provision, employment and income at the household level. The study also sought to establish the nature and effects of services received such as access to clinics, roads and participation in development in general. A further aim was to establish what the local authority's response to prevailing poverty and development backlogs are, in terms of both policy and on the ground intervention with the view of gauging the effectiveness of such interventions. The key data for the first two aspects was derived from a questionnaire survey of township residents designed to ascertain details of the township residents, their development needs, their knowledge of the IDP and their perceptions regarding how effective it has been in practice.

In carrying out the above aim, 150 questionnaires were administered but only 125 were fully filled in. An individual in one of every six households where IDP projects have taken place or still being implemented was interviewed. The findings discussed here respond to the research aims as discussed above. The principal research questions identified for this aspect of the study were as follows:

- What are the socio-economic profiles of people living in areas with high poverty levels Grahamstown?
- What are the most common socio-economic backlogs in Grahamstown?
- What is the people's view about the IDP projects in terms of their participation and delivery?

For purposes of this research the researcher investigated the level of poverty in the former black and coloured township areas, which traditionally have not had adequate access to public infrastructure and, as such, are vulnerable to poverty. The availability and access to the basic services such as water, housing, electricity, sewerage, health care services, roads, as well as other public utilities were all investigated. The level of intervention from the municipality's perspective in terms of the provision and delivery of basic services needed for an acceptable living was also looked into. The peoples' view about the nature and speed of delivery was also investigated so as to gauge the level of effectiveness of the municipality in accordance to the IDP process.

Issues that will also be discussed in this chapter will include the poverty status of Grahamstown East residents, the socio-economic profile of the town as well as the level of development intervention engaged in, which will provide answers to the objectives outlined above.

6.2 The Poverty Status of Grahamstown

In Grahamstown abject poverty is prevalent amongst a significant proportion of the community, which arises as a result of unemployment and lack of access to basic infrastructure. This is compounded by the fact that there are very few formal and informal economic activities going on in the area. The large majority of the poor people were found in the black township areas, and they are either unemployed or have access to only occasional or irregular employment in the informal sector. This is a typical pattern as described by Omiya (2000).

The first aspect of the field research was conducted with the view to establishing the socio-economic characteristics of the population with regards to the attainment of their basic needs so as to determine the level of poverty in the area. To achieve this, a systematic sample was drawn from ten different areas within the black township areas where there seem to be the most significant development backlogs and where IDP projects are on-going.

A 10-pronged strategy was used to collect data from the various parts of the town where IDP projects have taken place or are still going on, so as to enable the researcher to gather representative samples from all areas. A systematic sample was drawn from ten areas based on the magnitude of the projects going on and the population of the areas. A stratified random sampling technique was also utilized in areas where the houses were randomly built. As a result one hundred and twenty five questionnaires were fully filled with good representation from these areas. The targets of the survey were mainly the bona fide residents of those areas. Non-residents and visitors to the areas were excluded from the study. The focus was on any member of the family that is above fifteen years of age that was also able to read and write and state the view of the family as regards socio-economic characteristics and infrastructural provision.

6.2.1 Socio Economic Profile

Based on the one hundred and twenty five questionnaires administered in the areas surveyed, it is important to identify the characteristics of the poor people as this relates to the relevance of the development policy put in place by the municipality. This section will look at units such as families, individuals and the community as a whole.

6.2.1.1 Gender Profile

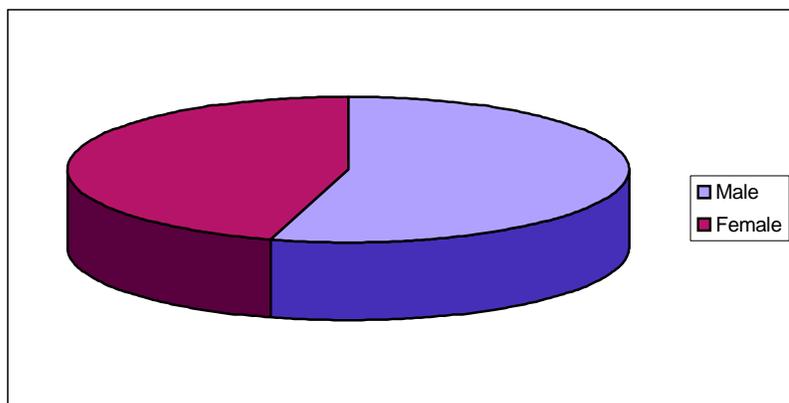


Figure 6.1 Gender Profile

Of the 125 completed questionnaires, 54.4% of the respondents are men while the remaining 45.6 are women. This might be an indication that more men were available during the administering of the questionnaires reflecting high male unemployment levels. According to the 2001 population census there are significant more women than men in the 35 – 64 age cohort in the Makana Municipal area. It is pertinent to state that from the researcher's observation, more women were observed to be employed in the informal sector as shop attendants than men while others are seen to be working as maids in other people's homes. The reason for this trend in unemployment was not ascertained, as it was not included in the aims and objectives of the study.

6.2.1.2 Family Size

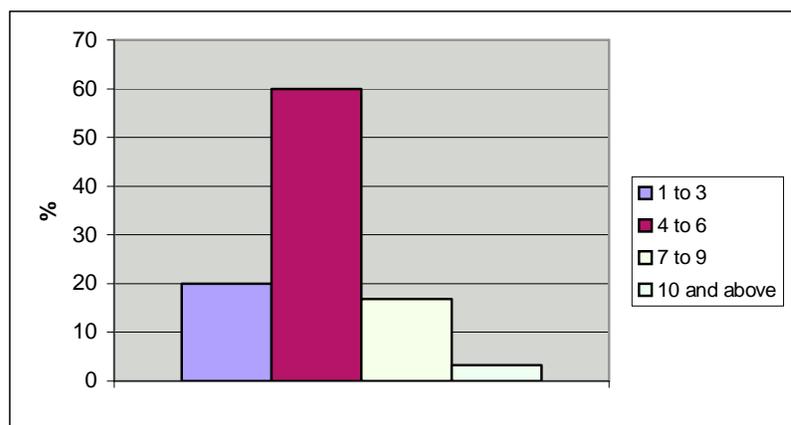


Figure 6.2 Family Size

As indicated in Figure 6.2, it is apparent that a large proportion (60%) of respondents comes from families, with a size of between four and six people. This indicates the high number of dependants that might be living in such household. A small proportion of the respondents (3.2%) come from homes with a family size of 10 and above. The latter might be a reflection of the fact the head of these families might be a pensioner taking care of their grandchildren or be a householder having responsibility for several dependents.

6.2.1.3 Educational Attainment

From figure 6.3, it is apparent that a large majority of respondents attended school beyond grade six but did not proceed beyond grade 12. This might be as a result of lack of funds to continue their education or due to other socio-economic factors. A small proportion (6.4%) have never been to school, which might be a reflection of their poor background, while a very small proportion have a Diploma certificate (0.8%) or are a graduate (1.6%). According to Motlounge & Mears (2002) the poorest sector of the population is likely to be less educated than the wealthier sector. Motlounge & Mears (2002) indicates that the lack of education and lack of exposure to the labour market are factors, which have contributed to the increase in poverty.

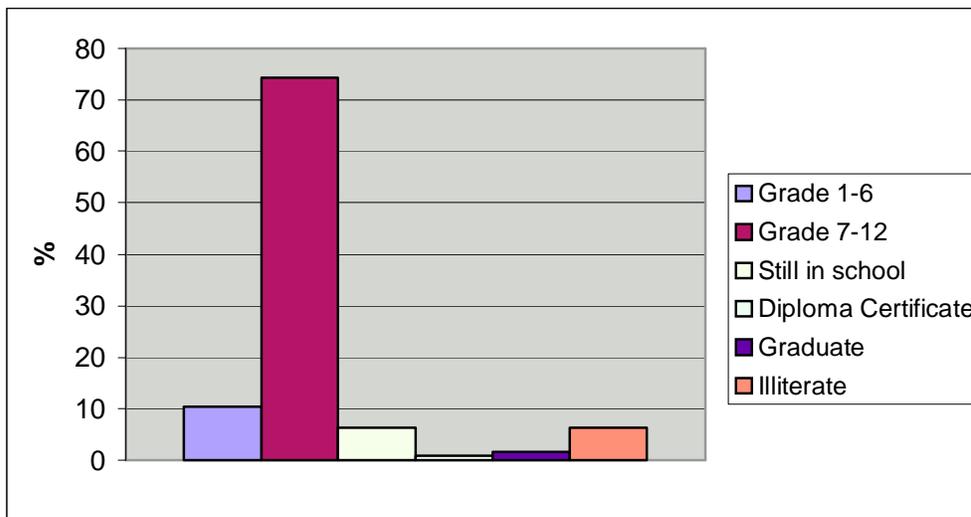


Figure 6.3 Educational Attainment

Whiteford *et al* (1995) also relates poverty to lack of education when they assert that households with poorly educated household heads have a far higher incidence of poverty than those with better-educated household heads. The close association between poverty and lack of education is evident when comparing the income levels of different groups and their educational qualification.

6.2.1.4 Housing Type

Formal houses in the context of this research are taken to be houses provided during the implementation of other programmes like the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) by earlier government departments, or houses built by the occupant or individual. In Grahamstown the houses built in terms of the IDP are classified to be the newly built houses from the year 2002, while shacks are the informal dwellings

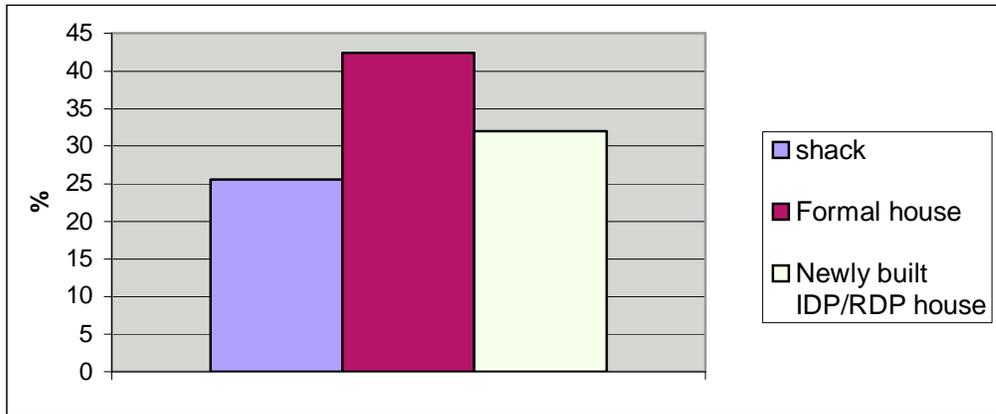


Figure 6.4 Type of House

From Figure 6.4 above, it is apparent that the majority (36.8%) of respondents live in formal houses, which are either provided by government or built by the owner. A large proportion of these (32%) live in RDP/IDP houses, which are provided by the municipality. The remainder (24.8%) of respondent's live in shacks; which most likely reflects their social and economic capabilities as well as their educational background.

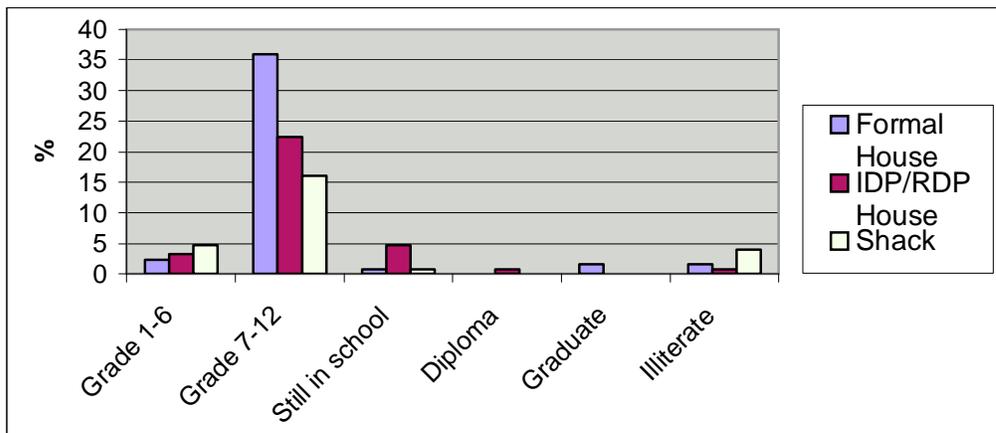


Figure 6.5 The Relationship Between Educational Attainment and Housing Type

The figures for people with limited education who are living in shacks is seen to be higher than the number of people with higher educational qualifications who live in shacks. Figure 6.5 above shows that the largest group attained grade 7-12 and they seem to live in more formal houses than the less educated. The group also has the highest percentage of people living in shacks. The illiterates however have more people living in shacks than people living in formal and IDP/RDP house. Thus, it can be suggested or argued that the nature of the kind of houses the poor live in might be associated with their educational qualification which might have effects on others factors such as the employment prospects of the poor.

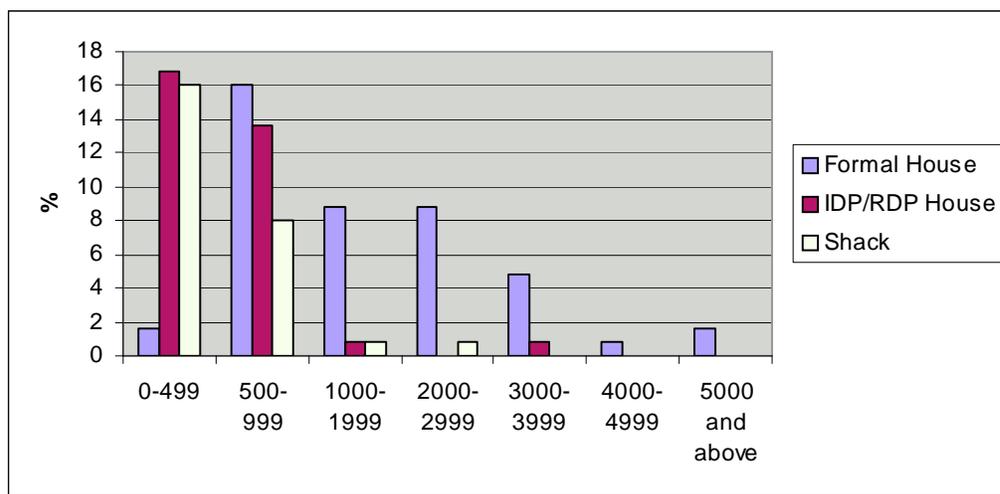


Figure 6.6 The Relationship Between Income and Housing Type

Most of the people living in shacks do not have formal education and they do not work in the formal employment sector. The majority are jobless while others work as low paid labourers. The figures 6.6 above and 6.7 below concur with this statement, because the monthly income of most families living in shacks is less than R1000 a month, 16% earn 0-R499 and 8% earn R500-999, while it is also evident that most families that earn more live in a formal house built by themselves or through a subsidy from the government. However 18% of the unemployed live in shacks while 14% of the pensioners live in shacks and only 2% of the employed live in shack. It is however apparent that employment contributes to income which reflects on the nature of houses that the poor live in.

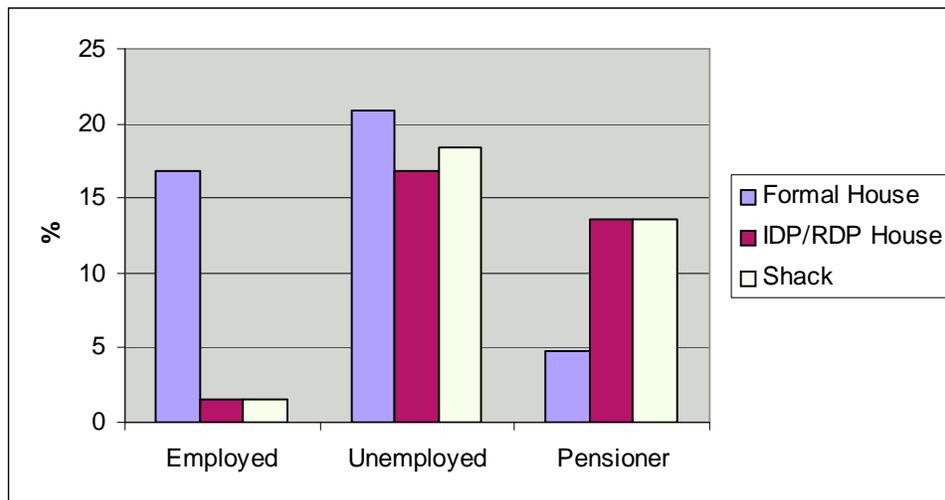


Figure 6.7 The Relationship Between Employment and Housing Type

May (1998) and Budlender (1999) assert that objective measures such as income and housing standard as well as subjective measures such as needs and perceptions determines the extent of poverty that an individual, family or group are in. It is however evident from the figure 6.7 that the highest number of families living in shacks, 18% lie in the unemployed cohort, though 14% of the pensioners also live in shacks. The figure 6.7 above also reveals that large numbers of unemployed people live in formal houses. As mentioned earlier in section 6.2.1.4, formal houses include houses provided during the implementation of other government programmes (pre 2002) and the ones built by individual with or without support grant from government.

6.2.1.5 Access to Basic Amenities / Infrastructure

From the figure 6.8 below, out of the 125 respondents it is evident that a large proportion (96.8%) has access to water and (84.8%) electricity in their homes. This is an indication that these amenities are installed in almost all the areas surveyed. A significant number of the respondents claimed that they were promised free amenities during the campaigns before election but that is not the case now, as they are meant to pay for the services. 96% of the respondents claimed that they couldn't afford to pay for these services, even though they were connected at no cost and are subsidized by the municipality.

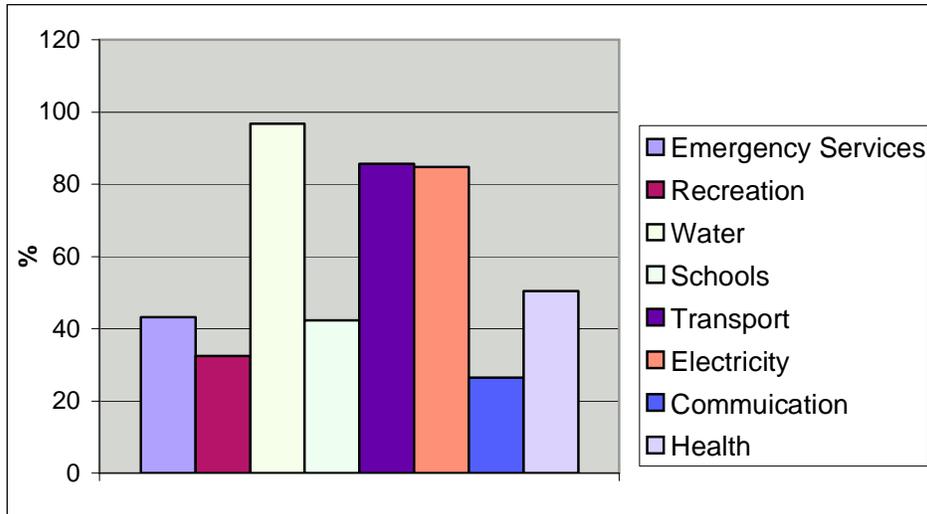


Figure 6.8 Basic Amenities

42.4% of the respondents claimed that they have schools located nearby their homes, though the distance to school varies from one suburb to another. While some travel about half a kilometer before they get to school, others would have to walk a more significant distance before they get to school. This is an indication that they would either walk or alternatively take a ride in a car or taxi to school.

50.4% of the respondents do live close to clinics; they do visit on foot or by driving. 85.6% of the respondents enjoy good access to transport or their streets are tarred, which allows for easy access into those places. A small proportion (26.4%) does not have good access to communication, while (32.5%) does not have good access to emergency services. The two are related because without access to means of communication there cannot be good access to emergency services.

40% of the respondents do not have access to recreation centers in their neighborhoods. The recreation centers in this context include playground, sport centers, swimming pools, crèches and other places where people might spend their leisure hours. The non-existence of these facilities is an indication that the locations where the people live in are habited by the poor and the less fortunate in the society and as such can be classified as poor.

6.2.1.6 Employment status

Table 6.1 Employment status

	Employed	Unemployed	Pensioner
Number	25	70	30
%	20	56	24

From the (Table 6.1) above, it is evident that only 95 of the 125 respondents fall within the potential working class (Potential Employees) while the remaining 30 are pensioners, but only about one third of those who are employable are actually employed.

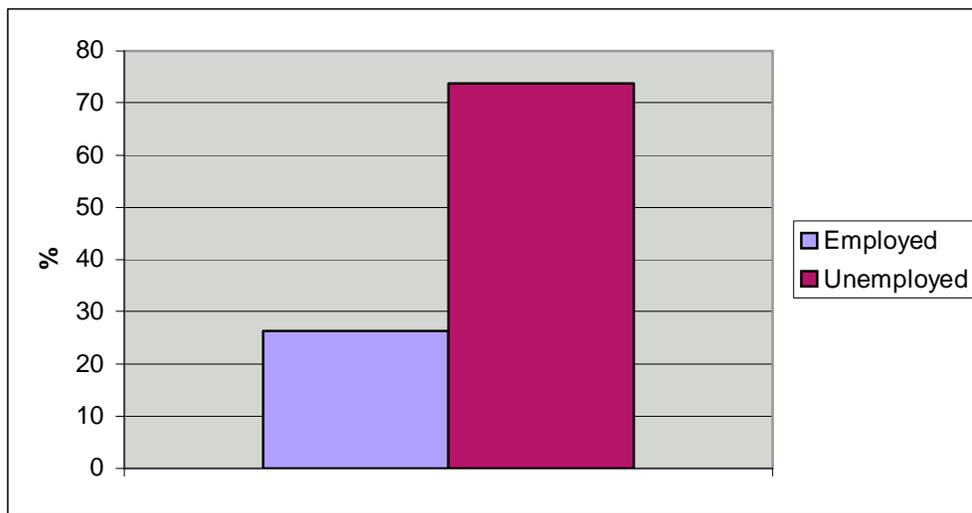


Figure 6.9 Employment Status

The Figure 6.9 above shows that a large proportion (73.7%) of the employable respondents is unemployed. An unemployed person according to Budlender (1999) is broadly understood as an individual who is without a paid job but willing to engage in it. This might be as a result of their poor academic qualification, or the absence of employment opportunities, or some disability, which might make them unemployable which means they currently would be dependent on other family members for their upkeep. Despite this, a large majority of them indicated that they are seeking jobs.

Only small proportions (26.3%) of those interviewed are employed and the value of their household income is determined by the nature of their employment. 30% of the

respondents indicated that they are pensioners, who depend on state pensions. It could however not be ascertained whether they are also involved in other informal jobs after their retirement. Most of the pensioners support a large family, and it was indicated by some of them that, a number of dependants live with them. These dependants in most cases are usually their grandchildren.

6.2.1.7 Monthly Income

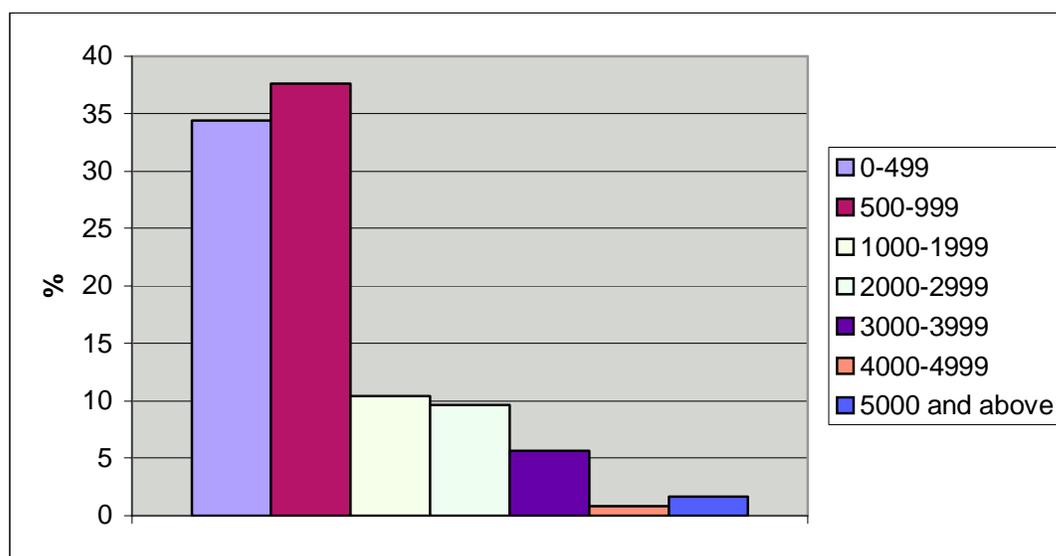


Figure 6.10 Monthly Household Income in Rands (R)

It is evident from Figure 6.10 a large proportion of responding households (34.4%) survive on less than R500 per month and (37.6%) survives on a family income of between R 500 – R999. This is also reflected in the kind of houses that they live in as it was revealed in Figure 6.6, as many of them live in substandard houses and can hardly make ends meet. A small proportion (10.4%) live on R1000 – R1999 every month, 9.6% live on R2000 – 2999 every month, 5.6% live on R3000 – 3999 monthly, 0.8% live on R4000 – 4999 monthly while a very small proportion (1.6%) live on R5000 and above monthly. Whiteford *et al* (1995) echo the view that if a household earns an income lower than the stipulated poverty line or poverty income, such households and its members are deemed to be living in poverty. Going by the World Bank’s US\$1 a day would not reflect

the current economic and monetary value that can adequately sustain an individual in a day in South Africa, it can be argued that US\$3 which translates to R930 a month should be the minimum amount that can adequately provide for an individuals daily sustenance.

It is however pertinent to say that given the high level of unemployment in Grahamstown, a large majority of the respondents receive social grants in the form of disability grants (R740), child support grants (R170), foster child support grants (R530), care dependency grants (R740), grant in aid (R160), war veteran grants (R758) as well as old age grants (R740) (SASSA, 2005). The respondents confessed that these grants have been helpful in making ends meet in certain areas of their lives.

6.2.1.8 Telephone

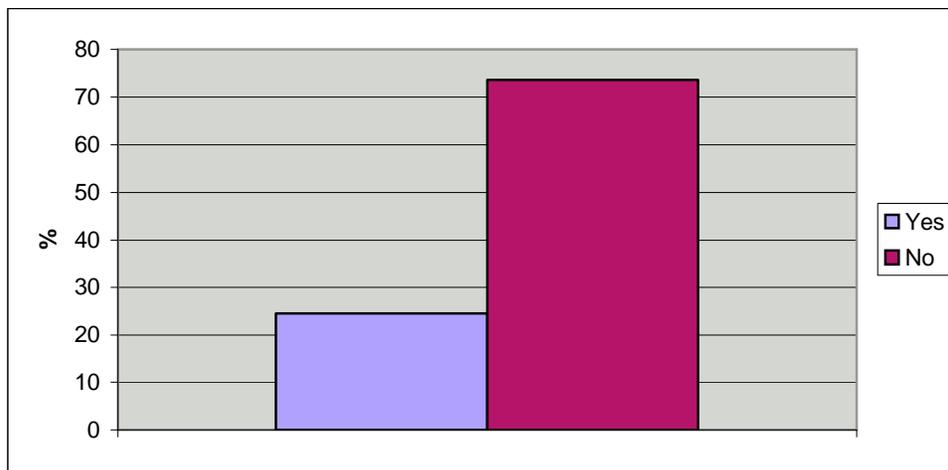


Figure 6.11 Access to Telephone at Home

From the Figure 6.11 above, it can be seen that a large proportion (73.6%) do not have a telephone in their homes, while 26.4% have a telephone. This might be an indication that they cannot afford the cost of connection and the cost of maintaining the service. The inability to afford the connection and the maintenance cost might be due to the insufficient family income. It should however be emphasized that the emphasis here is on a land-line telephone and not a cell phone since the cell phone would only be with the member of the household that has the cell phone.

6.2.1.9 Affordability

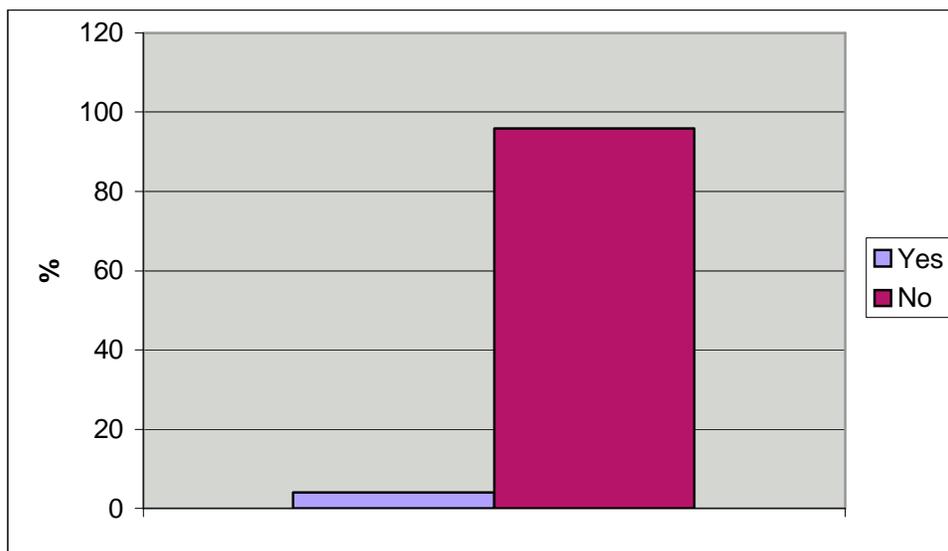


Figure 6.12 Ability to Pay for The Services

From the figure 6.12 above, a large proportion (96%) indicates that they cannot afford to pay for these services (electricity, water and telephone) but the majority of them do have electricity and water in their homes, which might be an indication that they are clamouring for a reduction in the price of this service. Some indicated that though the services are subsidized they couldn't afford the prices of the services. Only a small proportion (4%) claim they can afford to pay without much financial stress. The implication might be that the government has to reduce the levy paid for these services by the residents. It is however essential to indicate that very few respondents indicated that they have been disconnected from such services because they are unable to pay for the services. Relating this to the issue discussed in 6.2.1,7 above, it is obvious that the free grants received from government is spent on other household necessity like feeding and as such the people do not have enough to pay for the services rendered by the government.

6.2.2. Development intervention

Following the developmental agenda to provide the citizens access to good conditions of living which comes with access to water, electricity, good housing, telephones for telecommunication purpose, good transport system, access to a good health care system, sanitation and access to well paid job, the South African government has sought to play a key role in terms of being a service provider through programmes like the IDPs, in order to alleviate poverty. Such programmes could serve as mechanisms that will bring about a people-centered society, and in this sense this would portray the government's commitment to better living conditions for its citizens. Progress could be measured by the extent to which it has succeeded in securing social development, prosperity, liberty and happiness in the lives of the people and by meeting their basic needs and building infrastructure (Marais, 1998).

Table 6.2 Knowledge of the IDP

	Yes	No
Number	01	124

From the above (Table 6.2), it is clearly evident that the people know very little about the government programmes because only one (1) respondent knew what the IDP is about. All the other one hundred and twenty four (124) respondents however do not know what the IDP is about. From the survey and as indicated in the results below, people are aware of the nature and existence of government interventions, however they are simply not familiar with the concept of the IDP and how it relates to the government interventions,

6.2.2.1 Municipal Intervention

Figure 6.13 (below) shows that 77.6% of the respondents indicated that there are some municipal projects going on in their area. The remaining 22.4% however indicated that there are no such projects going on in their area. It was however noticed that there is at least one project going on in the areas under survey, so the 22.4% response might be due to the fact that they have not benefited from the development and as such claim to be unaware of such projects.

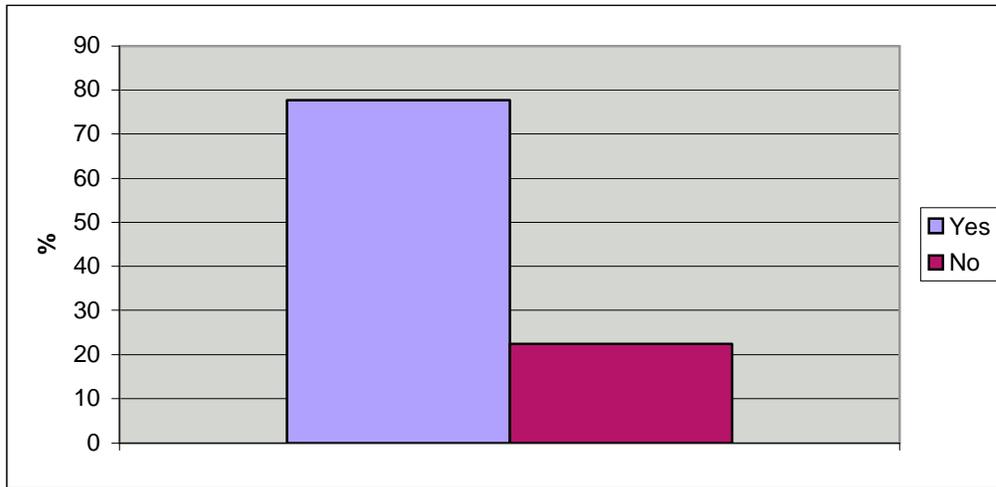


Figure 6.13 Awareness of Municipal Infrastructural Project Interventions

6.2.2.2 Participation and Involvement in Project Implementation

Steifel and Wolfe (1994) assert that one of the key features of present developmental local government is the recognition of the linkages between development, service delivery and citizen participation. They however defined participation as the organized effort to increase sound control over resources and regulative institutions by groups and movements, especially of those traditionally excluded from such control.

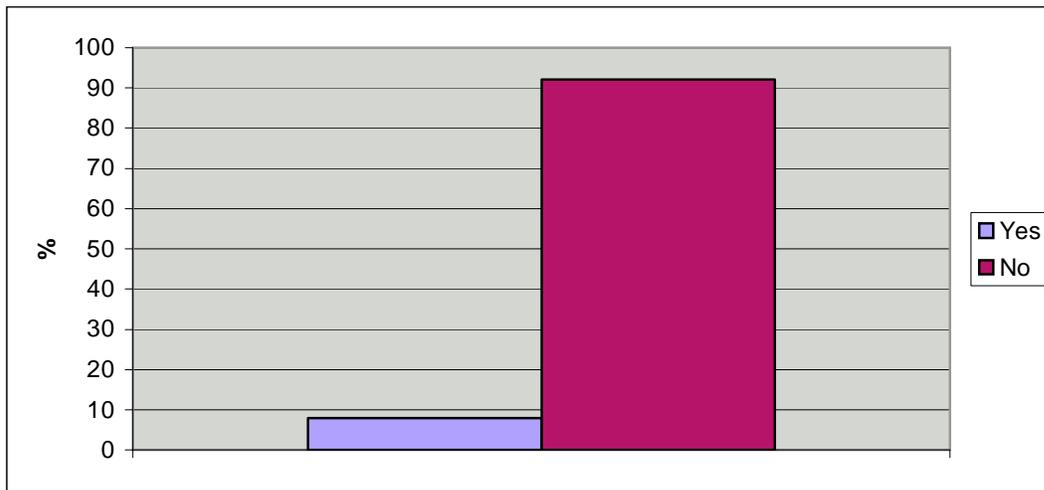


Figure 6.14 Involvement and Participation in Project Implementation

The South Africa Local Government White Paper urges municipalities to develop strategies and mechanisms (including, but not limited to participative planning) to continuously engage with citizens, business and community groups (RSA, 1998). From Figure 6.14 above, it is evident that the majority (92%) of the respondents and their relatives do not partake in the implementation of these projects while only a small proportion (8%) indicated that some of their relatives were involved in the projects. It should however be pointed out that none of the respondents interviewed were personally involved in the project. They indicated that the people involved are involved in manual labour while a few of them serve as contractors, sub-contractors and consultants in some of the IDP projects. According to the Municipal System Acts (2000), a Municipality must establish appropriate mechanisms, processes and procedures to enable local communities to participate in the affairs of the municipality, thereby contributing to the building of the capacity of the local community. Service delivery also brings substantial benefits through job creation, both during construction and on-going operations (RSA, White Paper, 1998). Participation in this context involves political consultation, engagement, taking part in the construction as manual labors or being offered the contracts to construct. Motloun & Mears (2002) asserts that the construction sector can help to combat poverty provided that it is programmed to be more labour intensive and that the poor, unemployed and local contractors are given preference.

6.2.2.3 Satisfaction Derived from the Project Including Materials Used`

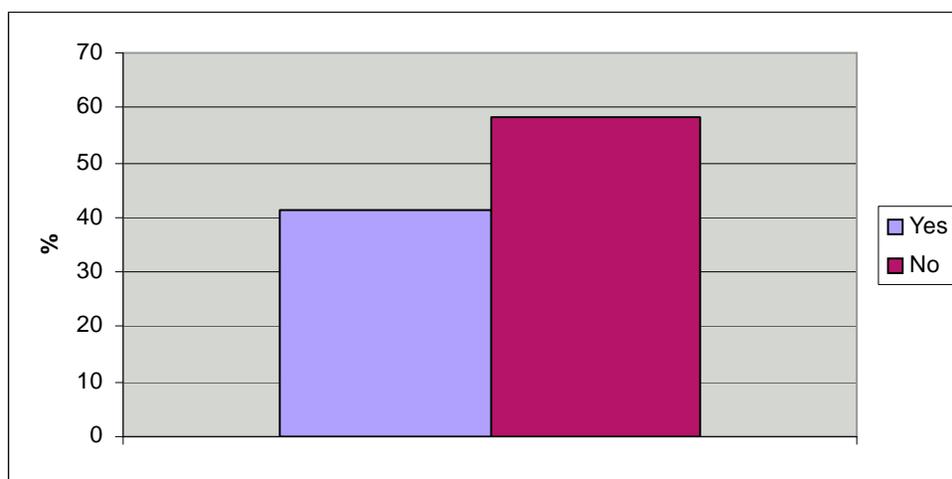


Figure 6.15 Satisfaction With Project Purpose (Including Materials Used)

From the Figure 6.15 above the yes responses indicated that the respondents are happy with the way the projects are been executed, while the no responses indicated that they are not happy with the development. It is evident that the majority of people are not happy with the way projects are been constructed and delivered by the municipality. Of the ninety-seven (77.6%) of the respondents that indicated that there is one form of project or the other going on in their area, 58.2% are not satisfied with the way things were going in terms of the execution of the projects. Only a small proportion (41.2%) of the 77.6% is satisfied with the purpose of the projects.

6.2.2.4 Sustainability through Participation in Project Implementation

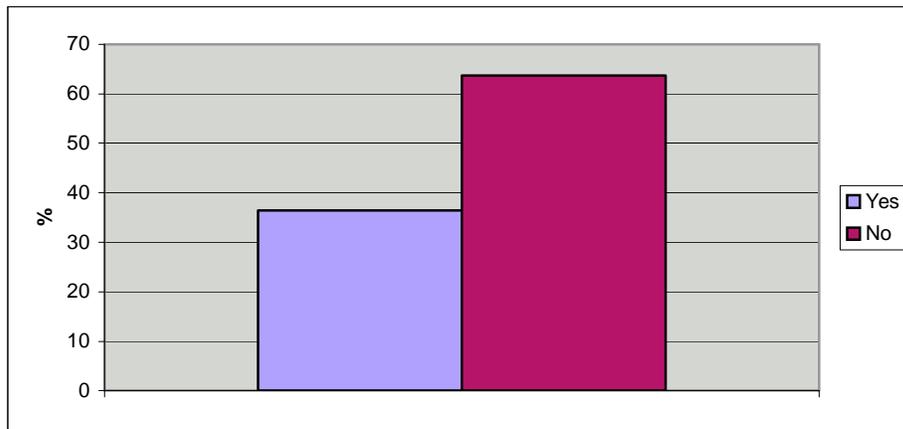


Figure 6.16 Sustainability through Participation in Project Implementation

Participation in this regard refers to the involvement of the local people in the implementation of the IDP projects, while sustainability in this sense was used to ascertain whether what the respondents and their families receive as wages and salaries from their involvement is enough for their upkeep and to make ends meet. From the Figure 6.16 above, it is apparent that despite the low number of people involved in the implementation of the projects as indicated in Figure 6.15, a large proportion (63.6%) of the eleven (8%) respondents that claimed that a member of their family is involved in one form or the other in the implementation of the projects supports this claim that the projects do not bring sustainability to the family. A small proportion (36.4%) is of the

view that their participation in the implementation of the projects brings sustainability to them.

6.2.2.5 Assessment of the Impact of the IDP Projects / Services

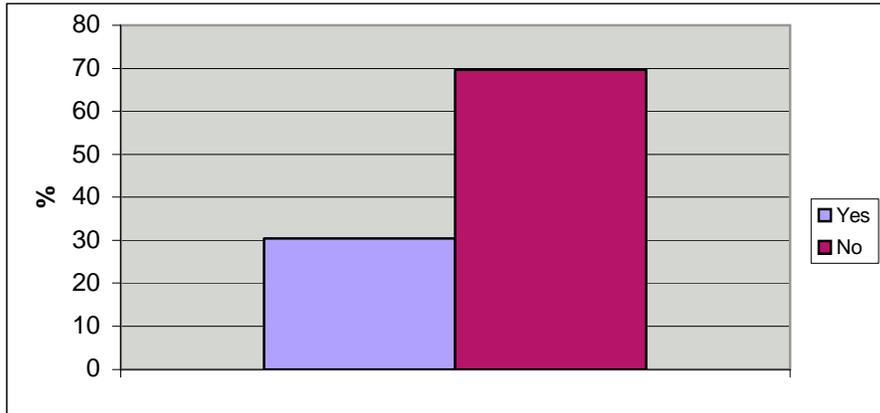


Figure 6.17 Impact of IDP

Looking at the Figure 6.17 above, a large proportion (69.8%) are of the view that the IDP does not affect their lives in any positive way because they have not benefited from the projects while a small proportion (30.2%) believes that the IDP has not improved their poor condition. There is a strong indication that the people are referring to government interventions in general through the municipality as the majority of them indicated that they do not know what the IDP is in Table 6.2.

6.2.2.6 Projects Construction

The infrastructure provided here includes houses, toilets, mainlines (for water supply and toilets), storm water drainage, traffic signage as well as street lighting. It is evident from the (Figure 6.20) above that a large proportion (74.4%) of the respondents are not happy about the quality of the construction of the new infrastructure. Only a small proportion (25.6%) is happy about how the infrastructure has been built. The majority of the respondents were of the opinion that substandard materials were being used in the construction

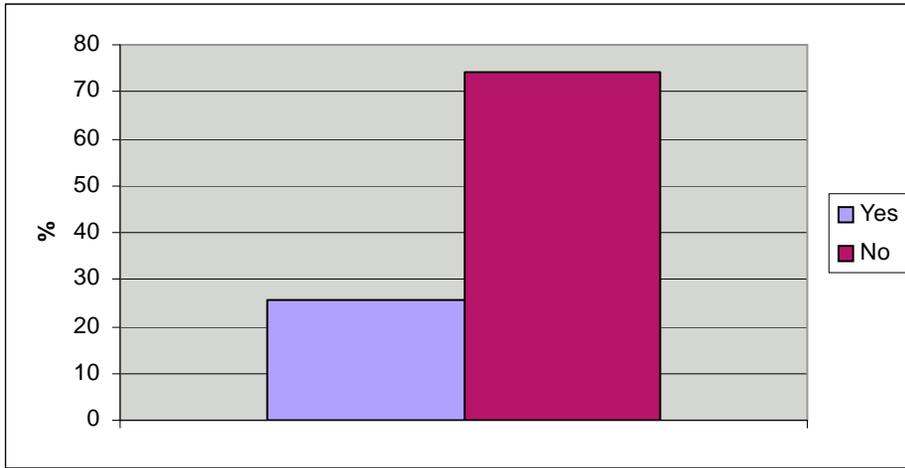


Figure 6.18 Satisfaction with Project Construction

6.2.2.7 Project Maintenance

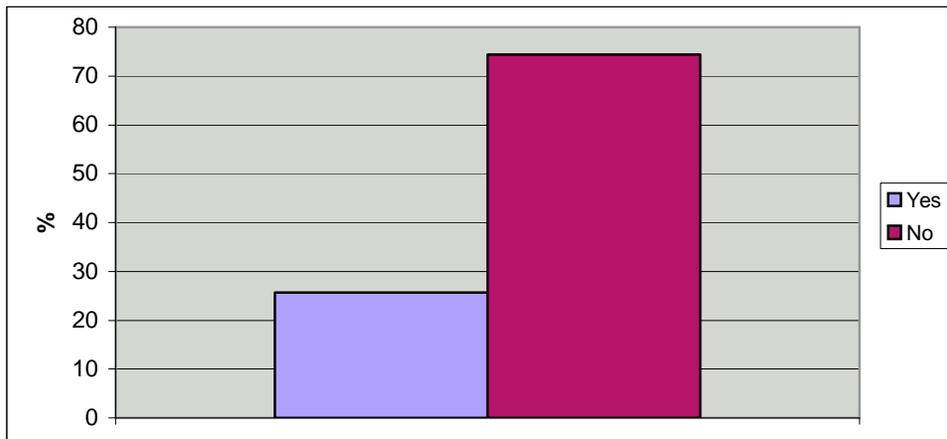


Figure 6.19 Satisfaction with the Maintenance of Completed Projects

Responses to maintenance in this regard are divided in to two opinions. The infrastructure that was built for dwelling purposes is maintained by the occupants of the infrastructure while the public infrastructure, such as roads, street lighting are being maintained by the municipality. It is evident from the Figure 6.19 above that the municipality has to look into the maintenance of the new infrastructure. A large proportion (75.2%) of the

respondents believed that the infrastructure is poorly maintained while a small proportion (24.8%) of the respondents believed that the infrastructure was well maintained. This stems from the fact that the dwellers claim not to have the means to maintain the infrastructure they are occupying and that the public infrastructure that should be maintained by the municipality is not well maintained.

6.2.2.8 Development Backlogs That Have Not Been Addressed

It is evident from the above Figure that there are still many development backlogs which the municipality has to look into. This stems from the view of the majority (86.4%) of the respondents, while a small proportion (13.6%) believes that the municipality has done well to address the development backlogs in the areas covered.

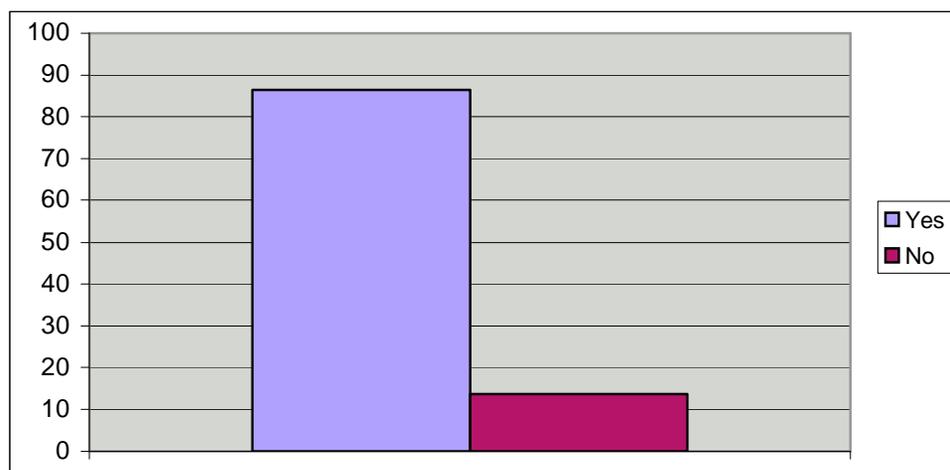


Figure 6.20 Development Backlogs in Your Area That have not Been Met by the IDP

6.2.3 Conclusion

In this chapter, the key findings from the perspective of the questionnaire respondents have been presented and the poverty and socio-economic profile of the poor in Grahamstown have been illustrated. The socio-economic characteristics of respondents sheds light on issues such as the gender, family size, employment status, educational status and income, while poverty characteristics such as unemployment, low income, lack of education, limited access to infrastructure as well as living in substandard houses sheds light on the type of house they live in, their limited access to basic infrastructure, low

level of affordability as well as what they know (information) about projects and development issues going on in their area. This describes the nature of poverty described by May (1998) and UNESCAP (2000). The findings show that though most of the respondents were men (54.4%) it does not necessarily mean that men are the heads of the households interviewed, (the determination of the household heads was not included in the study). The highest educational attainment of the respondents shows that 74.4% did not go beyond the grade 7 to 12, which in turn reflects on their limited employment status, as 56 % are unemployed and 24% are pensioners. The employment status determines the income each family gets and the majority of the household earns less than 1000 rands monthly. There are a large number that have access to the core services such as water (96.8%) and electricity (84.8%) though the majority (96%) complained about affordability and crave for further reductions in the prices charged for these services. It is however pertinent to state that access to services such as water and electricity tends to increase the level of productivity and psychological well being of the people.

The latter part of the findings investigated how the people (citizens) have benefited from the development interventions. With regards to this, 51.2% acknowledge that there are one or more IDP projects in the area, whether complete or still on-going, despite the fact that a large majority (99.2%) alleged that they do not know what the IDP is. However most of the respondents (or their family members) involved in the implementation as manual labourers complained that the wages are too small to make ends meet. I.e. they were not “politically” involved but were only involved as labourers and artisans. The beneficiaries’ perception is that the IDP projects do not affect their lives positively and does not bring about sustainability in situations where they are involved in the implementation. They also revealed that there are still lots of development backlogs to be addressed, such as the construction of more houses, tarring of roads, supply of more drugs/medicines in hospitals, provision of more emergency services and adequate security.

Scott (2002) states that the extension of basic services and rights to all South Africans, using the same resources that had previously serviced a privileged minority, requires

highly efficient use of resources and a major restructuring of the system of delivery. However, Motloung and Mears (2002) reiterate that enabling poor households to gain access to productive assets and employment opportunities and to receive adequate payment can be achieved by increasing the productivity and the assets of poor household through providing access to capital, education and skills, as well as through adequate provision of access to a range of basic services and other types of infrastructure. If this was fully implemented, it would go a long way in alleviating poverty in Grahamstown.

CHAPTER SEVEN

7.0 Discussion of Findings

7.1 Introduction

This chapter presents an interpretation of the findings, which were presented, in chapters four and five. These findings are analyzed and related back to the aims of the study, one of which was to obtain data from a sample of township dwellers in Grahamstown with regards to their socio-economic profiles and poverty levels. The study also sought to identify the socio-economic service backlogs in the survey areas, the views of local residents with regards to the delivery of projects in terms of the IDP and their participation in this process. The chapter also integrates the findings from the interviews undertaken with the municipal officials involved in the IDP process. It will discuss the municipal plans of eradicating poverty in accordance with the IDP, current and future development plans, what has been undertaken to date, problems encountered and the involvement of local people in the process. A range of concepts can be used to interpret the findings through taking into account the socio-economic characteristics and the economic situation of the area as well as the information revealed by the municipal personnel.

7.2 Analysis of Poverty Levels and Socio-Economic Characteristics

The socio-economic characteristics that were investigated focused on issues that would indicate the poverty level of the people in Grahamstown. According to Scott (2002), an investigation of this kind should include an assessment of basic needs, income, participation, sustainable livelihoods, as well as human development. These variables would, to a large extent, explain the nature of poverty irrespective of the alleviation methods put in place by the concerned government at the local or national level. However, as put forward by Sen (1981) the understanding of poverty should be from the perspective of the poor, notwithstanding that there may be aspects of poverty that are missed from this perspective.

7.2.1 Household Structure

The emerging fact is that most respondents (60%) come from a family of between four to six members. A fairly small number of respondents (3.2%) have a minimum number of ten people in their family. 20% of the respondents have between one and three persons in their family. The remaining 6.8% of the respondents come from families with sizes varying from seven to nine members. This larger family size might be a result of dependants living with the household heads. This is significant because, according to Motloung & Mears (2002) the size of South African households also contributes to the extent and magnitude of poverty, because of the high dependency ratio within poor households.

7.2.2 Access to Good Living Conditions

Ngwane *et al* (2002) argue that the most basic needs, which include access to a formal dwelling or housing structure, access to safe water, access to sanitation facilities, access to refuse removal and access to electricity will impact on people's quality of life and can be a threat to people's lives if they are deprived access to these basic services. It is clear from the study that improved access to these facilities might go a long way to improving the people's well-being and make them less vulnerable to poverty. However, from the findings, it is apparent that these services are being provided by the municipality at a rate that is slower than what the people expect.

6.2.3 Housing provision

In terms of people living in formal housing, 36.8% of the respondents live in houses, which were provided by the previous government's Reconstruction and Development Programme or through grants given to assist them in building their houses. 32% of the respondents reside in post-2002 RDP/IDP houses. These newly constructed houses were built under the ANC government through IDP programmes, but some people incorrectly refer to them as RPD housing in the survey. These housing provisions tally with what was stated by Harrison (2001) that the IDP is an instrument to bring local authorities in

line with the positions and requirements of the RDP. From the general comments made, most of the respondents commented that cheap materials were used for the housing projects and that houses were not cemented and painted and they leak whenever it rains. Some complained that facilities in the houses, like kitchen sinks and the toilets were half finished. Some of the respondents referred to the IDP/RDP houses as 'show houses' which look good from the outside but with a poorly finished inside. While housing provision can go some measure to dealing with certain aspects of poverty, provision of sub-standard facilities clearly is a barrier.

About 24.8% of the respondents live in shacks, which might be an indication that they are still living in poverty and that they are still waiting for their 'miracle' in terms of housing. From the above statements, there seems to be a correlation between the municipality's IDP housing personnel and the respondents' views in terms of housing delivery in terms of the reality of actual delivery. The question that may be asked however has to do with the standard of houses provided, because some respondents claimed to have benefited from the housing delivery but complained about the standard of the houses. In view of this they suggested that the municipality's IDP housing personnel must revisit the issue of the standard of housing provided because it cost them money to repair and put them in proper order.

7.2.4 Basic amenities

Basic amenities ordinarily include water, electricity, waterborne sewerage, and access to health care facilities, communication, transport, emergency services, security and recreation and such considerations clearly have a role to play in addressing poverty. As suggested by Budlender (1999) the conception of wealth or poverty involves the level of access to the means of satisfying basic needs. The ILO (1995) endorses such an approach when it asserts that the poverty status of the poor can be improved by providing adequate access to a range of basic services and infrastructure. Although the municipality provides most of these services either freely or at a minimal cost, some respondents still claim not to have benefited from this provision. Almost all the respondents (96.8%) have access to

water, which according to Ngwane *et al* (2002) is a commodity that a person or household cannot do without, suggesting that at least this basic need has been met by the IDP. Some 84.8% of the respondents have access to electricity, indicating that the remaining 15.2% are still using other sources of basic energy and are lacking what May (1998) termed a 'safe and efficient source of energy'. Some 85.6% are satisfied with the transport situation, though some complained that they are usually dropped at places far from their destination because the roads that lead to their final destinations are too bad for taxis to travel on. About 50.4% have health care centres within their neighbourhoods while others worried about the fact that they have to walk some distance to get to the health centres. Some respondents also voiced concerns that, in some cases, these health centres run out of drugs. Only 32.5% state that they have access to emergency services while 26.4% have access to good communications (i.e. telephones), which in turn affects their access to emergency services like ambulances and police services. Most (83%) also complained about public properties being vandalized as well as increases in crime, thus they need more police patrol teams. With regards to recreational services in their neighbourhoods 40% of the respondents claimed not to have access while others are not satisfied with the services they have.

7.3 General Living Conditions

General living conditions are in many cases determined by individual educational attainment, employment status and family income of the household. These indicators go a long way to ascertaining if a family is living in poverty or not because, without a good income, the sustainability of such families can be in jeopardy. The ILO (1995) asserts that increasing the productivity of labour and the assets of the poor through access to education and skills can clear help to alleviate poverty.

7.3.1 Educational Attainment

Levin (1994) states that the lack of education and the lack of exposure to the labour markets on the part of the poor has contributed to the increase of poverty in South Africa. The educational qualifications of the majority (74.4%) of the respondents are between grade 7 and 12, which affects their chances of getting formal jobs. The World Bank

(1990) argues that educating the children of the poor can greatly improve or increase their chances of escaping poverty. Levin (1994) shares the same view that youth training schemes can also make a meaningful contribution to combating poverty, provided that employment opportunities are available or that entrepreneurial skills are further developed. Some 6.4% of respondents are still in school and the chances of them attaining the higher levels in education depend on other factors such as family income and the will to further their studies, while another 6.4% has never been to school. The implication is that for this group with little or no education, they are unlikely to be able to partake in any benefits that might accrue to people with a good education. While education is not a defined part of the IDP, in this context, educational attainment or the lack of it, in conjunction with other factors exacerbates or abates the poverty problem and hence relates to the ability of individuals to make optimal use of available opportunities.

7.3.2 Employment Status

Motloun & Mears (2002) argue that poverty can be reduced by the provision of suitable employment, which will determine the extent to which unemployment is a major cause of poverty. Omiya (2000) believes that the poor are further disadvantaged because they are either subject to open unemployment or only have access to occasional or irregular employment in the informal sector. Motloun (2002) asserts that unemployment will decrease their income and thus increase their poverty. This is the case in Grahamstown as revealed in this study. While 39.2% of respondents are unemployed, 16.8% are job seekers and a further 20% are pensioners. In other words, only 24% are employed. This large proportion of unemployed respondents would have to depend upon other avenues like social welfare grants and possibly even crime for income. According to Slabbert (1997) and Motloun & Mears (2002) employment of the poor is concentrated mainly in the wholesale, retail and catering sectors, where relatively low wages are earned. It was confirmed during the survey that many people in Grahamstown are employed in these sectors with very low wages. Many work as shop attendants as well as waiters and porters in restaurants and hotels. One of the objectives of Makana Municipality's IDP is to provide jobs through participation in the labour intensive projects. As a result, 8.8% of

respondents are involved. However, 64% of the 8.8% are of the view that payments received during participation are too small to make a difference. Despite this view, the IDP is, to some degree creating employment, which can help address poverty. However, as the ILO (1995) notes, if poverty is to be alleviated, adequate income is needed to properly address poverty.

7.3.3 Monthly income

Income in most cases determines one's standard of living and this is determined by employment opportunities. Motlounge & Mears (2002) concur when they said that the general standard of living of the poor could be improved if employment that would generate income for the poor is created. In essence, sustainable income can only be achieved with employment. In this research 34.4% of respondents receive a total family income of between 0 and 499 Rands monthly while an additional 37.6% receives a monthly income between 500 and 999 Rands monthly, while the highest paid respondents receive between (9.6%) 2000-2999 rands, (5.6%) 3000 – 3999 rands, (0.8%) 4000-4999 rands and a small group (1.6%) receive 5000 rands and above.

The view of Motlounge & Mears (2002) that the level of poverty is partially a result of low wages that the poor earn in the informal economic sectors was confirmed in this study, the nature of employment of the poor discussed in (7.3.2) above partly explains their low income. As revealed in section 6.3.2, (39%) of the respondents are unemployed, however it is pertinent to state that some of them receive income in the form of social grants and pensions from the government as stated by some of the beneficiaries. Such grants include child support and disability grants as well as old age and war veteran pensions. The effect of these grants is seen as going a long way, because some families depend solely on these grants as their sole source of income in meeting some of their basic needs. On the whole, it is apparent that secure family income would, to a large extent, reduce the burden of poverty on families as was described by Adelzadeh *et al* (1995) that a secure wage has a direct impact on household welfare. Households that do not have access to wages in a direct or indirect form are the most vulnerable to poverty. It

should, however, be mentioned that these social grants are not included in the objectives of the municipal IDP, but rather are administered by the Department of Social Development and targeted to improve the living condition of the poor children, aged and the disabled which suggests that the IDP is not as integrated as it should be.

7.3.4 Improved Living Conditions Through Participation

Mogale (2005) argues that providing services to communities where large sections of those communities are afflicted by high levels of unemployment and poverty, historical backlogs in infrastructure services and the uneven spread of economic resources is difficult at the best of times. It is apparent that, despite the huge resources dedicated to providing services, 99.2% of the respondents do not know what the IDP is. This might be a result of not attending meetings or not getting proper feedback from the councillors in their wards. In general, it was observed that many of the people are not well informed about the government programmes. 51% of the respondents acknowledged that they were aware of the on-going infrastructural development projects in their areas (though not necessarily linking them with the term IDP) while 48.8 % had no knowledge of projects going on in their area. This might result from the fact that they have not benefited from the project or are dissatisfied with the projects. Of the respondents, 33.6% are 'happy' with the projects, although some expressed the view that they spend their personal money to fix and repair some parts of the projects and make the projects worthwhile for them (especially housing).

A fair proportion (36.4%) of the respondents claim that they have achieved improved quality of life in the economic, social and infrastructural sense since benefiting from the IDP projects while the remaining 66.4% are of the opinion that the projects are not serving their intended purposes because the projects delivered to them are incomplete and, in some cases, are of an inferior quality due to the use of inferior materials. Some 71% of respondents attributed their dissatisfaction to corruption, greed, selfishness, abuse of power, downgrading of the poor and dishonesty on part of the politicians because they

promised their supporters good lives during voting campaigns only to get to office and do otherwise. This is exacerbated by the slow delivery of services.

In terms of involvement in the projects only 8% of the respondents answered that they (or any member of their family) have been involved in the projects and out of this figure 3.2% indicated that their participation has brought sustainability, while the remaining 96.8% claimed that what they were being paid was too small to make ends meet and, as a result, they had to quit. A key concern raised here is that the sustainability enjoyed during the duration of the project might end when the project is completed. Basically, some 69.6% commented that the IDP does not have a positive impact on their lives while a lesser 30.4% commended the IDP as it affects their lives positively. The figure of 8% of those involved in the projects indicates that many of the respondents or members of their families are not involved in the development process. This low level of participation supports the view of the United Nations WSSD (1995), which claim that the poor are characterized by a lack of participation in decision-making and in civil and social life which also affect their standard of living. This is in concomitance to Sen (1991) view that poverty develops from a failure of not being able to take a full part in human development when participation is determined as a lack of choice or capability rather than simply material living standards.

Omiya (2002) describes civic participation as the active involvement of people at the grassroots level in the choice, execution and evaluation of projects designed to improve their livelihood. It is also regarded as the cornerstone of good governance and a good means of enhancing community development (Omiya, 2002). On this note, it should be stated that many of respondents (74.4%) are of the opinion that most of the infrastructure put in place by the municipality was not properly built, while (75.2%) said that the infrastructure is not properly maintained. This might be an indication that the people are not consulted before such structures are put in place and the respondents complained that they do not derive the benefit, which they expected, from the people they voted for and as a result lose confidence in the municipality.

Of the respondents (86.4%) indicated that there are still development backlogs that need to be addressed in Grahamstown. This includes the provision of good housing for all people irrespective of whom they know in government, provision of employment that can generate adequate incomes, hastening of the delivery of sanitation projects, supplying clinics with drugs regularly, tarring of roads so that everyone can have easy access to the taxis, and the construction of a public hall. However while providing these infrastructures. Motlounge & Mears (2002) asserts that the construction sector can help to combat poverty provided that it is encouraged to be more labour intensive and the poor, unemployed and local contractors are given preference, a statement which supports the objectives of the IDP.

Given the views of the respondents in relation to the IDP, it is now pertinent in the context of this research to analyse the view from the municipal personnel's perspective with the aim of correlating both views.

7.4 Municipal Plans of Eradicating Poverty in Accordance with The IDP

According to the Makana Municipality (2004) the purpose of the Integrated Development Plan is to ensure the effective allocation of the resources available to the municipality to those projects and programmes that will address specific development priorities. In adherence to this, the municipality has embarked on a number of projects that seek to address poverty and ensure sustainability in some cases. Such projects include the provision of portable water, sanitation, housing, electricity, health care, emergency services, land redistribution, sports and recreation, Local Economic Development, transport and education.

The White Paper on Local Government 1998 emphasizes that all citizens in the local government area should have access to at least the minimum level of services. There is a hierarchy of services, which can be prioritised by local authorities based on the demand of customers but with consideration of the broader public good (RSA, 1998). Makana Municipality has prioritised potable water supply and sanitation which have to be provided before any other service can be supplied. This will help the municipality to

move progressively towards the social and economic upliftment of communities and the provision of affordable basic services to the people, specifically the poor and the disadvantaged within the municipality (Tshungu, 2004 pers. comm.).

According to the South Africa Local Government White Paper (RSA, 1998) this can be done through the setting of tariffs, which balance the economic viability of continued service provision and which also determines the appropriate levels of services. Some of the services are provided at no cost or minimal cost while the municipality subsidizes some services in order to keep the user cost low. Though there are some criteria being looked at to determine the prospective beneficiaries, this would help to focus on the poor, as they are the ones that lack the services and infrastructure. As indicated in the result of the municipal personnel's interviews, it is clear that the municipality has set machinery in motion in order to eradicate poverty as shown in the projects it highlighted under the development priorities.

7.5 Current and Future Development Plans According to the Makana IDP

Bird, *et al* (1995) state that the local authorities have an important role to play in the proper targeting of services and programmes that will reduce and alleviate poverty. The local government, in meeting the basic needs of the people and reducing poverty has to ensure that their service provision priorities are in line with the national framework of meeting basic needs which include health care, basic education, housing, social security, electricity, water and sanitation (Mokate, 2001; Burton, 1997; RSA, 1996). In this vein, there are a range of IDP implementation activities in Makana Municipality, but the main activities, as revealed in the interview, with the municipal personnel have to do with those that directly affect the poor. These are seen in the form of water, sanitation, electricity and housing provision, and it should also be noted that there are some activities in the IDP register that do not directly affect the poor.

7.5.1 Provision of Potable Water

Water as an infrastructural is seen to be well provided for in the study area in the sense that almost all of the yard/houses in Grahamstown are connected to water while there are communal standpipes that supply water for people in squatter camps (Oldo, 2005 pers. comm.).

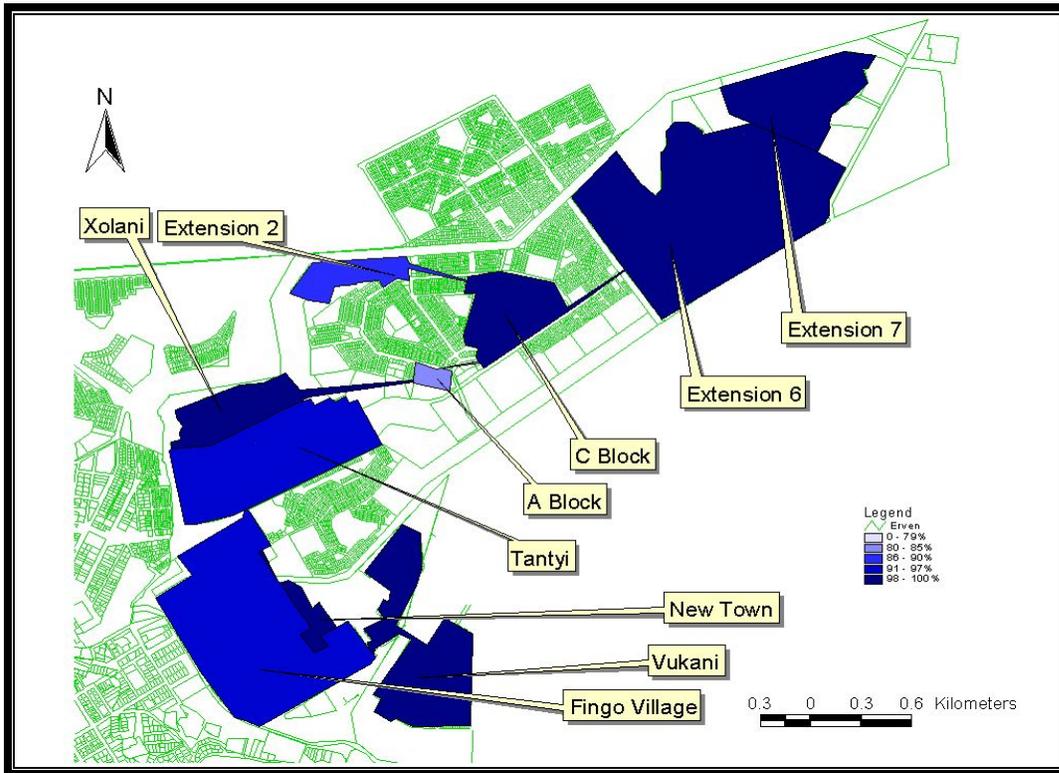


Figure 7.1 Map Showing the Proportion of Respondents that Have Access to Water in the Different Areas Surveyed

This is an indication that the municipality is committed to improving service delivery and the parallel beneficiaries' statement also attested to this, because about 96.8% of them now have access to water. Figure 7.1 above also show that water is accessible in all areas of the survey. However, the level of accessibility varies depending on locations and the type and dwellings.

7.5.2 Provision of Sanitation

As regards sanitation, the municipality is in the process of eradicating the sewage bucket system and to replace it with waterborne system. Several areas have been upgraded from the bucket to the flush system, numerous mainlines are being installed and will be installed so as to allow for connectivity in areas that are not yet connected to the flush system. The municipality has also put forward a proposal to install waterborne sanitation to all informal housing dwellings within Grahamstown and other areas under its jurisdiction (Oldo & Booi, 2005 pers. comm.). The work on the upgrade was noted during this research survey and some of the respondents attested to the fact that they have been provided with the flush toilet system and that trenches are being constructed to connect more homes to the flush system. It was also observed that some of the informal settlements are not included in this current development although plans are “on paper” to link them to waterborne sewage (Oldo & Booi, 2005 pers. comm.).

7.5.3 Provision of Housing

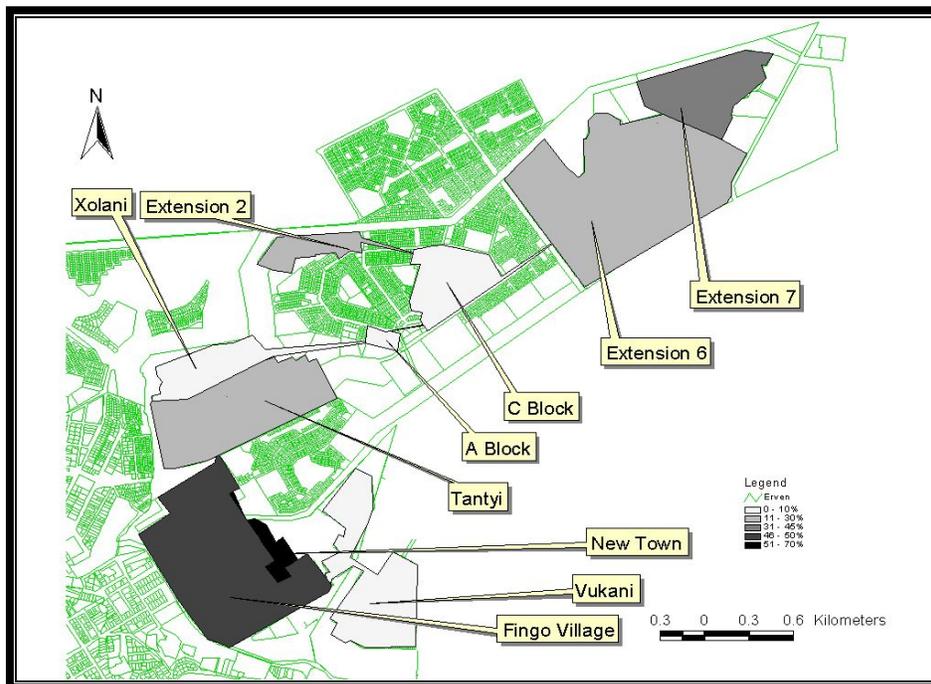


Figure 7.2 Map Showing the Proportion of Respondents that Live in Shacks (informal houses) in the Different Areas Surveyed

The municipality has demonstrated a strong commitment to housing provision as is reflected in the number of houses built under the IDP (Nxamileko, 2005, pers. comm.). This housing provision is hoped to reduce overcrowding in homes as well as providing a formal houses for all people without homes. Many of the houses have been completed, some are still under construction, some applications have been rejected and some are pending the release of funds to commence the housing projects. This is an on going undertaking and more people will still benefit from the housing programme, which will hopefully take care of those people who have applied for houses but do not yet know whether their application will be successful or not (Nxamileko, 2005, pers. comm.). Many of the respondents who live in those houses complained about the quality and size of the houses.

One of the concerns raised by this research as regards housing is the size of dwellings, which can lead to overcrowding amongst their dwellers, because it was revealed that the family size of most of the respondents is between 4 and 6. This situation of overcrowding is a typical problem of the poor, as put forward by May (1998), namely that the poor live in overcrowded homes that are in need of maintenance. Despite the municipality's commitment to making housing provision a reality for all, there are still some respondents living in informal housing as revealed in Figure 7.2 above, which indicates the persistence of the backlog and poverty in these terms.

7.5.4 Provision of Electricity

As revealed by Van Der Watt (2005, pers. comm.), electricity is another infrastructural provision that is well distributed across Grahamstown, as indicated in the IDP. The electricity department is ensuring that all previously disadvantaged communities get first priority in the provision of electricity. The reason for this is to ensure equal access to electricity. It was noticed that some areas still do not have access to electricity despite the fact that a significant 84.8% of the respondents claimed to have access to the infrastructure. It was noticed during this research survey that most of the areas that do not have electricity connections are the new developed areas where construction work is still

on going and plans are in place to get them connected to electricity (Van Der Watt, 2005, pers. comm.).

Some of those areas that fall outside the formalized areas were seen during this research survey to be without electricity negating the statement made by the van der Watt of the Electricity Department that ‘all locations’ within the town have access to electricity. Figure 7.3 also reveals that 100% access to electricity has not been achieved in the area surveyed.

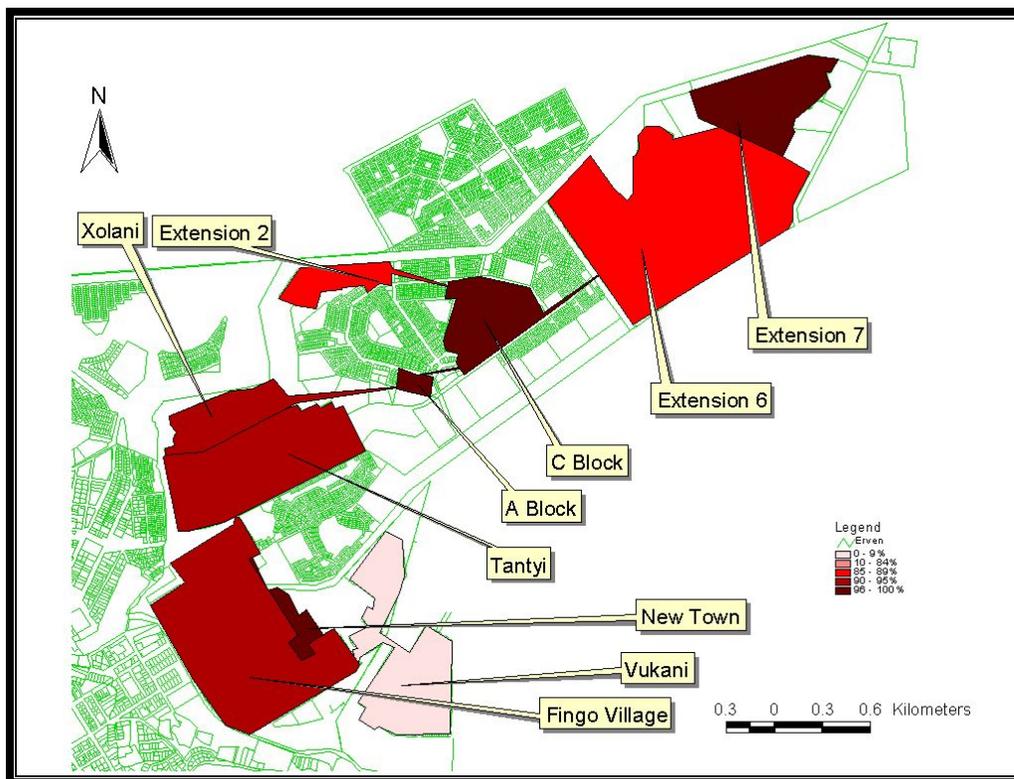


Figure 7.3 Map Showing the Proportion of Respondents that have Electricity in their Homes in the Different Areas Surveyed

While still trying to service areas outside the formalised areas, so as to provide for electricity connections, the electricity department is also busy with the upgrading of street lighting in some parts of the Grahamstown East area (van der Watt, 2005, pers. comm.). Clearly improved service provision in terms of water and electricity can go some measure to addressing the broader context of poverty.

7.5.5 Provision of Emergency Services

The Emergency Services department at the moment is in a situation in which its capacity is limited by poor resources and manpower relative to the large area it serves (Julius, 2005 pers. comm.). This lack of capacity was made evident in November 2005 when a fire outbreak occurred on the Rhodes University campus and some Rhodes staff members were seen fighting the fire (Rampheka, 2005 pers. comm.). The department has conducted a risk analysis according to its IDP objectives in order to identify and analyse all risk areas so as to put in place necessary structures like storm water drainage and the construction of corrugated iron structures to prevent flooding in areas that are prone to flooding. The respondents complained about delays whenever there is an emergency in response and the Figure 7.4 below attests to the poor perceptions which prevail.

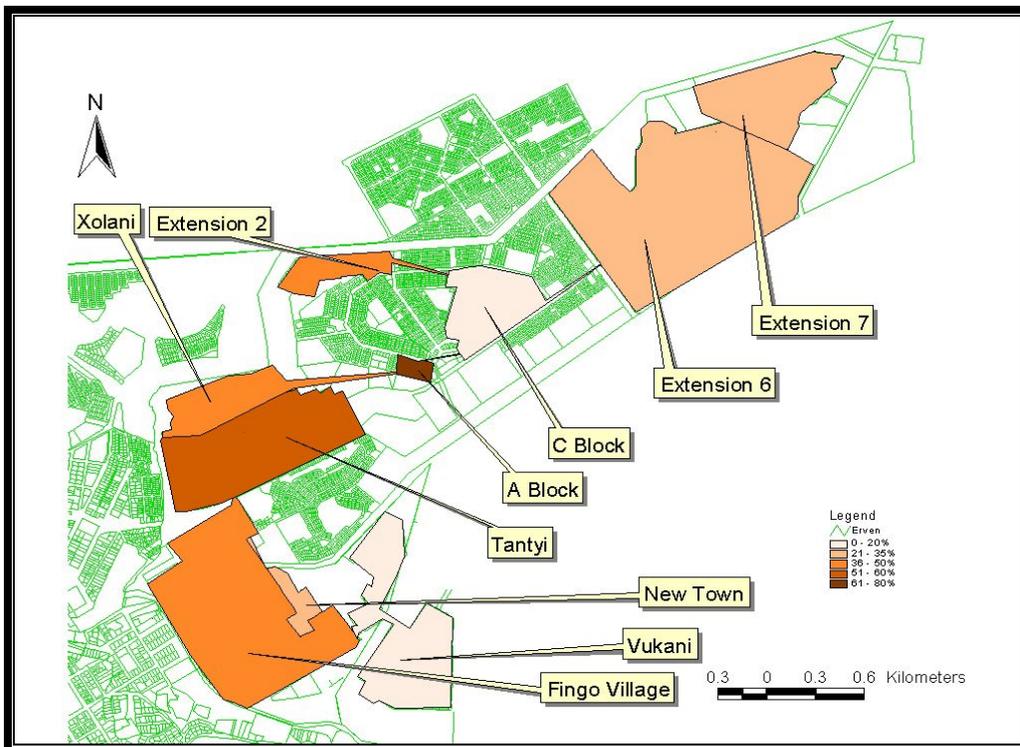


Figure 7.4 Map Showing the Proportion of Respondents who Perceive that they have Access to Emergency Services in the Different Areas Surveyed

In order to improve and ensure efficiency in its services, the Emergency Department have made an inventory of all staff and equipment and it also plans to build a fire station in the Grahamstown East. It also has plans to involve people as stakeholders in the implementation of its services as stated in its IDP objective (Julius, 2005 pers. comm.).

While emergency services do not impact directly on poverty, poor service provision, such as access to such services, exacerbates the broad context of deprivation and hence poverty.

7.5.6 Land Redistribution

Land Redistribution is an activity that the municipality is very pro-active about though the municipality does not have access to much land (Humin, 2005 pers. comm.). The main IDP focus of the land management department is the furtherance of black ownership and empowerment. This is so because the constitution (RSA, 1996) has enshrined everyone's right to political and economic power through land ownership. This statement is in line with the view of Townsend (1993) that if some members of the society lack or are denied access to obtain resources to fulfill the conditions of life, such members of the society, may be said to be experience what he termed the poverty of deprivation. At the moment, some of the lands have been allocated for private farming purposes, and so far the prospective farmers meet the set criteria by the municipality. Land release has also enabled the housing sector to unlock the housing market and make it accessible for the low income earners, while some portions of lands have been leased out for other businesses, such as brick making and land development for housing construction. There are however plans by the department to team up with the LED department to make the best use of the portion of land that is rich in Kaolin and possibly link it with industrial development the COEGA Industrial Development Zone (IDZ) in Port Elizabeth (Humin, 2005 pers. comm.). In so doing land is being used to address the housing and employment needs of the poor.

7.5.7 Provision of Primary Health Care

Makana Municipality's Department of Health has witnessed progress in the implementation of some of its IDP projects. It has successfully launched HAST which is a programme set up to cater for HIV/AIDS, Sexually Transmitted and Infectious Diseases (STI) and tuberculosis patients. Through the HAST project, the municipality has been able to educate, enlighten, counsel, screen and treat the people at no cost. The department

has also set up other health care programmes in the six clinics within Grahamstown. It is however pertinent to state that despite the fact that department gives other medical care including ante-natal care, post-natal care as well as consultation, observation, treatment and follow up investigation of other ailments and diseases (Titi-Boso, 2005 pers. comm.).

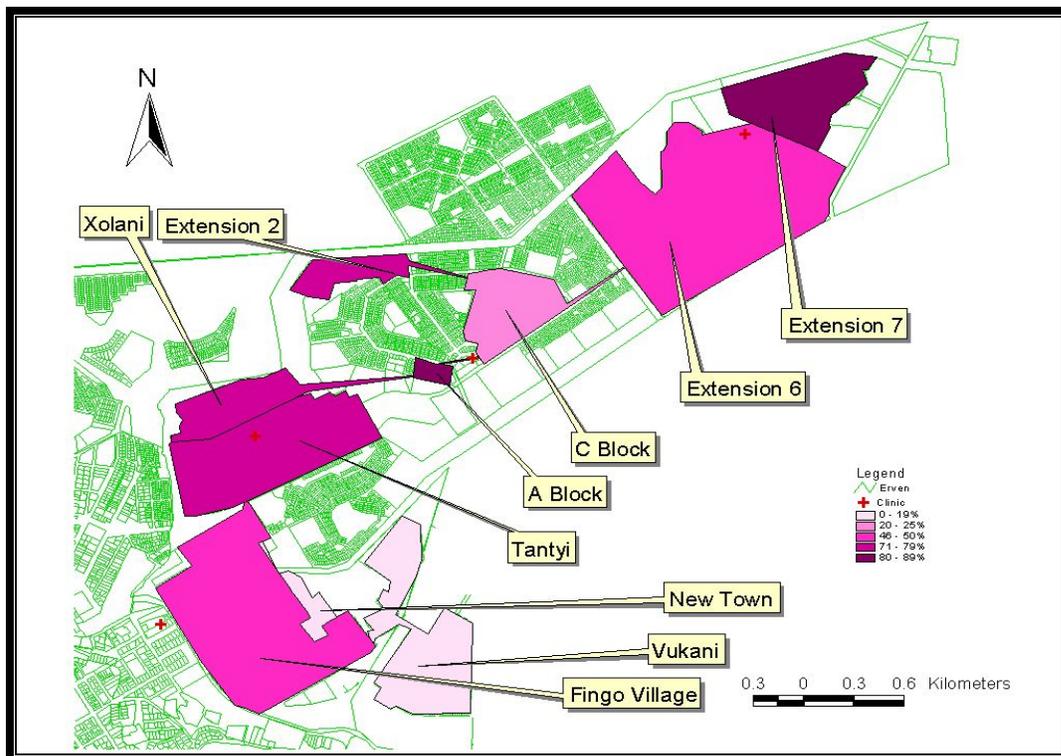


Figure 7.5 Map Showing the Proportion of Respondents that have Access to Health Care Treatment in their Neighbourhood in the Different Areas Surveyed

Some respondents (49.6%) claimed that the health services are poor and inaccessible and conditions are aggravated because there are always long queues at the clinics. They also complained about the distance of the main hospital in Grahamstown. This limited access clearly impacts on the broader poverty context.

However, for the future, the department has planned to upgrade the equipment, upgrade and construct more buildings, as well as to increase its personnel so as to accommodate more people and for improved medical care. It also has plans to organize different programmes that would help put an end to different illnesses and diseases as recognized by the department and based on the people’s perception and aspirations. The department has, to large extent, enjoyed the support of community-based organizations (CBOs) and

non-governmental organizations (NGOs) in addressing some of the vital health and disease problems in Grahamstown (Titi-Boso, 2005, pers. comm.). Efforts are being made to improve health-care which does impact on overall levels of poverty.

7.5.8 Sports and Recreation

The Sports and Recreation department has been involved in a lot of programmes within the municipality in order to make recreation facilities accessible to all people. The department has been able to identify appropriate lands and to construct some sporting and recreational facilities as proposed in the IDP. The plan is still to identify more level land, with the assistance of councillors so that more sporting and recreational facilities can be provided at appropriate locations as indicated in the IDP (Budaza, 2005, pers. comm.).

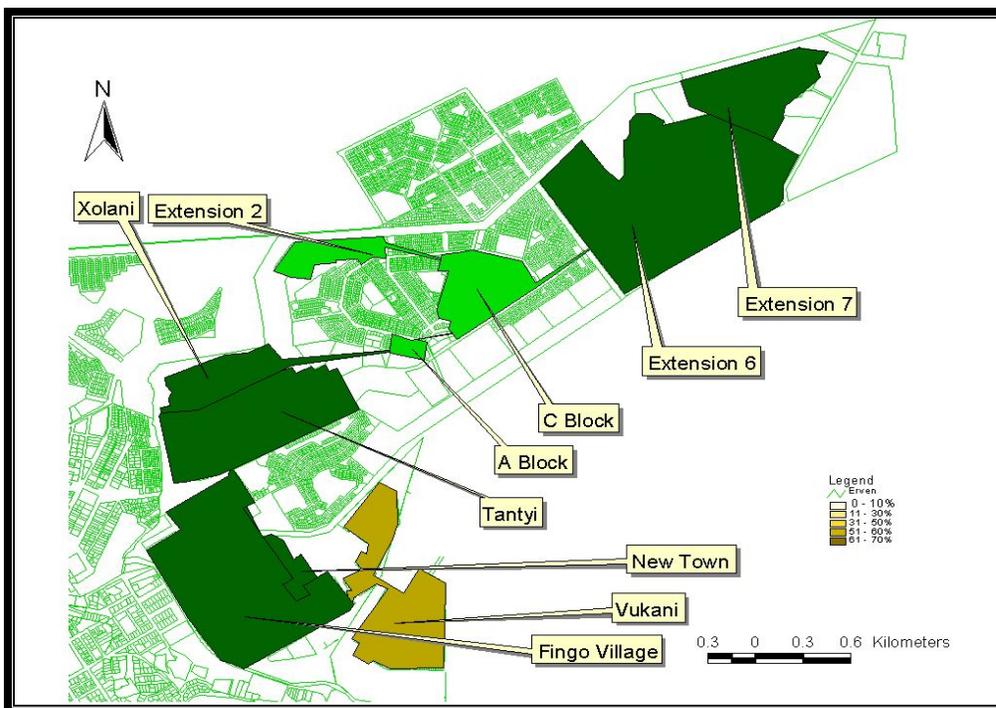


Figure 7.6 Map Showing the Proportion of Respondents that has Access to Recreational Facilities in their Neighbourhood in the Different Areas Surveyed

Among other things, is the involvement of the sports department in sport development programmes within schools and it is presently focusing on developing six sporting codes. Some schools have also been provided with various sporting equipment, depending on the type of sports that such schools are active in. Despite these claims by the

municipality, only 60% of the respondents claimed to have access to recreational facilities. Figure 7.6 below shows the level of access to recreational facilities in the surveyed areas.

The department is also operating in partnership with institutions like Rhodes University in the provision of some of the sporting and recreational facilities that will uplift sports and recreation. In the future, the department seeks to identify more level ground for the provision of more sporting and recreational facilities in the settlements within Grahamstown and it plans to encourage sport development among learners in different grades (Budaza, 2005, pers. comm.). While not a primary dimension of poverty, improving access to such facilities can improve overall levels of community well-being.

7.5.9 Transport

The Traffic department has been responsible for the signage upgrade and the implementation of traffic calming measures. It has also succeeded in promoting a junior road safety programmes in high schools and it is at the verge of identifying other schools for traffic safety educational programme as required by the IDP. Of the survey respondents, 86% indicated that they have access to transport in their neighbourhood. Figure 7.7 below supports the claims made by the beneficiaries.

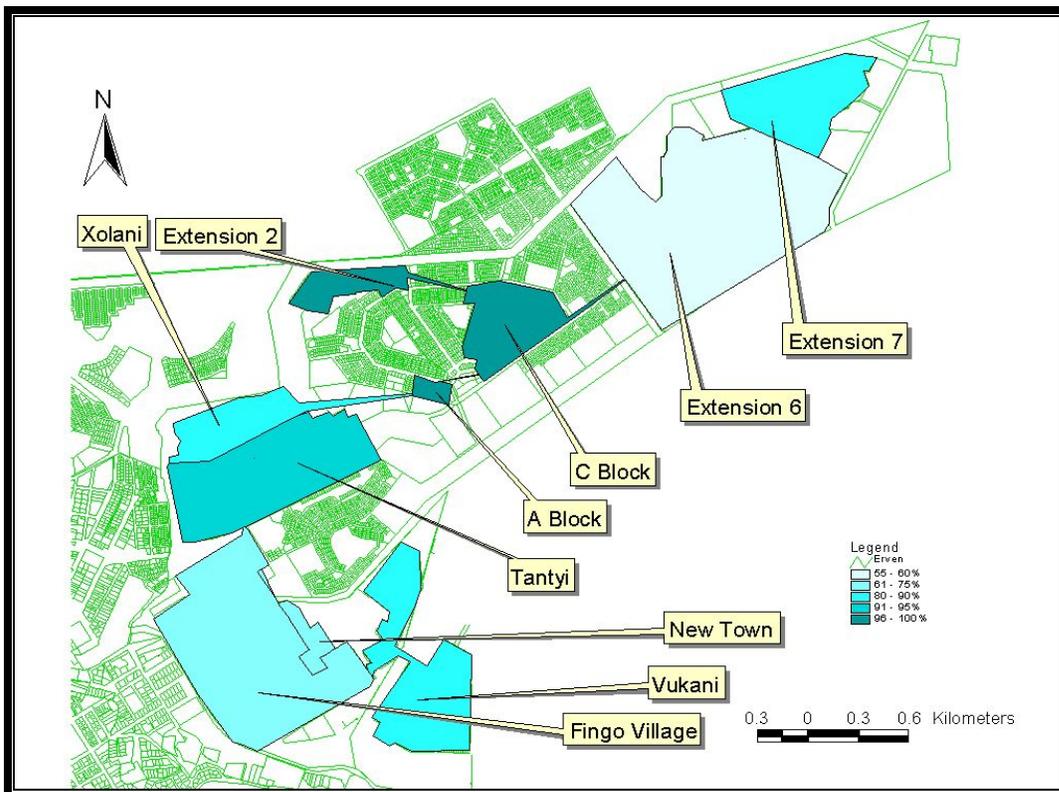


Figure 7.7 Map Showing Proportion of Respondents that have Access to Public Transport in Their Neighbourhood in the Different Areas Surveyed

The department, through the stakeholder groups, also wishes to establish and maintain a transport forum after which they would formulate action plan so as to make the transport forum represent the voice of the people, as indicated in the IDP. There are also plans to tar all municipal roads within Grahamstown (Kapp, 2005 pers. comm.). Improving overall service provision and access can improve access to economic and social facilities and overall community well-being.

7.5.10 Safety and Crime Prevention

Safety and crime prevention has been the preserve of the South Africa Police Service (SAPS), though the Makana Municipality IDP stipulates that the municipality should intervene by co-operating with the SAPS. The Local Government Act 2000 supports the claim that the police should administer the security of people and their property (RSA, 2000). In line with its IDP objective the municipality however seeks to establish a vibrant police forum that would look into the issues of crime and prevention by liaising with the

general public and SAPS with the aim of providing sufficient law enforcement. (Madlavu, 2005 pers. comm.). Safety and crime prevention needs urgent attention as indicated by some of the respondents who claimed that they have been attacked and robbed on several occasions. Some respondents also claimed that some of the public utilities, like telephone booth are located in places that are not accessible to the general public after a particular time of the day, which limits their use.

7.5.11 Education and Training

The provision of infrastructure for education is provided for by the provincial department of education as indicated in the IDP but the Makana Municipality is also providing the necessary assistance to make education more accessible to the poor. One of such interventions is the provision of a library in the Grahamstown East area, which is one of the municipality's IDP objectives. It should be mentioned that while construction and refurbishment is completed of some schools, it is ongoing process in some and has not commenced in other.

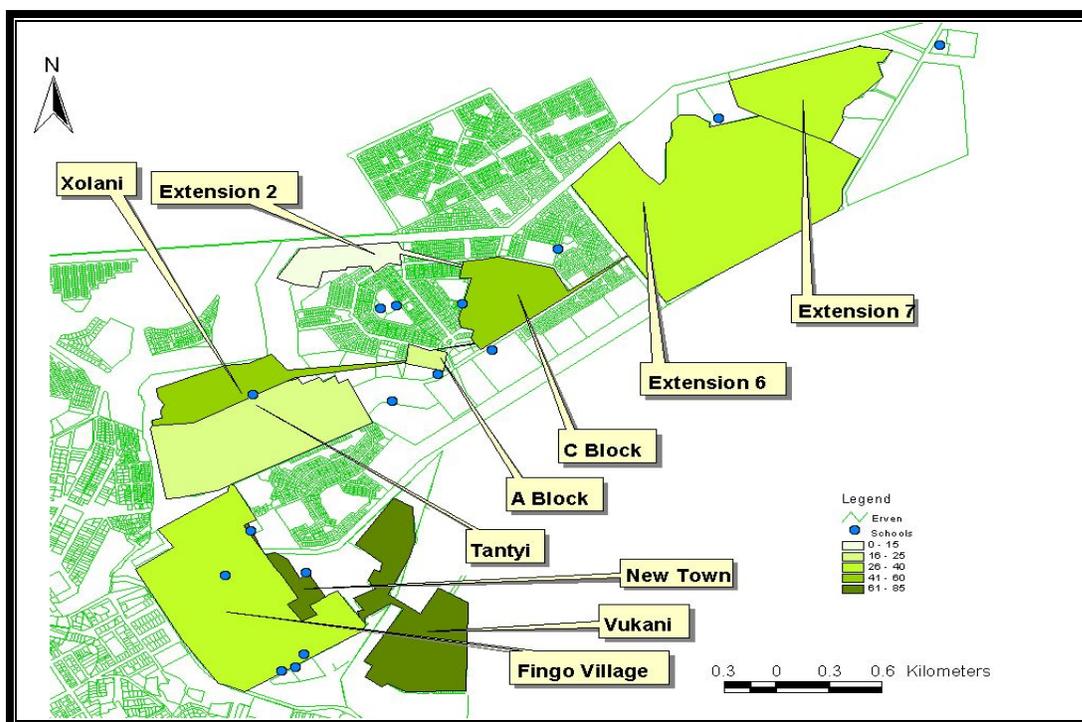


Figure 7.8 Map Showing the Proportion of Respondents that has Access to Schools in their Neighbourhoods in the Different Areas Surveyed

However, from the figure above it is evident that the respondents do not have equal spatial access to schools; in the sense that while some respondents live close to the schools, others are far from the schools. Some of the respondent's children or family members have to commute a greater distance before they get to school. It can be suggested that the municipality should provide an efficient and affordable transport system for scholars so as to encourage them to go to school. Improving access to education can improve overall community well-being and employability, thus impacting directly on poverty.

7.5.12 General Overview of Service Provision

Figure 7.9 below provides a yardstick of the level of access to services and infrastructure in general. From the figure below one can concluded respondents do not have equal access to all services. It shows that some disparities exist in the level of services and infrastructure in the surveyed areas. Figure 7.9 below also indicated that most locations that were examined in this study only have between 55 –60% access to infrastructure, thus suggesting that more still has to be done in term of providing and making the services and infrastructure available to all the poor people, irrespective of their location.

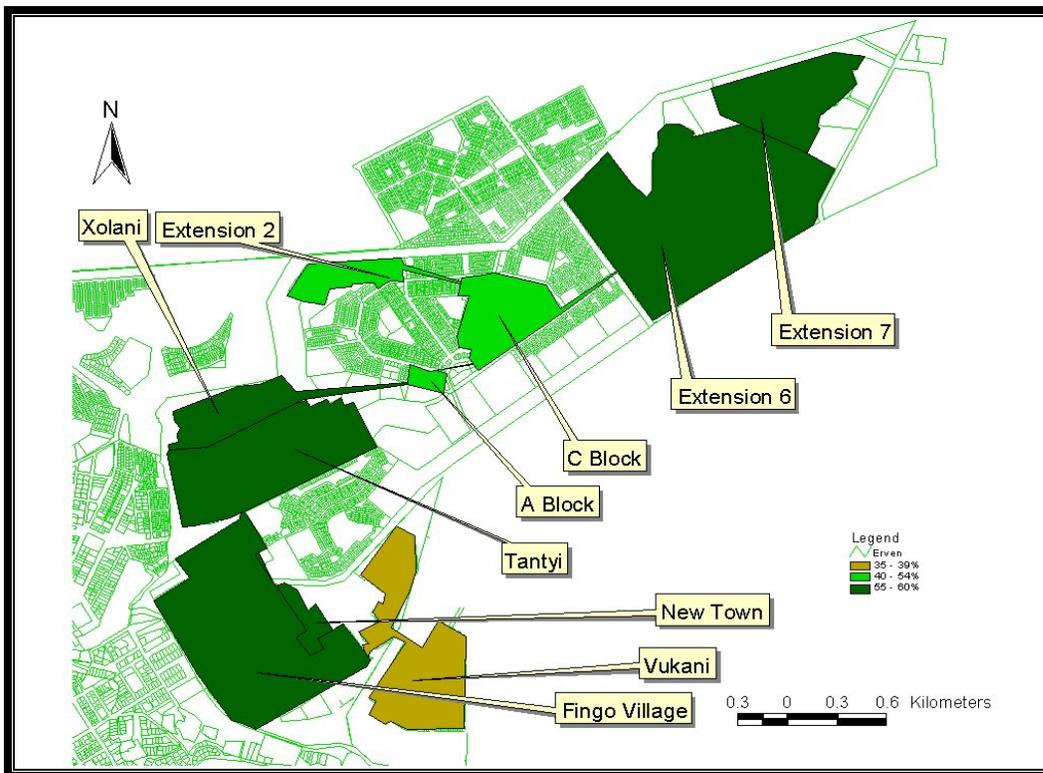


Figure 7.9: Map Showing the Percentage Score for Services and Infrastructure of that the Respondents have Access to in the Different Areas Surveyed

The preceding is in many ways a useful indicator of the degree to which local residents believe that the municipality has been able to respond to both service deficits and addressing related poverty concerns. Clearly there is scope to improve impacts.

7.5.13 Local Economic Development (LED)

The LED initiatives in Grahamstown are limited and of a small-scale nature and are municipally driven as revealed in Chapter Four. The municipality has put structures in place to improve the economic capabilities of its citizens through LED in accordance to objectives of the IDP (Xonxa, 2005 pers. comm.). This it hopes to achieve through tourism, agriculture and marketing. The municipality has identified some agricultural and tourism projects, some of which are ongoing, while others are yet to commence due to a lack of funding. Mention should be made that there are some NGOs that are engaged in agricultural activities the Grahamstown area (Xonxa, 2005 pers. comm.). It was revealed

during this research survey that the municipality does organize trade shows for local crafters to display their wares. The municipality however hopes to set up institutions to develop infrastructure, skills and training that would be needed to provide long time employment through self-reliant and sustainable development in the entire municipal area (Xonxa, 2005 pers. comm.).

In summary, as indicated in this section and as echoed by Tshungu (2005 pers. comm.) the municipality believes that it is meeting the requirements of the IDP in addressing many of the current poverty backlogs in a range of sectors such as through the provision of hard services such as water, sanitation, electricity, housing and roads and through soft or human developments such as land reform, tourism and LED as indicated by Atkinson (2002). Clearly however, the views of responding community members are not in full agreement with this standpoint.

7.6 Involvement of local Residents in IDP Implementation

The Municipal System Act (RSA, 2000) stipulates that all municipalities should build appropriate mechanisms, processes and procedures that would allow for the capacity building of local communities by involving them in the affairs of the municipality. From the findings of the beneficiaries survey, and the nature and the type of projects and programmes undertaken in accordance to the IDP in Grahamstown, as the involvement of the local people was determined. However, the criterion for the involvement in the paid jobs was not ascertained.

Participation by the local community in the affairs of the municipality can take place through political structures set up for participation in terms of the Municipal Structures Act (RSA, 2000). In line with this statement, the director of communication of the Makana Municipality revealed that the municipality has formed forums within the municipality to look at issues that affects the general public and the poor in particular. By contrast many of respondents claimed not to be involved in decision-making. They claimed not to like the way and manner in which decisions are arrived at within the committees. They claimed that some people are favoured at the expense of others. Also,

the lack of knowledge of the IDP by the respondents suggests that public participation in the IDP issues is minimal and not in conformity with the broader IDP objectives.

As far as the IDP is concerned in Grahamstown, there is a body of people that constitutes what is known as the Consultative forum. The consultative forum is a committee of councillors and various ward representatives, representatives of CBOs, NGOs and some municipal officials who meet to receive opinions and concerns from people. This serves to meet the stipulation of the section 17 (2) of the Municipal System Act (RSA, 2000) that requires that opportunities be provided for the local community to participate in the affairs of the municipality, that the members of the community must be able to lodge complaints and petitions. The municipality must notify the general public on issues of the municipality when appropriate, hold regular meetings with the delegates of the local community and also have a consultative forum with the recognized community organizations and traditional authorities and make sure that the meetings are reported back to the local authority (RSA, 2000). In line with the above statements, participation in the workings of the IDP involves attending community meetings and partaking in the implementation of projects because such service delivery which brings substantial benefits through the outcomes of the project and job creation, both during construction and in some cases after the completion of the projects. The latter was revealed in this research by some of the respondents and municipal personnel. The Systems Act (RSA, 2000) states that a fundamental aspect of the new local government system is the active engagement of communities in the affairs of municipalities of which they are an integral part, and in particular in planning, service delivery and performance management. Some respondents during this study expressed dissatisfaction with the wages given to them for partaking in some of the projects. It can be argued that the respondents' sustainability should not depend on the wages from projects alone.

The Local Government White Paper urges municipalities to develop strategies and mechanisms (including, but not limited to participative planning) to continuously engage with citizens, business and community groups (RSA, 1998). Steifel and Wolfe (1994) assert that one of the key features of the present developmental local government is the

recognition of the linkages between development, service delivery and citizen participation. Van Rooyen, (2003) also echoed the view that while the processes are being put in place, the communities should be afforded the opportunity to articulate and prioritise their needs. According to Nkhulu (2005 pers. comm.) these ideals are met through different community and sectoral fora, a community feedback medium on the municipality's website as well as advertisements in some daily newspapers for people to post to and debate issues that affects them and the community at large. It was however revealed during this research survey that many of the poor people do not have access to computers and cannot afford to buy newspapers; this is in contrast with the statement of Nkhulu. Inaccessibility to these media is clearly a barrier, while some respondents attested to Nkhulu's claim that they were aware of such meetings but were not happy with the way decisions are made at such meetings. Nkhulu (2005, pers. comm.) also stated that individual comments are welcomed from the general public as stated by the constitution. In line with this, it is necessary that the communities be informed and be made aware of and even be educated on the basics of what developmental role local government could afford them and that the communities are stakeholders in municipal affairs in one way or the other (Van Rooyen, 2003).

Based on observations during this research and from interviews with some of the municipal personnel it was seen and made known that some members of communities do not really know how things work within the municipality, irrespective of the IDP, and this occurs very often as some municipal officials claim that the people expect to see too much development within too short a period. This can be summarized by the words of Friedman (2005) that the views of citizens about local government as a 'delivery machine' must change because, at the moment, there seems to be a crisis of demand and not delivery, considering what has been provided to date by the municipality. While popular involvement can go a long way to addressing poverty through identifying and responding to key challenges, restricted communications and poor involvement of communities will retard poverty solutions.

7.7 Problems Encountered in the Implementation of IDP

From the municipal interviews, three factors were identified that hinder the proper implementation of IDP projects. These factors are financial constraints, bureaucracy and personalities issues with the local people. It is evident that the municipality does not have the financial capability to undertake most identified projects on its own without sourcing funds from outside. Many of the projects costs millions of rands, which the municipality cannot afford. The implementation of the IDP projects requires proper funding in order to meet the deadlines set for project delivery.

On the issue of bureaucracy, this occurs both within the municipality and from higher authorities like the provincial government and the district municipality. Consulting with and getting approval from the district municipality and the provincial government is required before any project can be implemented. These higher authorities give objectives and instructions on standards, which the municipality will must in its programmes. This, in most situations, results in a conflict of interest between local choice, local relevance which is seen to be more important in terms of the IDP objectives and the provincial and district government instructions. Some municipal officials complained about the vagueness of some projects, which makes it difficult for them to be allocated to a particular department for execution. Time delays are also a factor identified that hinders implementation of projects. These applied considerations clearly impact on the municipality's ability to address poverty concerns through its IDP.

On the personality issue, the municipality encounters problems which include difficulties experienced with the proper identification of project beneficiaries and the lack of patience from the people which it attributes to ignorance of procedures. This however is in contrast with the mandate given to local government authorities to develop programmes and design services to address the needs of the communities with different experiences and status because it is the tier of government where close and trusting relationships have to be built between such municipalities, individuals, interest groups and the whole community (Mathye, 2002).

7.8 Conclusion

From this study, it should be noted however that though most of the services are provided at no cost by the municipality for the poor, the capacity to sustain them depends, to a large extent on family income as is echoed in Ngwane *et al.* (2002) view that access to some of the basic services depends greatly on household income. They argue that aside from the problem of accessibility, which the municipality is trying to provide, the vital issue is that of affordability. Affordability can be regarded as a general concern because about 96% of the respondents claimed that they do not have the financial means to pay for the services provided which in turn might lead to deprivation, despite improved accessibility that has been made possible by the municipality.

Sen (1981) and Scott (2002) argue that participation or democracy is an essential ingredient for participation in joint endeavours with government to address poverty. In the light of this, the municipality seems to have taken into consideration the needs of the poor people, through constant meetings between the ward and street committees and the councillors and with the people and other stakeholders in accordance to the objective of the IDP thereby identifying and providing the needed poverty relief infrastructure and services. This is supported by the requirements of Municipal Systems Act (RSA, 2000). However as noted above consultation, feedback, involvement and employment should commence where it has not taken place and should be improved where necessary.

In Summary, this chapter has revealed that in Grahamstown, many ideas and plans have been formulated and put in place by the municipality in accordance with IDP objectives and the municipality believes that it is committed to alleviating poverty by addressing the development backlogs through the IDP in Grahamstown. However, as reflected by the respondents, that municipality is providing services and infrastructure but at a slow rate and as a result of that, the impact and overall effectiveness of the projects delivered have not been enjoyed by all. Other problems identified include issues of affordability because many of the respondents cannot afford to pay for the services provided, despite the fact that it has been subsidized, it can also be deduced that the respondents may also expect

too much from the municipality within a short time. Concerns over consultation, employment, maintenance and slow delivery are all serious issues for affected communities and can clearly lead to a situation in which poverty persists or is only very slowly addressed. The main problem encountered by the municipality has to do with the bureaucracy in government, which hinders and slows down the rate of delivery.

CHAPTER EIGHT

8.0 Conclusions and Recommendations

8.1 Introduction

This chapter provides a summary of findings in accordance with the aims and objectives of this study. It will also provide a summary of findings of the role of municipalities in the IDP process, local responses and community involvement in the IDP implementation, and the challenges facing developmental local government. It also presents recommendations based on the findings and ends with summary of IDP project successes and failures in the study area.

8.2 The Role of Municipalities in the Integrated Development Planning Process

Following the enactment into law of the national, provincial and municipal development mandates in response to the deteriorated social, infrastructural and economic situation, local municipalities with some external interventions from the district municipalities and provincial governments and through partnerships have used their developmental mandate to formulate initiatives that are aimed at counteracting socio-economic decay and which seek to address poverty. In agreement with this statement, IDPs which are seen by Atkinson (2002) as multi-sectoral programmes, including a wide variety of development interventions ranging from 'hard' services such as water, sanitation, electricity, housing and roads to 'soft' or 'human development' issues such as land reform, poverty alleviation, tourism and local economic development (LED) have been formulated.

Makana Municipality has been able to identify development priorities within its area of jurisdiction and has drawn up a consolidated project register of projects, which have been allocated to the responsibility of various municipal departments and sub-departments. However, the available natural, human and financial resources at the disposal of the Makana Municipality have largely determined and or limited the nature of projects and initiatives that the municipality and the community have been able to undertake with regard to implementing the IDP. To extend its resources, the municipality has also entered into partnerships with other organizations, most importantly Rhodes University in

order to provide some of the necessary developmental skill and infrastructure that the partnership can provide.

The municipality has been unable to implement some projects due to financial constraints and other logistical issues, but it has put machinery in place to see that most, if not all of its projects identified in the project register are implemented. The overall impression however is that the municipality is doing its best to comply with the IDP.

8.3 Local Responses and Community Involvement

Under the new developmental mandate given to local government, which entails the assumption of the responsibility to provide for socio-economic and infrastructural development, Makana Municipality has put structures in place to respond to the needs and aspiration of people, especially the previously disadvantaged groups as stipulated in the Municipal Systems Act (RSA, 2000). The Makana Municipality IDP has ensured that that the local communities are represented through the various committees that participate in the management of the IDP initiatives and projects. It is however difficult to ascertain how effective or influential their participation is in the design of the initiatives and in influencing the decisions that have been made. The patron-client management style that exists in the IDP may be an indication that the community is not fully involved and that the voice of the poor may not always be heard (Friedman, 2005). Despite this, the community has been involved as contractors and sub-contractors and has also provided manual labour during the implementation of some of the projects in Grahamstown. Some people are also being employed as result of the projects that have been put in place. It is however pertinent to state that the municipality should make a greater effort to involve local people so that the delivery of dividends based on the different needs and expectations of people within the municipality can be attained. This community involvement is a fundamental aspect of the IDP.

8.4 Challenges Facing Developmental Local Government

The restructuring of local governments and tasking them with a developmental role is seen by Atkinson (2002) as a remarkable development within the public and private

sector in South Africa, since it was published in the White Paper on Local Government (RSA, 1998). This study has examined some of the paradoxes and limitations within the local governance system, which may render some of the government developmental initiatives good on paper but not so in reality. As stated by Atkinson (2002) and Harrison (2001) the lack of achievement is related to complex issues such as the limited internal/institutional capacity in municipalities as well as the poor distribution of powers and functions between the district and local governments.

The Municipal Systems Act (RSA, 2000) gave more powers to district municipalities, which they are expected to share with the local municipalities. In line with this, the district municipalities provide a framework within which the local municipalities design their IDPs because most, if not all, developmental functions are concentrated at the district municipality level (Atkinson, 2002). In so doing, the district municipality has to intervene when the local municipality does not have the capacity to fulfil some of its social and economic duties within communities under its jurisdiction. This gives the impression that the district municipalities are well capacitated and financially resourced to intercede in projects where local municipalities are failing, which is not always the case.

However, in the course of this study, it was suggested that some of the projects were not able to come to fruition because of what can be referred to as the district municipality's insensitivity to the pressing needs of the local municipality. The capacity to implement some of the projects under the IDP is severely constrained by the absence of resources and manpower within the local municipality. As revealed by Atkinson (2002) and Harrison (2001) municipalities' lack of capacity has often been identified as a crucial blockage in delivery, because they lack the capacity to perform complex and multifaceted functions concurrently. Atkinson (2002) further argues that few national line departments have taken much effort to pinpoint the actual functions, which should be devolved to local government, much less apply their minds to taking concrete steps to building municipalities' capacity.

Pycroft (2002) blames the physical distance between the district municipalities and the local communities for the top-down and mostly consultant driven planning process which have evolved, with token involvement of communities in their development process. Until the administrative capacity and resources are relocated to the local municipalities, addressing poverty and service provision is likely to remain elusive in many localities. Developmental local government is based on good vision and can attain greater heights if their constraints in implementing policy on the ground can be understood.

The findings of this study revealed that the Makana Municipality's IDP priorities are those that really affect the poor people, but the capacity to implement most of the projects is severely constrained because the lack of resources and power to undertake most of the projects. It was also revealed that there are too many objectives and instructions from the upper government (District municipality and Provincial government) that the local municipality must adhere to which affects its choice in implementing some of its local programme. The programme for action was well planned and well intentioned but the main problem is that some of the projects identified still have to wait for approval for funds from either the district municipalities or the provincial government. Also, some of the projects drawn up by the municipality under the IDP depend on some national government line departments for implementation, as in the case of education and safety.

On paper the idea of the IDP looks good but in terms of implementation more effort has to be put into what is on paper to meet the pressing need of the community. It is apparent that some people are still in a state of poverty not because they don't have water, sanitation or homes but because they do not have the economic power to sustain an acceptable standard of living or to pay for the services provided. Some are, however, in poverty because they do not have access to basic living conditions such as good housing, water, electricity, proper sanitation and paid employment.

The municipality has an important role to play in participatory democracy, the creation of social capital through its functions and the services it provides to its communities, bearing in mind that it is the closest tier of government to affected communities. Efforts

are focused on service provision with diminutive attention given to community economic development by district municipalities.

Various shortcomings were also revealed in this study and recommendations were made accordingly. The Integrated Development Planning as it affects the lives of the poor can serve as a solution to poverty alleviation if the goals, mission and projects are well implemented at the local level with a significant input from the local people.

8.5 What Works and What Does not Work in the Implementation of the IDP

Measuring what has worked and what does not work in the implementation of the IDP is mixed. Some projects have achieved noteworthy successes and while others are not really clear on the challenges that lie ahead. It was seen that the development challenge in Makana Municipality is much greater than what was envisaged. As a result of this, the municipality must not only undertake a variety of infrastructural projects, it must also define and implement complex social and economic development projects like job creation and capacity building.

Makana Municipality has been able to identify the development priorities within its area of jurisdiction but the power to implement the projects identified depends to a large extent on higher authorities in the district municipality and provincial government. The water, sanitation, electricity and housing departments have had a significant impact in the lives of the people judging by what has been delivered and from the respondents views, though they still need to provide for those that do not have access. Some departments like health, traffic, education and sports and recreation should be redefined in terms of their function and placement. The LED office should be equipped in such a manner that it can identify opportunities that can bring development through participation in form of social capital to the people.

The developmental onus within the local municipality's jurisdiction must however make them answerable to the community and as such that the function of the various departments must be that it have the capacity to deliver the developmental goal.

8.6 Fulfillment of the Aims of this Study

The study shows that IDP is seen as doing well in some quarters while it also fails in other. In order to assess if this study has been successful in achieving the goals it set out to achieve which were proposed and embarked on from the beginning, the aims of the thesis have to be revisited. The first and part of the third aim, sought to obtain data from residents of Grahamstown East, which was perceived as the primary poverty-prone area in Grahamstown regarding their socio-economic status and their perceptions of the IDP and its effect in terms of addressing poverty related problems. This study indicated that significant economic, educational, service and housing backlogs exist in this area which clearly justifies intervention through interventions such as the IDP. Despite this need, the study showed that about 99% of the respondents do not know what the IDP is but they are aware of the development projects being undertaken in order to provide service and infrastructure in the perceived poverty areas (clearly the name rather than the principal of the IDP was not known). The second aim and part of the third aim sought to establish what the local authority's response to the prevailing poverty development backlog is, in terms of policy and on the ground intervention through the IDP and to gauge the effectiveness of the interventions from the perspective of the beneficiaries of the projects. The study revealed that the Makana Municipality, in accordance with the government's policy and commitment to alleviate poverty through the Integrated Development Planning process has set machinery in motion by identifying and providing solutions to the identified development priorities in Grahamstown. In so doing, it has drawn a project register of all proposed prioritised IDP projects and services for implementation. The status of the projects was revealed and the study showed the various achievements in terms of service and infrastructural provision as well as the shortcomings encountered by the different departments responsible for implementation. The fourth aim involved the drawing of GIS maps indicating varying levels of access to services as indicated in Chapter 7.

The main issues revealed from this study are as follows;

Firstly, the municipal IDP policy was to provide water and proper sewerage to all people first. The majority of the respondents indicated that they have access to water while many have not benefited from the sewerage upgrade because it has just started.

Secondly, the municipality has provided many housing units and is still awaiting funds to commence work on other sites, although the respondents attested to this provision, they complained about the quality of the materials used. However, the municipality should provide quality housing for these people because they do not have the financial power to make repairs to these houses.

Thirdly, the municipality is committed to providing electricity connection as was confirmed by the respondents but they (the respondents), often lack the financial means to pay for the service. It would however be suggested in the context of this research that the municipality should further subsidize this infrastructure so that its use and access can be optimally attained.

Fourthly, the Emergency Department has been hampered by lack of capacity and resources and this was confirmed by the respondents and from observation. There is a need to make funds available to the emergency services department so that emergency relief can be offered when necessary.

Fifthly, the Health Care Department has initiated a range of programmes and activities in its clinics but the respondents complained about the distance of the clinics and the main hospital. There are plans to upgrade the health services and establish clinic satellite point to counteract the problem of access.

Sixthly, the Sports and Recreation Department has provided some sporting and recreational ground but not in all locations as revealed by the respondents. More level ground must be identified for recreational purposes within the locations that it serves.

Seventhly, the Transport Department has almost completed the signage upgrade and has set up transport forum to look into the transport issues but the main concern of the respondents is their access to taxi. The municipality must concentrate on efforts to tar the roads so that people can have access to taxis in their various neighbourhoods.

Eighthly, the municipality is dependent on national government for the supply of educational services; while some respondents complained about the distance of schools from their neighbourhoods. More funds should be made available so that more schools can be constructed and the dilapidated ones can be refurbished.

Ninthly, a LED strategy has an important role to play in providing training and capacity building to the poor and unemployed. The department must work together with the Land Management Department so that more land can be allocated for its programmes. It should work

Lastly, the municipality has put mechanism in place to advertise for community participation but the respondents' participation is low. Through public participation however, some local people have been gainfully employed during the implementation of the projects.

8.7 Recommendations

The following recommendations can be made with regard to the findings from this study;

8.7.1 Capacity Building and Skill Development

There is a need to open a skills training centre that will provide capacity building for the many unemployed and mostly poor, illiterate people who live in Grahamstown and the entire municipal area. This is necessary owing to the fact that most poor people do not have the educational qualifications to secure jobs in the formal sector or to create their own, and as such must be developed in order to be self-reliant. In line with this, there is need to form local economic development agencies within the municipal area, which will

assist the municipality to identify the critical capacities of communities which can be harnessed in order to attract investment in the area, by improving the quality of life of people. Workshops should also be organised for the municipal staff so that they can update their knowledge and get acquainted with new technologies and ideas about governance.

8.7.2 Improved Public Enlightenment and Education

There is a need for the municipality to devise a better means of educating the general public about the programmes of the municipality than relying on the forum alone. This could take the form of effective workshops, ward meetings and community meetings. Through these campaigns the citizens will know that there are constraints within the municipality. There is a need to form a better partnership in which issues pertaining to the poor could be debated, negotiated and bargained to address the problems and expectations of the people built on a local democracy. There is a need for the municipality to empower the communities to have confidence in them in undertaking broader activities, which have local implications. The institutionalisation of participation in the IDP process has a role to play in this regard in order to ensure that different groups with different aspirations in the communities benefit from their participation and empowerment so that some will not have the view that only party faithfuls and some select few are benefiting from the municipal programmes.

8.7.3 Improved Municipal Interdepartmental Communication and Planning of Activities

There is need for the municipality to devise better and improved methods of communication between its departments, in order to streamline the number of identified projects and reduce project plan ambiguity. This will enable objectivity between and among the concerned departments handling identified projects so that duties and tasks can be allocated to the relevant departments. Also, through improved budget and resource allocations, the number of projects in the project plan can be rationalized. This can be realised by also introducing policy guidance to the departments as well as concerned line departments in designing their policies and programmes to meet the IDP standard. This is

necessary because some of the development priorities identified by the municipality, will be implemented by some line departments, such as by education operating through the provincial government.

8.7.4 Local Municipal Autonomy

There is a need to create an enabling legislative structure that defines developmental local government and requires each local municipality to demonstrate how it independently intends to achieve its IDP objectives and measure its contributions to poverty alleviation and local developments rather than adhering to a uniform prescription (Pycroft, 1998).

8.7.5 Establishment of a Municipal GIS

Lastly, there is a need for the Makana Municipality to develop a functional Geographical Information Systems database that will be used to monitor the progress in the number of developmental activities that have taken place, as well as in identifying areas that need to be serviced with infrastructure. From the overview of GIS detailed in the literature it is apparent that it can help to update information about locations where necessary and it will assist other researchers, government and development agencies to know more about the spatial extent of the areas of intervention and need.

8.8 Conclusion

This thesis has tried to investigate the relevance of the Integrated Development Planning process as a tool for poverty alleviation in Grahamstown in the Makana Municipality. This has been done by looking at the level of poverty and inequality that persists in the country as well as the socio-economic and infrastructural decay that occurs amongst particular set of people in their different locations. This study has shown that poverty still persists in Grahamstown in the Makana Municipality despite the local municipality's developmental efforts through the IDP. However the IDP interventions are of considerable value and have gone some measure to providing needed services (especially water and electricity) and for partially addressing poverty.

The emerging public-private and community partnerships formed between the municipality, community, CBOs, NGOs and other organizations within the town can always be used as a medium to reflect and provide the needs and aspirations of the communities. It is not likely that IDP programmes will create direct employment for the many unemployed people, but some people have benefited from the capacity building exercise through participation in the IDP project. The Makana Municipality is trying to achieve the aims and objectives of the IDP through different skills training initiatives undertaken during implementation of some of its projects; the reality is that in such situations capacity building is limited to a selected few within the community that were fortunate to be part of those particular projects.

However, democracy has brought a new emphasis of transparency in government activities, greater accountability and the notion of respect for human rights (Van Rooyen, 2003). The mechanisms to facilitate the long awaited transformation must be designed in such a way that it would bring the notion of accountability, participation and delivery to reality, and must be improved and implemented in such a way that will give credence to the government and the citizens.

In conclusion, it is apparent that despite constraints the Makana IDP as applied in Grahamstown is helping to some degree to both develop the local area and address poverty. As noted in the literature review, poverty takes on a range of dimensions and aspects and through improving the broader socio-economic context and through very limited employment provision, the IDP is, to some, degree helping to address the significant poverty backlog in the local area. Clearly, much more needs to be done and by improving the effectiveness of the IDP and by better funding it, progress can be made in this regard.

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Appendix A

Interviews with Municipal Personnel

1. What is your departments' name?
2. What are your departments IDP objectives?
3. Which area (s) is (are) the recent IDP project (s) going on?
4. When did it start? And what is going to be the duration?
5. Any completed project(s) in any location? Where?
6. Why this location/area?
7. Who is funding the IDP project(s)?
8. What really led to the development of the project(s)?
9. What are the criteria for benefiting in this project(s)? Conditions for putting up infrastructures in a locality?
10. Which infrastructures were in place for the people before the implementation of this project(s)?
11. Have you manage to reach your goal for this project(s)?
12. Is there a lot more to be done in terms of provision of other infrastructures?
13. Do you have any statistics of people that have benefit from taking part in the implementation of these project(s)?
14. What are the problems encountered in the implementation of this project(s)?
15. What factors are responsible for the problems and how do you think the problems could be solved?
16. Do you encounter any conflict with other municipal departments during the implementation of your project(s)?
17. Do you encounter any problems with the people in the implementation of the projects?
18. Any plans for the maintenance of the project(s) after completion?
19. What recent economic developments have taken place as a result of the project(s)?
20. Are the local people involved in the implementation of the project(s)?

21. How and at what level?
22. Who are the targeted beneficiaries of these IDP project(s)?
23. Any bureaucratic problems encountered in the implementation of the IDP project(s) and programmes

Appendix B

Beneficiaries Questionnaires (Local People)

Name- Optional:

Sex:

Street Name:

Source of family income:

Family Monthly Income: R0-499, 500-999, 1000 -1999, 2000- 2999, 3000-3999, 4000-4999, 5000 and above. If above 5000, please state.

Family size:

Highest Educational Status/Attainment:

Employment status: Employed Unemployed Pensioner

What is the nature of your house: Shack Formal House IDPhouse

Do you have access to telephone in your house? Yes No

Do you have electricity in your home? Yes No

What basic amenities do you have access to in your home/neighbourhood? Please

list; Clinic/Health care services Recreational facilities Water Emergency

services Schools Transport Electricity Communication

Others not listed above?

Can you afford to pay for the facilities provided? Yes No

If no, why?

Mention any dissatisfaction you experience with these services?

Do you know what the IDP is? Yes No

If yes, how could it improve your life and that of your neighbours?

In what way (s) has the municipality improved your life in recent years (2002 till date) through its programme?

Is there any ongoing/completed Municipal infrastructural project (s) in the area:

Yes No

If yes, please mention: Water- Sanitation/ Sewage- Electricity- Roads-
Housing-

Are you or any member of your family involved in the implementation of the municipal projects? Yes No

If yes, please provide details

Does your (their) participation in the project bring sustainability (Income e.t.c) to your family's livelihood? Yes No

If no, why?

Have your family benefited from the project? Yes No

If Yes, when did this happen?

Are the projects/services delivered serving its purpose? Yes No

If no, Why?

Identify problems and disadvantages associated with the projects/services

What tangible gains have you achieved from the projects? (Economic, infrastructural, social as well as improved quality of life)

Please provide details of how:

Do you think the IDP projects and services are really affecting lives positively? Yes

No

Please provide Detail:

Are the new infrastructures (houses e.t.c) properly built? Yes No

Please provide details:

Are the infrastructures properly maintained? Yes No

Do you think there are development backlogs in your area that have not been met by the municipal IDP programme? Yes No

If yes please list the other needs to be addressed in your area:

Are you satisfied with the way the IDP projects/services is being implemented?

Please provide details:

How much have things changed since 1994?

In what way?

Other comments on the implementation of the municipal IDP programmes in Grahamstown:

Thank you