

Spatial economic attributes in South African urban areas: Complexities of transforming cities towards a pro-poor

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Abstract

The layout of most African cities that are entrenched within the colonial spatial planning approaches have placed black people in townships, which are outside the city centre. This colonial spatial planning imprint has relegated many black people into informality and the inability of municipalities to implement integrated transport systems in urban areas. The incapacity to implement integrated transport systems made it difficult for the previously disadvantaged population to access the city. This type of planning approach has burdened the poor and affected their quality of life. The poor people continue to be unable to access different kinds of transport such as the integrated transport systems and effectively use such systems to access networks and connections for their livelihoods such as car guarding, informal trading and other sources of income. Therefore, many poor black people endure transport fees to access the livelihood activities in the cities. Therefore, the current spatial layout of cities constrains the ability of most black people to improve their lives. Complexity theory states cities are complex systems. Complexity theory demonstrates that planning for the cities is non-linear. This means that planning for a city might have unintended and pernicious consequences for many people. Therefore, an integrated transport system has the potential to reduce the burden and challenges towards accessing their livelihood activities in the cities. The establishment of a variety of road infrastructure can potentially lead to development corridors wherein local people place all sorts of businesses including SMME's closer to the road, thereby addressing their financial difficulties. The purpose of this paper is to examine how the current spatial planning in South African cities continue to be discriminatory and sustain the impoverished status of most poor black people.

Keywords: Spatial planning; Integrated Transport systems; SPLUMA; Complexity theory.

1. Introduction

Spatial Planning in South Africa has undergone a transition because of the changing environment, economic circumstances, legislative frameworks and governance (Chigudu, 2019). Following South Africa's independence in 1994, spatial planning was revised to close the developmental gap between black and white areas in an at-

tempt to establish a balance of development (Chigudu, 2019). The transformation of spatial planning was used to transform the notion of separate development, which is rooted in the apartheid era. Spatial planning functions as a means towards improved settlement patterns through the allocation and distribution of appropriate spatial economic attributes that support diverse human activities (Schoeman, 2015). The spatial economic characteristics of urban areas attract more economic activities, which transmogrify them into growth points that require adequate planning for transportation infrastructure. To this extent, the colonial spatial planning practices have impacted black settlement patterns adversely. The fragmented settlement patterns continue to reflect the imbalances of social power and spatial inequalities in the contemporary South African urban areas (Strauss, 2019). A multitude of political, socio-economic and legal factors influenced South Africa's spatial planning during the apartheid regime. The colonial spatial planning mechanisms contributed to the existing spatial injustice and exclusion between urban areas and settlements in the outskirts of urban areas about accessibility and convenience towards various activities. The segregated settlements which include townships and non-urban settlements experience difficulties accessing urban areas as the result of implementing the distorted town planning practices about transport systems.

Spatial planning approaches designated for transport development in the townships and non-urban areas tend to be insensitive and incompatible with the employment patterns and with the domestic and socio-economic needs of the urban populace (Strauss, 2019; Mokgotho & Mokoale, 2020). The urban populace experiences difficulties getting to work, pursuing their economic activities, accessing educational institutions, attaining necessities and services because of the inexistence of integrated transport networks (Zhao, Mahendra, Godfrey, Dalkmann, Rode & Floater, 2016; Mokgotho & Mokoale, 2020). The lack of integrated transport systems in most South African cities have consequently led to the economic, social and spatial exclusion of already marginalised black inhabitants in the outskirts of urban areas. Poorer groups of the population often live on the fringes of cities where transport systems are the weakest (Zhao *et al.*, 2016). Their reliance on inefficient urban public transportation and overreliance on private cars has increased the time and money spent from accessing the cities, especially in the morning.

In developing countries, most people spend 8–16% of their family income on transportation on average, although it can go as high as 25% for the poorest groups (Zhao *et al.*, 2016). In South Africa, 91.4% of people in the lowest income group were reliant on public transport, with 5.7% using trains, 23.6% buses and 62.1% minibus taxis in 2013 (Statistics SA 2013a). According to Mokwena and Zuidgeest (2020), a simple estimation of daily trips by university students alone purports a growth from 1 million to 1.8 million between 2009 and 2016. Hence, public transportation remains an absolute requirement for the low-income urban population (Teffo, Earl & Zuidgeest, 2019). Industries, commercial services, educational and health institutions, and residential areas are often developed in isolation from one another, increasing the need for people to commute daily, and thus necessitating the establishment of an integrated transportation system (Teffo *et al.*, 2019). Furthermore, poor urban design, limited road capacity, the absence of pricing mechanisms and the growing number of

motorised vehicles all contribute to the deteriorated transportation networks, particularly in developing and emerging nations (Zhao *et al.*, 2016; Mokgotho & Mokoele, 2020). The haphazard nature of urban development demands the need for formal town planning that will create a connection and proximity to residential areas, ports, transportation networks and commercial centres (Strauss, 2019). However, it can be argued that to establish an effective integrated transport system, transportation policy frameworks are necessary to facilitate spatial planning through the empirical analysis of spatial economic attributes of urban areas and the surrounding settlements as growth points.

2. Complexity theory as a lens to spatial planning

The practice of spatial planning is often confronted with multifaceted tasks and requirements. The persistence of these issues is instigated by the varying perceptions among the proponents of social and economic transformation, sustainable development and environmental protection (Flannery, Healy & Luna, 2018). This multi-dimensional context and interconnectedness of various actors make spatial planning both complex and complicated. Complexity in spatial planning is associated with uncertainties and unpredictable outcomes which result from the integration of different natural, technical, economic and social conditions with actions and reactions from various actors (De Roo & Silva 2016; Liang, Liu, Li, Chen, Tian & Yao, 2018). De Roo and Silva (2016: 63) went further to highlight that spatial planning becomes more complex and complicated “when a great number and variety of elements and time dimensions interact in the society as a whole and urban planning in particular”. As such, spatial planners have it hard when managing and improving the methods for handling the growing complexity in urban planning practice. It is therefore within this premise that complexity theory can be brought into play to analyse and understand a complex society (herein referred to as complex cities and urban areas) and spatial planning practice.

The complexity theory is used in various areas of science to study the order, pattern and structure of complex and chaotic systems (Bibri, 2018). Simply put and contextualised, the theory demonstrates that planning for cities is non-linear. This means that planning for a city might have unintended and pernicious consequences for many people. Therefore, the theory then provides an understanding of the complexities that arise from the integration of different actors such as the development practitioners, environmentalists, business owners and landowners (Barns, Cosgrave, Acuto & Mcneill, 2017). The complexity theory can also conscientize spatial planners on how the spatially fragmented urban areas and cities complicate and frustrate the implementation of integrated transport systems (ed. De Roo & Silva, 2016; Barns *et al.*, 2017). As Chettiparamb (2019) points out, complexity theory provides insights into the genesis of complex systems such as long-distance travel between townships and cities, the inaccessibility and unavailability of certain spatial economic attributes in the peripheral areas of cities. The connotation of the theory is that the more spatial planners comprehend what frustrates the implementation of integrated systems and work on the identified complexities, the high probable it is to transform cities to-

wards a pro-poor.

3. Legislative framework

The upward pressure on the demand for transport development is confronted with the lack of infrastructure policy to manage the concomitant travel demand. Spatial planning legislative frameworks function under the mandate of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa 1994. The spatial planning legislative frameworks in South Africa include the Spatial Planning and Land Use Management Act 16 of 2013 (SPLUMA), Integrated Development Plan (IDP) and Spatial Development Framework (SDF).

3.1. Spatial Planning and Land Use Management Act (SPLUMA) 16 of 2013

SPLUMA is a legal legislative framework that underpins spatial planning in South Africa. SPLUMA was primarily introduced to improve the living conditions of black urban residents to address transportation needs (De Visser & Poswa, 2018). The rationale for promulgating SPLUMA was to provide a framework for planning and land use management in South Africa (Mokgotho & Mokoale, 2020), while taking cognisance of the inclusive developmental, efficient and equitable spatial plans across all the spheres of government (Busayo, Kalumba & Orimoloye, 2019). Nel (2016) stated that SPLUMA provides a framework that guides spatial development and authorises local municipalities or local councils to facilitate planning aimed at the improvement of their regions. De Visser and Poswa (2019) argue that SPLUMA does not necessarily embrace the notion of local lawmaking, which reluctantly ignores the role of municipal by-laws in the planning framework. Disregarding local lawmaking makes it difficult for local municipalities to respond to some of the issues and community needs due to the unavailability of approaches that perfectly fit into the scenarios. Thus, the municipal planning by-laws provided by various local governments should be in conjunction with the relevant provisions of SPLUMA and provincial legislation.

3.2. Integrated Development Plan (IDP)

Chapter 5 of the Local Government: Municipal Systems Act (LGMSA) 32 of 2000 postulates that the IDP must include a land use management system that is directed by a spatial development framework (Republic of South Africa (RSA), 2000). As required by the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa 1996, the IDP is designed to reflect a developmental government that ensures sustainable delivery of municipal services, promotes socio-economic development, stimulates a safe/healthy environment and encourages community involvement in local government (Gueli, Liebenberg & Van Huyssteen, 2007). It fosters active citizens and ensures improved coordination and integration with other governmental sectors (Mogano & Mokoale, 2019). Moodley (2003) and Malefane and Mashakoe (2008) concur that every municipality should have an IDP that enables more effective utilisation of limited local, cost-effective and sustainable resources by focusing on recognised and prioritised local needs. The

LGMSA 32 of 2000 prescribes that the IDP should contain a variety of development objectives and operations, which include spatial planning through correspondence with the spatial development framework among them (Dlamini & Reddy, 2018). According to Gueli *et al.* (2007), the IDP assists in identifying areas where land development should be increased. Gueli *et al.* (2007) further indicated that the IDP attempts to integrate segregated areas and establish and improve major public movement/transport routes. To redress the apartheid-borne land injustices, the IDP proposes development programs focused on accomplishing spatial objectives.

3.3. Spatial Development Framework (SDF)

An SDF is a document created with the primary intention of representing a local authority's spatial development goals. This was as a consequence of an integrated examination and sorting of the geographic implications of several sectoral issues such as transportation, energy, and water (Republic of South Africa (RSA), 2001). Chapter 7 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (1996 herein referred to as the Constitution) explicitly demonstrates that service delivery is positioned in the hands of local governments through municipalities (Madumo, 2015). However, the Constitution stresses that local governments must ensure the provision of services to communities in a sustainable manner (RSA, 1996). Madumo (2015) concurs that for each of these objectives to be achieved, the municipalities must receive the necessary support and collaboration.

It is indicated in the SPLUMA that each sphere of government should develop and adopt an SDF (Mokgotho & Mokoale, 2020) to promote efficient urban planning and urban renewal. As highlighted in the SPLUMA, the national government should adopt a National Spatial Development Framework, which informs provinces to adopt provincial spatial development frameworks (De Visser & Poswa, 2019). The district and local municipalities should also adopt their regional/municipal spatial development frameworks. In terms of transportation development, the SDF's logic focuses on building a defined hierarchy of accessibility to assure the regions' social, economic, and environmental sustainability (RSA, 2001). The inability to signify urban transportation issues in the SDF's can portray a blurry picture in an attempt towards integrated transport systems. Prioritising efficient and convenient transport infrastructure over other developments often becomes an extremely perplexing effort in localities. The implementation of spatial plans and laws in addressing spatially related development problems requires a clear relationship between spatial planning frameworks and actual land use rights. As a result, if land-use management decisions are made in a way that is disconnected from the forward-thinking expressed in the SDFs, the SDF's long-term spatial goals will be frustrating and difficult to achieve.

4. The transport economics in urban areas of developing countries

Stubbs, Tyson and Dalvi (2017) postulate that transport economics as a branch of applied microeconomics focuses on the spread of production, ideas and the economic ascendancy of mankind's dependence on movement. Transport economics is

the study of the movement of people and goods over space and time. The essence of transport economics is to figure out the best methods of allocating resources so that the supply of transport services most effectively meets the demand (Stubbs *et al.*, 2017; Teffo *et al.*, 2019). This is because a valuable percentage of income is spent on individual movement as well as the movement of the items bought daily (Stubbs *et al.*, 2017; Mokgotho & Mokoele, 2020). However, the methods will vary because journeys tend to be unique based on time and space (Stubbs *et al.*, 2017).

According to Stubbs *et al.* (2017), transport economics is significant because individual mobility is one of the most valuable freedoms that come with the prospects of democracy. Furthermore, its significance is reflected in the range of economic benefits it links to transport systems. The prevalence of diverse transport methods in cities contributes to the proliferation of the urban population, travelling, trade, businesses, tourism and employment (Teffo *et al.*, 2019). Production patterns of urban entrepreneurship improve because the availability of various, convenient and cost-effective transport allows easy shifting of raw material and labour input needed to make a specific product (Teffo *et al.*, 2019). The flow of materials, merchandise and finished products become efficient. Transport also contributes to economic development by creating employment opportunities in the driving field. Companies, industries and public transport systems require more drivers to move logistics, people and other functions.

5. Integrated transport planning in south african cities

Integrated transport planning enables the effective management of facilities and services for various modes of transportation to achieve safer, faster, more comfortable, convenient and cost-effective (Mokgotho & Mokoele, 2020). A well-integrated transportation system has the potential to increase the demand for public transportation, and ultimately reduce congestion and pollution (Sagun & Anumba, 2013). The integrated transport system is imperative because it integrates the walkways, cycling path, Bus Rapid Transport (BRT) road and broad road infrastructure (Mokgotho & Mokoele, 2020). Strauss (2019) postulates that the system portrays itself as efficient and effective use of existing transport systems and provision of infrastructure and services. The essence of integrated transport planning in developing countries is to establish compact urban settings that enable the poorer group of the population to access jobs, education and economic opportunities while spending fewer costs on transport (Zhao *et al.*, 2016).

5.1. Challenges

- Poor spatial planning

Spatial planning that becomes an end to designing, regulating and controlling urban centres (McClure & Baker, 2018) undermines societal needs at all costs. Spatial planning interventions should strive to integrate planning systems and attributes from various sectors such as transportation, energy and waste disposal and housing (Wang, Huang & Huang, 2018; Busayo *et al.*, 2019) to address the socio-economic is-

sues experienced by people about transport systems. Poor spatial planning efforts potentially contribute to the fragmented land-use plans and unsafe settlements that are without adequate provision of infrastructure and critical services. In some instances, charismatic spatial plans are formulated with a dose of lack of facilitation during implementation. The absence of effective coordination and regulation of plans is a major constraint in development (O'Neill, 2010; Mogano & Mokoelé, 2017; Mokgotho & Mokoelé, 2020). This has led to a sense of dissatisfaction with planning, linked to an unrealistic notion that the inclusion of an item in the plan does not necessarily mean it will be implemented (Keeton & Nijhuis, 2019). Lack of proper planning tools constantly weakens the planning systems and approaches that are put forward for spatial development. Moreover, the lack of essential technical skills in urban transport planning, management and operations decrease the potential success of an integrated transport system (Senyakoe, 2011; Keeton & Nijhuis, 2019). Poor spatial planning can be intrigued by the absence of appropriate building technologies and ecologically sound designs to establish the integrated transport system (United Nations Economic Commission for Europe (UNECE), 2008).

- Inadequate budget for maintenance of transport infrastructure

An inadequate budget for the maintenance of public transport infrastructure and facilities prevails in most South African townships. The root cause of the inadequacy of funds is because municipalities are constantly faced with budget constraints and the need to provide the municipal services with the funding allocated to them. The funding received by municipalities from the national and provincial government and other sources for municipal services needs to be distributed amongst the various departments to provide these services. Therefore, the challenge then arises when transport infrastructure competes with other essential services such as health and housing in municipalities (Mokgotho & Mokoelé, 2020). However, a huge percentage of roads with major economic activities leading to growth points are dilapidated, consisting of potholes and are no longer roadworthy (Langeberg Local Municipality, 2016). In Langeberg Local Municipality the dilapidation of roads contributes to the high traffic congestion that occurs towards the growth points (Langeberg Local Municipality, 2016). This is because people drive with caution and decreased speed.

- Citizens' dependency on private transportation

A high proportion of the population in urban areas use private cars to move from one point to the other instead of public transport (Mokgotho & Mokoelé, 2020). The complex relationship between urban expansion and transportation connections has resulted in a decrease in the use of non-motorised and public transportation, which signalled a massive increase in the use of private vehicles (Zhao *et al.*, 2016). The dependency on private cars by urban labour forces raises concerns about the adequacy of planners to centre their attention on transport planning and development (O'Neill, 2010). Most municipalities are reluctant to change the colonial planning set up to accommodate the integrated transport system and different modes of transport (Man-

ley & Gopaul, 2015; Hoover, 2021). Hoover (2021) concurs that the combination of motorists, industrial trucks, different public transport contributes to crowdings, such as high cost of space, traffic congestion, noise, and pollution. Traffic jams are a daily reality on many motorways existing in urban areas, whereby cities become more and more inaccessible (UNECE, 2008). Thus, affecting the quality of life of the populations as a result of having difficulties effectively practising their livelihood activities because of time constraints.

5.2. To address the challenges experienced by the municipalities to implement integrated transport

5.2.1. Shift the spatial planning approach

Over the past decades, spatial planning was used as a mechanism within which the design of urban centres can be conditioned, regulated and controlled (McClure & Baker, 2018). Recently, spatial planning laws have changed to cover the broader areas that strive to integrate planning systems from diverse sectors such as transportation, energy and waste disposal and housing (Wang *et al.*, 2018; Busayo *et al.*, 2019). To face the problems of readjustment in the urban economy and to maintain the competitiveness of public transportation, spatial planning approaches and techniques based on spatial planning legal frameworks should attempt to develop and extend the transportation system. Sustainable transportation networks are critical for a country's economic performance and prosperity (Zhao *et al.*, 2016). Transport-centred development should be fostered at the heart of the city as spatial planning interventions to redress the ancient spatial planning deficiencies. According to UNECE (2008), the new forms of public transport can be encouraged to eradicate the apartheid-borne deficiencies. Therefore, the focus of the spatial interventions will be on the creation of various stations for various modes of transport such as buses, train and rail services to create a more efficient public transportation system for different income groups (Strauss, 2019). In addition, the greater use of more sustainable means of public transport for moving people and high-capacity freight expands public transport demand due to the comfortability, reliable quality, cost-effectiveness and convenience offered (Strauss, 2019). The process can be aided by forming an impartial group comprising of representatives from the government, the private sector, volunteers, and international observers to examine the operation of spatial planning systems and interventions and give recommendations for reform and priority measures (UNECE, 2008).

5.2.2. Procure external/private spatial planners and town planners

Central and regional government levels of most countries have been depending on special external agencies on spatial planning. External agencies are entrusted with specific duties involving urgent and focused planning challenges, such as the creation of new communities or the regeneration of ageing industrial zones (UNECE, 2008). Therefore, active engagements by the organisations should be fostered to establish a healthy partnership with regional and local stakeholders who should be

represented on their managing board (UNECE, 2008).

5.2.3. Infrastructure development incentives through Public-private partnerships

The process of spatial planning will not yield the intended results on its own. Rather, the collective will of all affected stakeholders, combined with the creation of a credible framework for action, will facilitate a transparent and attainable net change that will improve the community's transportation system (UNECE, 2008). Infrastructure development focused on transport intervention cannot entirely be achieved through public expenditure due to heavy capital requirements which call for private sector engagement. Urban areas are constructed to function as a formal business sector consisting of a wide range of stakeholders such as potential investors, landowners, utility providers, multinational companies and manufacturing companies (O'Neill, 2010). Industries, retail companies and agricultural enterprises existing in the municipalities tend to be the major beneficiaries of the integrated transport system because they require good logistic systems to allow for a more efficient delivery system for goods that saves time.

5.2.4. Implementation of E-tolling system to generate funds to maintain the existing transport infrastructure and plan for the construction of more improved transport infrastructure

E-tolling is a system consisting of the electronic toll collection processes employed by South Africa's roads agency (SANRAL) on selected toll roads or toll lanes, subject to the Sanral Act of 1998. E-toll charges have been existing for many years to date and they are seen as an excellent tool for transport planners and policymakers to achieve better transport management (Albert & Mahalel, 2006). Odeck and Kjerkreit (2010) concur that e-tolls ensure quicker maintenance and fund infrastructure than would be possible with government revenues alone. Therefore, the usage fees will be deducted from e-tags that road users are in a position of or they will be billed from the vehicle owner by tracing the car using its registration number in circumstances where the road user does not have an e-tag (Manley & Gopaul, 2015). The e-tolling system has been implemented in Gauteng province following various criticisms. The systems were created to help fund the R20 billion Gauteng Freeway Improvement Project (GFIP), which began in 2007 and was mainly completed by April 2011. However, the implementation of the e-toll was followed by a vast number of criticisms. The system is thought to be too expensive, overly complex, and hence unimplementable, as well as a threat to the province's economic well-being (TollfreeGP, 2011). According to Chance (2014) and Matroos (2014), e-tolls are killing small businesses because they increase overall business expenditure.

5.2.5. Application and adherence of SPLUMA to authorise project approvals

Section 30 of SPLUMA seeks to address the issue of spatial development initiatives approvals caused by bureaucracy or red tape. However, De Vissor and Poswa (2019)

argue that section 30 of SPLUMA reflects an ambitious model because numerous state agencies entrusted with appraising various interests impacted by development will be hesitant to hand up control of their decision-making processes to a joint process, let alone a shared decision.

5.2.6. Establishing alternative routes to major growth points

According to O'Neill (2010), rehabilitation and Expansion of Public Transport Systems can be an effective solution to most of the challenges hindering integrated transport in urban areas of developing countries. In the current intensifying urban demographic trends, the existing roads are becoming overwhelmed due to the high population they cater for. Therefore, the development of more road networks is essential for successful integrated transport of cities with population hikes. To create a surge in the improvement of the integrated transport system in Polokwane local municipality, South Africa, alternative roads that lead to the city centres from the fringe townships can be developed. The essence of alternative roads is to provide different modes of transport with different routes to use. Thus, saving time, costs, congestion and heavy traffic. As a result, transport systems can be easily monitored based on categories. Transport infrastructure will experience some sort of relief due to serving and servicing a minimum percentage of the population. Therefore, the municipality will also experience relief in the maintenance costs as the deterioration rate will be decreased.

6. Spatial economic attributes and integrated transport

The focus of achieving and supporting sustainable planning and development is spatial planning, as well as its alignment and interface with transportation planning and environmental management (Schoeman, 2015). Spatial economic attributes can be referred to as the characteristics confined within a specific location consequently providing means for production, distribution and consumption of goods and services. The allocation of (limited) resources throughout geography and the placement of economic activity are topics in spatial economics. Hoover (2019) concurs that spatial economic attributes relate to the different kinds of economic activities practised in the proximity of space, location, between settlements, bringing about major socio-economic improvements to the populations. Integrated transportation entails mixing various means of transportation to maximize the user's convenience and efficiency in terms of time, cost, comfort, safety, accessibility, and convenience. Consequently, integrated transport should enable the connection of park and ride facilities and stations. In addition, this includes the connections between cycleways and public transport; as well as the connections between public transport and retail/commercial centres that are popular destinations or major growth points (Sagun & Anumba, 2013). Strauss (2019) states that to achieve an integrated transport system, spatial planning interventions and designs should ensure connectivity, reduce travel costs, reduce the number and length of trips and reduce car dependence. Diverse transport means infrastructure and modes should be made available, with different segments readily

connecting nearby in terms of space and time (Strauss, 2019). There should be reasonable travel time and costs between major spatial growth points. Connected infrastructure is referred to investment in innovative urban infrastructure and technology, with a focus on smarter transportation systems to connect and harness the economic benefits of increasingly compact urban forms (Zhao *et al.*, 2016). The transport systems operating in a connected infrastructure location would connect mixed-use, employment, housing and commercial clusters. On average, cities with better connections between economic activity and public transportation have higher economic productivity, purchasing power, and a higher quality of life, and they also attract more direct investment (Zhao *et al.*, 2016).

The establishment of adequate road infrastructure and availability of various types of transport will enable people to have mobility and safe access to essential spatial economic characteristics existing within localities. The combination of economic activities and sustainable means of transport creates urban competitiveness and productivity (Zhao *et al.*, 2016). Access to towns and major growth points for various purposes which include work, businesses, livelihood facilitation or other socio-economic activities as well as access to a variety of social services (education and health institutions) which will contribute to a good quality of life. The availability of diverse transport systems potentially leads to greater productivity and economic growth on land which provides people with livelihood diversification options as well as increases the patterns of growth in a settlement.

7. Conclusion

The article investigated the relationship between spatial economic attributes and integrated transport systems, factoring in the role they play in improving the quality of human lives and developing sustainable settlements. The Spatial Planning and Land Use Management Act 16 of 23 13 (SPLUMA) provides a turn-around mechanism towards the enhancement of the standard of living of the disadvantaged groups. The primary sources of income and integrated transport systems are dependent on allocations from the National Treasury, revenue from municipal services and revenue from toll roads, which are funded from money and capital markets as well as investment promotion. It can be deduced from the literature perused that the urban areas of developing countries constantly encounter dilemmas in facilitating a more coordinated and well-resourced integrated transport system. The paper strongly suggests that there is a serious need for urban areas to sympathize with the trying populations in the outskirts through the provision of more efficient and connected public transport services. The responsibility is placed on the local government as the practical sphere of the government. The constitution of the Republic of South Africa together with SPLUMA concurs that the local government is the main actor in the spatial planning and development of integrated and sustainable cities through the Spatial Development Framework.

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