NATIONAL REPORT
BY THE REPUBLIC OF
SOUTH AFRICA FOR
THE THIRD UNITED
NATIONS CONFERENCE
ON HOUSING AND
SUSTAINABLE URBAN
DEVELOPMENT

HABITAT III
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<td>Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome</td>
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<tr>
<td>BAAM</td>
<td>Business-Adopt-A-Municipality</td>
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<tr>
<td>BNG</td>
<td>Breaking New Ground, the Comprehensive Plan for the Creation of Sustainable Human Settlements</td>
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<tr>
<td>BRICS</td>
<td>Brazil, Russia, India, China and South Africa</td>
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<td>BRT</td>
<td>Bus Rapid Transport</td>
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<td>CAPCO</td>
<td>Chief Air Pollution Control Officer</td>
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<td>CBO</td>
<td>Community Based Organisation</td>
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<td>CCTV</td>
<td>Closed-Circuit Television</td>
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<td>CPF</td>
<td>Community Policing Forum</td>
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<td>CRDP</td>
<td>Comprehensive Rural Development Programme</td>
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<td>CSIR</td>
<td>Council for Scientific and Industrial Research</td>
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<td>CSP</td>
<td>National Treasury Cities Support Programme</td>
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<td>DBSA</td>
<td>Development Bank of Southern Africa</td>
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<td>DMA</td>
<td>Disaster Management Act</td>
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<td>Department of Transport</td>
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<td>DRDRLR</td>
<td>Department of Rural Development and Land Reform</td>
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<td>DTI</td>
<td>Department of Trade and Industry</td>
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<td>ELGOSA</td>
<td>Enhanced Local Government Support Approach</td>
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<td>EPWP</td>
<td>Expanded Public Works Programme</td>
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<td>FBW</td>
<td>Free Basic Water</td>
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<td>FEDUP</td>
<td>Federation of the Urban Poor</td>
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<td>FLISP</td>
<td>Finance Linked Individual Subsidy Programme</td>
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<td>Financial Services Charter</td>
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<td>GAP</td>
<td>Geospatial Analyses Platform</td>
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<td>Gross Domestic Product</td>
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<td>Gauteng Freeway Improvement Programme</td>
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<td>GHS</td>
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<td>GVA</td>
<td>Gross Value Added</td>
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<td>Integrated Development Plan</td>
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<td>ISRDP</td>
<td>Integrated Sustainable Rural Development Programme</td>
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<td>IUDF</td>
<td>Integrated Urban Development Framework</td>
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<td>JIPSA</td>
<td>Joint Initiative on Priority Skills Acquisition</td>
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<td>LED</td>
<td>Local Economic Development</td>
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<td>MDG</td>
<td>Millennium Development Goals</td>
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<td>MEC</td>
<td>Member of the Executive Council (of Provincial Government)</td>
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<td>Abbreviation</td>
<td>Full Form</td>
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<tr>
<td>MFMA</td>
<td>Municipal Finance Management Act</td>
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<td>Municipal Systems Act</td>
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<td>MTSF</td>
<td>Medium Term Strategic Framework</td>
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<td>National Air Quality Management Programme</td>
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<td>Non-Motorized Transport</td>
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<td>NYDA</td>
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<td>OECD</td>
<td>Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development</td>
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<td>PGDS</td>
<td>Provincial Growth and Development Strategy</td>
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<td>PICC</td>
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<td>Public Private Partnership</td>
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<td>Rural Development and Land Reform</td>
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<td>RDP</td>
<td>Reconstruction and Development Programme</td>
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<td>RISFSA</td>
<td>Road Infrastructure Strategic Framework for South Africa</td>
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<td>South African Cities Network</td>
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<td>South African Local Government Association</td>
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<td>SANRAL</td>
<td>South African National Roads Agency Ltd</td>
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<td>SANS</td>
<td>South African National Standard</td>
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<td>Spatial Temporal Evidence for Planning in South Africa</td>
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<td>Travel Demand Management</td>
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<td>Upgrading of Informal Settlements Programme</td>
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Foreword by President JG Zuma

I am greatly honoured, as Head of State and Government of the Republic of South Africa, to endorse our country’s Report to the Third United Nations Conference on Human Settlements and Sustainable Urbanisation (HABITAT III). The submission of this Report coincides with an extraordinary moment in the history of our country and its people’s struggle for national liberation, human rights and fundamental freedoms. This year, 2014, marks the celebration of twenty years since the attainment of democratic rule under the leadership of the late President Nelson Rolihlahla Mandela.

In 1955, the African National Congress, the current ruling party and our continent’s oldest modern liberation movement, held a People’s Congress which gave birth to the Freedom Charter which was adopted by delegates at Kliptown on 26 June 1955. The Freedom Charter declared that:

“South Africa belongs to all who live in it, black and white, and that no government can justly claim authority unless it is based on the will of all the people; that our people have been robbed of their birth right to land, liberty and peace by a form of government founded on injustice and inequality; that our country will never be prosperous or free until all our people live in brotherhood, enjoying equal rights and opportunities; that only a democratic state, based on the will of all the people, can secure to all their birth right without distinction of colour, race, sex or belief”.

After many years of struggle, and following the attainment of democracy in 1994, in May 2014, South Africans exercised their democratic right for the fifth time of choosing a government of their choice, heralding the celebratory ‘20 years of Freedom’ slogan.

As we reflect on our achievements since democracy, and since the adoption thereafter, of the Habitat Agenda in 1996, we look forward to a new global commitment for the next 20 years through Habitat III. We would urge that consideration be given to the following:

- Land is a critical path of delivery for housing, infrastructure and service delivery. The issue of land for human settlements development is not only a critical aspect for South Africa but also of Africa as highlighted in the Durban Declaration, the Abuja Declaration and the Bamako Declaration of the African Ministerial Conference on Housing and Urban Development. Land availability is an important aspect to promote security of tenure and access to livelihoods for the urban poor.

- Access to bulk infrastructure for the provision of basic services is an acute obstacle to the development of human settlements in South Africa as we struggle to address the needs of our communities and respond to rapid urbanisation.
South Africa is working hard to promote more environmentally friendly human settlements with better use of ‘green’ technologies and the greening of public spaces. Through increased slum upgrading and more focused management of informal settlements we believe we can make our contribution to the improvement of the quality of household life and climate change mitigation through the reduction of harmful emissions, pollution and improved energy efficiency.

Since poverty manifests itself as deprivation in terms of basic needs and the experience of vulnerability, powerlessness and exclusion, particularly with regard to sections of the women and youth populations, we must remain committed to our endeavor for redress and inclusivity. We intend to promote densification, our access to suitable land for inclusive human settlements, security of tenure, accelerated access to basic services, and in so doing create opportunities for the poor to build sustainable livelihoods.

In support of these endeavours, Government is committed to providing R840 billion for infrastructure development over the next five years. For South Africa, habitat is not only about a roof above the head but a package that comprises all the essential elements for a sustainable human settlement. This includes provision of transport, a healthy and ‘liveable’ urban environment, clean drinking water, energy provision, sanitation, health, education, roads, job opportunities, and food security. Indeed, over the past twenty years we have expanded support for the marginalized and vulnerable households through investment in housing, extension of social grants programmes and improved access to education and primary health care.

South Africa has been an active proponent of the Habitat Agenda, supporting and promoting its objectives in action, as this Report will demonstrate. We now very much look forward to further global partnerships and country initiatives to take forward an exciting new programme of development and equitable growth through the forthcoming adoption of the new Habitat III Agenda.

Mr Jacob Gedleyihlekisa Zuma
President of the Republic of South Africa
Introduction by LN Sisulu, Minister of Human Settlements

The creation of integrated human settlements and managed urbanisation are leading policy issues in the ongoing transformation and development of South Africa. There is an urgent need to increase our focus on building sustainable human settlements and managing our urban development challenges if we want to see the Vision 2030 of South Africa, as articulated in the National Development Plan, realised.

Our overarching objective is the creation of liveable, resilient and inclusive cities and towns, an objective that demands we accelerate our efforts for spatial transformation and equity in terms of access to the city’s services and opportunities. Our main urban problems are rooted in pervasive legacies of inequality and poverty, and thus creating sustainable livelihoods for all of our people is our priority.

The purpose of this national report is to provide an overview of the multi-faceted development trajectory of South Africa over the last two decades, as well as to reflect upon and highlight the areas we believe to be the most crucial to focus on for the new Agenda.

We wish to forge the necessary synergies to achieve this with our government, with UN Habitat, and with our partners. Together we will create the collaborative platforms to forge a transformative human settlements and urban development trajectory that significantly advances our ongoing efforts.

HABITAT I of 1976 and HABITAT II of 1996 have played a leading role in defining human settlements, and developing the policy pre-scripts that have moulded South Africa’s approach to progressively realising the right to adequate shelter and basic services.

Preparations for HABITAT III come at the time when we are developing our Integrated Urban Policy Framework (IUDF) and commencing preparations for our Green Paper on Human Settlements. The preparatory process toward Habitat III enables us to actively engage with new thinking around addressing human settlements and urbanisation. It would thus galvanise us for achieving the vision for human settlements and safer communities outlined in Chapters 8 and 9 of South Africa’s National Development Plan, providing a guideline and lasting legacy for the South African development agenda and the global development agenda. It will ensure a strong focus on urbanisation and human settlements as an important facet of sustainable development.

The South African National Report for Habitat III has been developed in consultation with key stakeholders. We established a working group of key national departments and local government organisations to develop the first draft report. Inputs were drawn from South Africa’s 20 Year Review and Millennium Development Goal Reports, as well as information sources from government department and agencies. The draft
report was presented and further discussed with sector stakeholders in a National Workshop on 26 June 2014. The national workshop, under the auspices of the National Forum on Human Settlements and Urban Development, brought together stakeholders from National Government, Local Authorities, institutions under the Department of Human Settlements, Civil Society and Private Sector Organisations, academic institutions and think-tanks, who, through robust discussion, provided inputs to the draft National Report and priorities for a new global urban agenda.

I therefore believe that this report well illustrates the good practices of the last 20 years, the challenges experienced and the lessons learned; it also clearly identifies some of the key issues we would like to see addressed in the New Urban Agenda. It will form the basis for our engagement in the international sphere about what we would like to see reflected as a global action plan on human settlements and urban development for the next 20 years.

We look forward to a continuing and productive partnership with UN Habitat in this regard.

LN Sisulu, MP
Minister of Human Settlements
Republic of South Africa
Chapter I: Urban Demographic Issues and Challenges for a New Urban Agenda

1. Managing Rapid Urbanisation

The country’s national development plan, the NDP, has estimated that by 2030 the urban population will grow by an additional 7.8 million people. This makes planned urbanisation a priority for the country.

South Africa entered the democratic era with a population of around 40 million people of whom 53% lived in urban areas, and 43% in the previous homeland areas (or Bantustans), usually in a high degree of poverty. But since the ending of Apartheid, there have been significant shifts in South Africa’s space economy, with corresponding flows of household and individual migration between urban centres as people looked for new opportunities and access to urban services. The population size has increased noticeably from 40.6 million in 1996 to 51.8 million in 2011.

As can be seen from Figure 1 below, there has been a noticeable increase in the share of the population in the most urbanised provinces, such as in Gauteng, which increased from 19.3% in 1996 to 23.7% in 2011. The significant population growth across urban provinces is indicated by Figure 1 below, while Figure 2 highlights differentials in migration flows.

Figure 1: Shifts in the percentage distribution of population nationally between provinces, 1996 and 2011

![Chart showing shifts in the percentage distribution of population nationally between provinces, 1996 and 2011.](chart.png)
High growth rates have taken place in the country’s major towns and cities such as Johannesburg, Pretoria and Cape Town in particular. According to a report by the Human Sciences Research Council, 63% of the total population growth between 2001 and 2011 occurred in just eight cities, mostly as a result of rural-to-urban migration, household splitting and natural population growth. Another emerging trend is the growth taking place in certain smaller, or secondary towns, at times putting a strain on the provision of housing, sanitation and other services, due to insufficient resources to plan for, and accommodate this growth. This reality makes overcoming services backlogs in urbanising areas a ‘moving target’.

There is thus an urgent need to develop a national approach to the challenges of urban growth. It is for this reason that the National Development Plan (NDP) requires government to put in place an urban development strategy to make urban spaces liveable, equitable, sustainable, resilient and efficient as well as support economic growth and social cohesion. Key in this regard is a systematic response to entrenched apartheid spatial patterns, particularly the exclusionary city planning, that continue to exacerbate social inequality and economic inefficiencies.

Whilst still struggling to overcome these legacies, a number of initiatives were put in place since 1996 as a response to rapid urbanisation and its associated challenges:

**Urban Renewal Programme:** In 2001 government launched the Urban Renewal Programme (URP) with the intention of conducting a sustained campaign against urban poverty and underdevelopment by bringing in

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1 Net migration in this figure refers to province of enumeration by province of previous residence – StatsSA (2012) Provinces at a Glance


3 National Planning Commission, National Development Plan – A vision for 2030, 2012
the resources of all three spheres of government in a co-ordinated manner. In the urban nodes access to water supply and electricity notably increased, with some areas reaching 100 per cent connection rates.

**Inner City Regeneration:** Many inner city spaces fell to neglect, characterised by decaying and uninviting spaces. However, over the past 10 years significant public and private investments have gone into many inner-city areas to revitalise them and turn them into quality spaces for cultural, business and residential purposes. The physical, social and economic environment of previously neglected inner city areas are being revitalised through precinct-based approaches in cities such as Johannesburg, Durban and Port Elizabeth, and partnership-based approaches in Cape Town and Johannesburg. Furthermore, national programmes like Re Kgabisa Tshwane are changing the face on inner-Tshwane through the upgrading of government owned buildings.

**City Development Strategies:** Most metropolitan municipalities have developed long-term growth and development strategies. These strategies assist to them plan their cities better, and inform the 5 year Integrated Development Plans and the budget.

**Integrated Urban Development Framework (IUDF):** Following the adoption of our National Development Plan, government, in 2014, is developing an urban policy framework to ensure that we have well planned and managed urban spaces. The IUDF sets out a policy framework on how the urban system in South Africa can be reoriented so that cities and towns can become increasingly liveable, inclusive and resource efficient over the next 20-30 years. The IUDF also recognises that urban and rural areas operate on a continuum and proposes measures to strengthen our rural-urban linkages.

### 2. Managing Rural-Urban Linkages

It is now widely acknowledged that there exists an economic, social and environmental interdependence between rural and urban areas, and a need for balanced and mutually supportive approaches to development of the two areas. The rural-urban linkage development approach invites us to consider and capitalise the growing flow of public and private capital, people (migration and commuting), goods (trade), ideas and information between the urban and rural areas in order to gain a better understanding of the dynamics of the rural-urban interface. This understanding is also important for the formulation of national poverty reduction strategies, especially in South Africa where both rapid urbanisation and rural-urban disparities co-exist.

The increasingly changing situation in South Africa and elsewhere has pointed to the need to recognise the existence of rural-urban linkages within emerging policy contexts. Accordingly, the solution to the poverty problem in rural areas cannot be found in the rural economy alone. Indeed, poverty, unemployment, inequality, and environmental challenges are national problems that require both rural and urban places to deal with them collectively. This recognition informs the National Development Plan (NDP).

The NDP recommends that new strategies are needed to ensure that rural areas achieve their full economic and social potential. Economically, it is clear that rural growth cannot occur without access to urban markets and a vibrant non-farm sector⁴. Equally so, the growth of urban areas can be compromised by inadequate rural development that distorts principles of equity and sustainable growth patterns.

However, since democracy, a number of

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initiatives have been implemented, to seek redress for rural poverty and neglect.

**The Integrated Sustainable Rural Development Programme**

In 2001, the government launched the Integrated Sustainable Rural Development Programme (ISRDP) with the intention to conduct a sustained campaign against rural and urban poverty and underdevelopment by bringing in the resources of all three spheres of government in a co-ordinated manner. The programme sought to transform the 15 ‘nodal’ areas into socially cohesive and stable communities with viable institutions, sustainable economies and universal access to social amenities. It was conceived as a 10-year initiative, with various implementation phases.

A number of nodes had increased access of water from a point inside the yard or inside the homestead, and significant water backlog reduction was reported. Major challenges reported in the 21 nodes related to weak electricity supply and lack of power supply to households. Post programme impact studies reported that poverty in the rural nodes had decreased by 9.8% over the duration of the programme, which also focused on state intervention for employment creation through the introduction of the Expanded Public Works Programme (EPWP). Through the EPWP, some 46,000 jobs were created in the rural nodes, including for the youth, women and people with disabilities.

Bearing in mind the lessons learned, *The Comprehensive Rural Development Programme (CRDP)* was established in 2010, with the aim of developing vibrant, equitable and sustainable rural communities. To achieve this vision, the national department of Rural Development and Land Reform (RDLR) defined its role and mission as being that of facilitating integrated development and social cohesion through partnerships with all sectors of society.

Thus focusing on linkages between rural and urban areas helps reframe our understanding of how development occurs in different spaces, and how effective planning and intergovernmental relations can work to sustain both spaces.

**3. Addressing Urban Youth Needs**

Two-thirds (66.8%) of the South Africa population are younger than 35 years old. The youth constitute 37% of the population and Black Africans constitute 83.2% of the youth. This age cohort is critical for the country’s continued development and demographic evolution as they represent new entrants to the labour market and will serve as the basis for future demographic growth. Access to quality education and skills development, quality and affordable health services, including modern sexual and reproductive services as well as access to decent employment opportunities are therefore prerequisites to reaping the so-called ‘demographic dividend’.

**Institutional Machinery to advance Youth Development**

South Africa has made significant progress in advancing youth empowerment through the following institutional machinery:


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5 Defined as persons between the ages of 15 and 34
Youth Employment Interventions

Government is implementing a National Infrastructure Plan which looks at strategic integrated projects to create jobs and strengthening local industries through spending on raw materials, capital equipment and machinery. As such the expansion of existing capacity and enhancement of South Africa’s existing capabilities in the manufacturing of heavy components and equipment is the driving force of the Infrastructure Plan. This will ensure there is strategic focus on local production and investment. The targeted industry segments for job creation include amongst others bitumen, steel, cement and timber.

Government has also launched a green economy programme in order to create new jobs, spur industrialization and help create a sustainable future, for which opportunities for youth employment must be targeted.

Education and Skills Development Interventions

One of the skills shortages in South Africa in particular the construction industry is the lack of artisans. Government has made the following interventions:

- Over 41 000 learners have entered artisan training by March 2013;
- Over 21 500 learners have completed artisan training by 2013
- About 14 961 FET and university students placed by March 2014
- 4500 students placed in engineering sector by March 2013
- Over 21 500 learners completed artisan training by March 2013

Enrollment in higher education doubled in terms of race and gender. Further, out of 14 million learners, 12 million are in public schools.

Access to Services

Access to basic amenities is a good indicator of the standard of living for a population. Table 1 compares access to basic amenities with the other population groupings, such as access to land tenure, access to piped water, access to flush toilets in their houses or dwellings, access to waste and refuse removal, access to electricity, access to phones and access to internet.

Table 1 below also compares access to basic amenities with the other population groupings. There has been a slight increase in the population of youth living in formal dwellings between 2005 (68%) to 73.6% in 2009. The table also shows a slight decrease in youths living in traditional and informal dwellings over the same period. This indicates that housing for young people is improving in the country, more young people are now residing in formal dwellings, however, youth still living in informal dwellings is very high (12.1%).

See Annexure B for research report by StepSA on youth unemployment.
### Table 1:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Access to Service Indicator</th>
<th>Age Cohorts</th>
<th>Year (Percentage)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2005</td>
<td>2006</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Tenure status</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% youth living in dwellings</td>
<td>15–24</td>
<td>84,0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>that are partially or fully owned</td>
<td>25–34</td>
<td>72,3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>15–34</td>
<td>78,7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Population</td>
<td></td>
<td>82,0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Access to water</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% youth living in dwellings</td>
<td>15–24</td>
<td>61,4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>with piped water in house or</td>
<td>25–34</td>
<td>70,2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>yard</td>
<td>15–34</td>
<td>66,4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Population</td>
<td></td>
<td>64,3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sanitation</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% youth living in dwellings</td>
<td>15–24</td>
<td>46,8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>with flush toilet with on or</td>
<td>25–34</td>
<td>57,0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>off-site disposal</td>
<td>15–34</td>
<td>51,5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total population</td>
<td></td>
<td>51,0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Refuse/Waste</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% youth living in dwellings</td>
<td>15–24</td>
<td>51,5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>with rubbish removed by</td>
<td>25–34</td>
<td>62,2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>municipality</td>
<td>15–34</td>
<td>56,4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total population</td>
<td></td>
<td>56,1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Electricity</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% youth living in dwellings</td>
<td>15–24</td>
<td>78,8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>which are connected to mains</td>
<td>25–34</td>
<td>80,4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>15–34</td>
<td>79,5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total population</td>
<td></td>
<td>79,4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Telephone</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% youth living in dwellings</td>
<td>15–24</td>
<td>69,5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>with landline or cellular</td>
<td>25–34</td>
<td>70,9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>phone in the dwelling</td>
<td>15–34</td>
<td>70,2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total population</td>
<td></td>
<td>69,2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Internet</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% youth living in dwellings</td>
<td>15–24</td>
<td>4,1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>with access to the Internet</td>
<td>25–34</td>
<td>3,8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>15–34</td>
<td>4,0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total population</td>
<td></td>
<td>5,0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4. **Responding to the Needs of the Aged**

South Africa remains committed to addressing the welfare needs of the elderly by ensuring their dignity and respect as enshrined in the South African Constitution and various other policies and instruments. The Older Persons Act (No. 13 of 2006) provides a framework for the promotion and protection of the rights of older persons. As reported in the GHS, Census 2011 and most recently the 2013 Mid-Year Estimates, the elderly population is growing, presenting socioeconomic challenges as well as opportunities which the government needs to be able to address. Among other things, the widespread role of older people in caring for children presents a unique set of challenges.7

Table 2 below compares the living conditions for older persons with that of the general population. Table 3 shows the housing typology of elderly headed households, while Table 4 shows the housing typology for older persons in general.

---


---

**Table 2: Comparison of Various Living Conditions for Older Persons, 2002-2011**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Access to service indicator</th>
<th>Age cohorts</th>
<th>2002</th>
<th>2003</th>
<th>2004</th>
<th>2005</th>
<th>2006</th>
<th>2007</th>
<th>2008</th>
<th>2009</th>
<th>2010</th>
<th>2011</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tenant status</td>
<td>60+</td>
<td>85.5</td>
<td>88.7</td>
<td>87.1</td>
<td>88.7</td>
<td>89.0</td>
<td>88.1</td>
<td>90.9</td>
<td>84.6</td>
<td>86.7</td>
<td>81.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Population</td>
<td>79.1</td>
<td>81.6</td>
<td>80.6</td>
<td>81.0</td>
<td>81.4</td>
<td>79.1</td>
<td>82.4</td>
<td>74.8</td>
<td>79.8</td>
<td>71.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Access to water</td>
<td>60+</td>
<td>63.7</td>
<td>64.4</td>
<td>61.5</td>
<td>66.4</td>
<td>69.6</td>
<td>69.2</td>
<td>66.4</td>
<td>70.4</td>
<td>71.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Population</td>
<td>62.1</td>
<td>62.7</td>
<td>61.1</td>
<td>64.3</td>
<td>66.1</td>
<td>67.0</td>
<td>67.2</td>
<td>66.4</td>
<td>68.0</td>
<td>69.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Improved sanitation</td>
<td>60+</td>
<td>57.3</td>
<td>58.6</td>
<td>61.5</td>
<td>63.3</td>
<td>65.0</td>
<td>68.7</td>
<td>69.4</td>
<td>72.0</td>
<td>73.4</td>
<td>75.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Population</td>
<td>54.1</td>
<td>56.5</td>
<td>55.2</td>
<td>60.6</td>
<td>62.1</td>
<td>65.2</td>
<td>66.5</td>
<td>69.2</td>
<td>72.4</td>
<td>74.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Refuse/waste</td>
<td>60+</td>
<td>51.5</td>
<td>52.3</td>
<td>52.2</td>
<td>56.3</td>
<td>57.7</td>
<td>58.4</td>
<td>57.9</td>
<td>49.7</td>
<td>56.3</td>
<td>60.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Population</td>
<td>51.0</td>
<td>52.0</td>
<td>52.1</td>
<td>55.1</td>
<td>55.8</td>
<td>56.0</td>
<td>55.5</td>
<td>48.3</td>
<td>51.4</td>
<td>59.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Electricity</td>
<td>60+</td>
<td>76.6</td>
<td>78.0</td>
<td>80.5</td>
<td>83.9</td>
<td>84.3</td>
<td>85.7</td>
<td>85.0</td>
<td>87.0</td>
<td>89.0</td>
<td>89.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Population</td>
<td>74.3</td>
<td>76.2</td>
<td>78.7</td>
<td>79.4</td>
<td>80.1</td>
<td>81.7</td>
<td>82.1</td>
<td>82.9</td>
<td>84.9</td>
<td>86.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Energy for cooking</td>
<td>60+</td>
<td>34.3</td>
<td>34.1</td>
<td>31.1</td>
<td>26.2</td>
<td>24.1</td>
<td>24.3</td>
<td>25.0</td>
<td>24.2</td>
<td>22.1</td>
<td>20.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Population</td>
<td>37.0</td>
<td>37.4</td>
<td>30.5</td>
<td>26.5</td>
<td>24.4</td>
<td>24.3</td>
<td>24.7</td>
<td>23.6</td>
<td>21.5</td>
<td>19.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Telephone</td>
<td>60+</td>
<td>50.3</td>
<td>51.2</td>
<td>58.3</td>
<td>68.8</td>
<td>72.0</td>
<td>77.0</td>
<td>79.0</td>
<td>85.0</td>
<td>89.0</td>
<td>91.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Population</td>
<td>45.6</td>
<td>48.4</td>
<td>57.2</td>
<td>69.2</td>
<td>74.6</td>
<td>80.3</td>
<td>82.8</td>
<td>88.3</td>
<td>91.1</td>
<td>94.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internet</td>
<td>60+</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>10.1</td>
<td>11.7</td>
<td>12.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Population</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>7.8</td>
<td>9.3</td>
<td>8.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Department of Social Development, 2013
Table 3: Percentage of Elderly Headed Households Living in Formal, Informal and Traditional Housing, 2002-2011

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of dwelling</th>
<th>2002</th>
<th>2003</th>
<th>2004</th>
<th>2005</th>
<th>2006</th>
<th>2007</th>
<th>2008</th>
<th>2009</th>
<th>2010</th>
<th>2011</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Formal</td>
<td>74.5</td>
<td>74.9</td>
<td>76.0</td>
<td>73.6</td>
<td>71.6</td>
<td>77.8</td>
<td>78.4</td>
<td>79.2</td>
<td>81.1</td>
<td>79.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Traditional</td>
<td>18.1</td>
<td>19.1</td>
<td>20.3</td>
<td>17.9</td>
<td>15.6</td>
<td>14.8</td>
<td>16.3</td>
<td>16.0</td>
<td>15.0</td>
<td>16.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Informal</td>
<td>6.2</td>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>7.4</td>
<td>6.0</td>
<td>5.3</td>
<td>4.9</td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>4.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>0.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Per cent</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total (thousands)</td>
<td>2,044</td>
<td>2,121</td>
<td>2,225</td>
<td>2,293</td>
<td>2,350</td>
<td>2,438</td>
<td>2,655</td>
<td>2,782</td>
<td>2,925</td>
<td>3,013</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Department of Social Development, 2013

Table 4: Percentage Older Persons Living in Formal, Informal and Traditional Housing, 2002-2011

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of dwelling</th>
<th>2002</th>
<th>2003</th>
<th>2004</th>
<th>2005</th>
<th>2006</th>
<th>2007</th>
<th>2008</th>
<th>2009</th>
<th>2010</th>
<th>2011</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Formal</td>
<td>70.5</td>
<td>70.5</td>
<td>75.4</td>
<td>76.3</td>
<td>80.0</td>
<td>75.8</td>
<td>80.2</td>
<td>81.4</td>
<td>83.5</td>
<td>81.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Traditional</td>
<td>17.3</td>
<td>17.8</td>
<td>20.0</td>
<td>16.8</td>
<td>14.1</td>
<td>13.9</td>
<td>15.2</td>
<td>14.5</td>
<td>13.8</td>
<td>15.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Informal</td>
<td>5.6</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>5.1</td>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>3.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>0.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Per cent</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total (thousands)</td>
<td>2,903</td>
<td>2,956</td>
<td>3,106</td>
<td>3,209</td>
<td>3,326</td>
<td>3,412</td>
<td>3,567</td>
<td>3,719</td>
<td>3,842</td>
<td>3,342</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Department of Social Development, 2013

Table 5 below reflects applicants that were provided with a government subsidised housing opportunity since 1996, and:

1. 65 or older for date of approval before 1 April 2009; or
2. 61 years of age and older date of approval on or after 1 April 2009; or
3. 60 years of age and older date of approval after 1 April 2010.

Table 5: Older persons provided with a government subsidised housing opportunity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Aged Male</th>
<th>Aged Female</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Eastern Cape</td>
<td>13666</td>
<td>32203</td>
<td>45869</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Free State</td>
<td>11233</td>
<td>23989</td>
<td>35222</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gauteng</td>
<td>13985</td>
<td>28740</td>
<td>42725</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kwa Zulu Natal</td>
<td>18182</td>
<td>58367</td>
<td>18182</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Limpopo</td>
<td>8430</td>
<td>28628</td>
<td>37058</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mpumalanga</td>
<td>8608</td>
<td>17751</td>
<td>26359</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Northern Cape</td>
<td>3471</td>
<td>4525</td>
<td>7996</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North West</td>
<td>8938</td>
<td>16670</td>
<td>25608</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Western Cape</td>
<td>7584</td>
<td>9844</td>
<td>17428</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>94097</td>
<td>162350</td>
<td>256447</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This data illustrates the continuing need for disaggregation, in order to inform more nuanced policy-making going forward.
5. Integrating gender in urban development

Women’s access to political power and decision making has improved significantly since the 1994 elections, with women constituting 45% of Members of Parliament in 2014. This ensures that there is a political ‘voice’ for women in the country. Further, the policy of gender mainstreaming initiatives in government programmes has contributed to an increase in, among other things, the educational level of women, their employment opportunities as well as access to social grants, free basic services and better access to sexual and reproductive health services and rights – all contributing to improving women’s quality of life and that of their household members.

The Government of South Africa has developed various strategies to integrate gender in urban development. The Department of Human Settlements in particular has developed a gender responsive comprehensive plan for the creation of sustainable human settlements, and has developed guidelines for mainstreaming gender in the housing and human settlements sector. The key is to create settlements that are safe, comfortable, restore dignity of all and have access to social and economic amenities.

Further, the Department has set aside targets for the allocation of 30% of housing projects to women contractors. This is implemented through the approved framework for the empowerment and participation of women.¹

In terms of demographic trends, it is evident that many women have benefited from freedom of movement and the ability to make own choices regarding household type and size. Women are also in the majority - Census 2011 counted 26.6 million women, comprising 51.3% of the total population whereas men accounted for 25.2 million people, thus comprising 48.7% of the total population.

Table 6 below depicts that most women now live in urban formal settlement areas, or in traditional areas, implying that migration to urban areas is a dominant factor for women seeking opportunities outside of traditional roles and lifestyles. Research continues on the impact of household choices on the living standards of women, their access to jobs, education and skills training.


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Settlement type</th>
<th>Total (%)</th>
<th>Male (%)</th>
<th>Female (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Urban formal</td>
<td>58.4</td>
<td>59.8</td>
<td>57.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urban informal</td>
<td>8.4</td>
<td>9.2</td>
<td>7.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Traditional</td>
<td>28.8</td>
<td>26.0</td>
<td>31.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rural formal</td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>5.1</td>
<td>3.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: StatsSA, 2013

One important area needing much further analysis is the root cause of the extremely high levels of violence against women in South Africa. Action in this area includes social campaigns, police training and media debates. However the principles of gender equity need much wider dissemination across society.
6. Challenges Experienced and lessons learned in these areas

South Africa’s cities and large towns account for 80 per cent of South Africa’s gross value add (GVA), but booming wealthy areas are spatially juxtaposed with population concentrations in township and informal settlement areas which demonstrate unacceptably high levels of poverty and inequality: South Africa is experiencing the phenomena of the urbanisation of poverty.

This is a major social challenge, and also has major implications on service delivery, not only in city regions and cities, but especially in large towns marked by resource (especially mining) related investments, and coastal and border towns. Another key trend in urbanisation and pressure on resources is ‘household splitting’. While the actual population in urban areas increased by 28% between 1996 and 2011, the number of individual households increased by nearly double, to 55% in the same period. These trends need careful monitoring by government.

Environmentally, rapid urbanisation is also leading to increasing pollution and excess waste generation, which poses risks to the health of residents as well as threatening the environmental sustainability of urban settlements. There is a need to implement differentiated fiscal and infrastructure support to cities so that they are able to better manage these challenges and maintain stability.

The challenges to promote stronger urban-rural linkages highlight that development planners and policy makers must increasingly think of the impact of their development interventions in ways that are more integrated and emphasize the importance of analysing rural and urban economies as a united whole, and municipalities should endeavour to ensure holistic regional spatial planning and promote economic opportunities.

Coordinated and targeted infrastructure provision is also critical for linking the rural areas not only with basic services, but also with higher-level services in health, transport and education. Infrastructure works as a bridge between rural and urban worlds and between agricultural sectors and other sectors of the economy. Again, the significant importance of infrastructure is its role integrating rural economies to larger towns, cities, national markets or trade networks.

Lessons from past programmes have demonstrated the importance of coordinated investments by spheres of government as collaboration strengthens the linkages between the various spaces. This understanding informs the Small-town Revitalisation Programme (implemented by the Dept. of Public Works) and the Small Towns Programme (RDLR) and the Land Reform Programme and the Rural Infrastructure Development Programme.

Inequalities persist: although South Africa is regarded as an upper middle income country by virtue of the average national income per person or per Gross Domestic Product (GDP) per capita, the status masks extreme inequalities in income and access to opportunities. The youth and women bear the brunt of these challenges.

The South African economy has not been able to create jobs at the pace necessary to reduce the extremely high unemployment rate. South Africa’s official unemployment rate is at 27%. This impacts especially heavily on young black women and men living outside urban areas. Youth make up 71% of the unemployed in South Africa, with Black African youth aged between 15 and 24 years constituting 53% of the unemployed youth, compared to 14.5% of

White youth. There is a noticeable increase in the number of youth in South Africa’s urban areas (“Young adult seekers”, aged between 25 and 34, increased by 64% between 1996 and 2011, according to the Council for Scientific and Industrial Research, CSIR). This makes government’s current focus on youth employment especially critical.

Educational attainment is a critical determinant of young people’s future work prospects, earnings and contributions to society. The number of learners sitting for the senior certificate examination has increased and the pass rate increased tremendously. However, about half of those who enter grade one do not reach grade 12 and high dropout rates exist, particularly in grade 10 and 11. However a major challenge is that the quality of education also does not seem to be preparing the youth for high level and skilled careers.10

Challenges still persist in the provision of more secure, decent, and well-located homes for the elderly, as well as housing specifically adapted for the elderly and their needs. As with the youth, surveys of the needs of the elderly need to be done with the elderly themselves, to determine their real needs and concerns.

At local government level, there is a need revise the indigent policy: older persons and others who occupy subsidised houses are liable to pay service charges irrespective of their income. These are unaffordable to many, leading to escalating arrears and eventually to repossession and eviction. This is a terrifying prospect for an elderly person.

Unfortunately many local authorities do not have comprehensive indigent policies to assist those who cannot afford to pay the charges. Municipal rates are also unaffordable to many older homeowners with a low or fixed income, suggesting a need for more differentiation in scales and rates.

Despite the progress made in living standards and employment opportunities, poverty, unemployment and inequality still disproportionately affect women and female headed households. These conditions indicate that deliberative policy is still needed that specifically targets opportunities for women and which should further build upon the existing initiatives.11

See Annexure C for submission by South Africa’s Commission for Gender Equality.

HIV Prevalence is disproportionately concentrated in urban informal areas. Here, a lack of adequate services exacerbates residents’ vulnerability and susceptibility to illness and its debilitating consequences.12

7. Future challenges and issues in these areas that could be addressed by a New Urban Agenda

National government must play a central role in driving a collective response to these challenges and setting the new agenda because:

i. Generally, factors that shape and influence the rate and patterns of urbanisation are beyond the mandate of cities alone;

ii. Proactive urbanisation management is an intergovernmental mandate, and multifaceted process involving the combined activities of many institutions, actors and role players in the areas stipulated, and

iii. National government has control over important policy levers to enable each

12 Cited from Annexure N: Comment by the Isandla Institute on HIV in Urban Areas.
city and town to develop its strengths and harness its potential in building a country that is more prosperous and inclusive.

It is expected that the emerging national urban policy will assist to define the roles of each sphere of government in managing rapid urbanisation, promoting social equity and responding to the impacts of demographic change.

The role of national governments in ensuring sustainable urbanisation is thus critical. It is the responsibility of national government to create a legislative and policy environment that empowers cities (in particular) and other role-players to promote integrated urban development through:

i. Establishing a policy framework to promote integrated urban development, through national urban policies.

ii. Frameworks to guide forward planning and management of urbanisation, which enables intercity /regional urban planning so that planning is not confined to individual city boundaries;

iii. Ensuring that cities have the powers (subsidiarity principle) and the capacity to render services necessary for ensuring integrated urban development. This could be built environment functions or other social services functions.

iv. Ensuring a supportive financing and fiscal framework that acknowledges the challenges that cities and towns face.

Rural and urban communities: it is important that development initiatives are undertaken in economic nodes that serve both rural and urban communities. Going forward, emphasis must be placed on the role of science, technology and innovation to enhance positive outcomes in rural areas and promote the required connectivities.

The New Agenda focus for understanding rural-urban dynamics should be on proposing ways to accelerate inclusive growth, expand employment and serve the poor. Divided societies lead to inefficiencies and are a root cause of prevailing poverty and inequality.

Youth issues: it is imperative that integrated strategies are developed to address the needs of young people in the fields of education, lifestyle choices, skills development, technology access and girl empowerment. The youth themselves should be at the centre of developing these strategies to ensure strategies and policies are meeting the stated needs and expectations of the youth in society.

Health: it will also be important to maintain a focus on HIV/Aids prevention and management. HIV prevalence among women (25 – 29) at 32.7% and men (30 – 34) at 25.8% is very high. But other health issues should also be included in the New Urban agenda as there is a link to be made between improved living environments and health.

Safety: young women must feel safe in urban areas, and liveable city design needs to incorporate gender aware features, such as good lighting, cctv cameras, security personnel on hand, well-located child care and educational facilities as well as health and wellness centres.

The elderly: the New Agenda must place an emphasis on social development and welfare studies on the elderly, leading to targeted programmes that protect and nurture the elderly in a society. A key factor is accurate information for the elderly, accessible through community centres and social welfare groups. Many older persons have not yet been directly informed
of their housing rights and there is a need for research to establish their housing needs in both the rural and urban areas.

Gender Equity: The Constitution contains a ‘Bill of Rights’ and these rights include gender rights; such concepts may be further articulated in the New Agenda. A key component would be to encourage educational programmes promoting gender equity across society, as well as reviewing the patriarchal trends still evidenced in many places of learning and culture. This is because, as in many societies, the dominant culture is one that can undermine women’s economic growth opportunities, the full development of their abilities and overall positioning in society. The abilities of government in ‘mainstreaming’ gender issues into policy, budgets and programmes is also a direction to be supported by the New Agenda.

Addressing the needs of the disabled in urban development should also form part of the New Agenda.
8. Ensuring Sustainable Urban Planning and Design

The country’s first development policy, the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) of 1994, advocated for a more equitable and sustainable growth and development path. Since then, South Africa has made some strides in redressing the legacy of inequality, poor service delivery, apartheid spatial planning and land use policies and practices. Redress for differentiated service levels, racial segregation, extreme poverty and dependency, urban sprawl and urban inefficiencies have been consistent priorities for government over the last twenty years, and as such, translated into the planning agenda of government.

The planning framework for South Africa originates at the level of the Medium Term Strategic Framework (MTSF), and which is informed by electoral manifestos, which is then translated into service delivery Outcomes across government. Each sphere then takes the priorities of government and aligns where necessary, into regional plans. At provincial level this is through the Provincial Growth and Development Strategy (PGDS), and at local level through the district and local municipality Integrated Development Plan (IDP). These local level plans are where the developmental priorities are located and include the investment intentions of key sectors in such areas as housing and water and energy provision.

The local level system of planning must also take into account the roles and responsibilities assigned, or devolved, through sector legislation, which is designed to bring developmental levers into force at local level.

Examples include the passing of the National Water Act in 1996, the National Environmental Management Act (NEMA) in 1998, and other legislation that provides a legislative framework based on cooperative governance to promote the right to a clean and healthy environment.

A National Framework for Sustainable Development was adopted in 2008 and was followed by the adoption of the National Strategy for Sustainable Development (NSSD) in 2011. The NSSD and, more recently, the New Growth Path and the National Development Plan (NDP), have emphasised the green economy as a key area of growth. The environmental sector has, over the years, made significant and direct contributions to job creation and poverty alleviation through programmes such as Working for Water, Working on Fire, Working for Wetlands, People and Parks and the Green Fund.

Bringing innovation, ‘greening’, new ideas for use of public spaces, non-motorised transport, new city design forms and new forms of cultural and artistic expression are urgently needed in cities dominated by old apartheid spatial planning and design forms. A key resource for transformation and inclusivity is land. This is in short supply for redress, and use for planning innovations falling outside of standard structural approaches.

The short term priority is to make the existing spatial and forward planning system work better, looking at aspects such as capacity building, institutional coordination and legislative changes. Intergovernmental planning is currently under review in order to better address issues such as integrated urban planning, better
tools to manage targeted and coordinated investments across space, and better managed cross-sector and collaborative outcomes for service delivery. Much more institutional capacity is needed across in the field of development planning.

It is envisaged that by 2030, measurable progress will be made towards breaking apartheid spatial patterns and significant progress would be made towards retrofitting existing settlements.

9. Improving urban land management, including addressing urban sprawl

The increase in the number of people in urban areas exerts pressure on cities to provide and keep up with the demand for housing, social, economic infrastructure and employment opportunities for a growing population of poor households, most of whom reside in informal settlements. Rapid urbanisation exacerbates the challenge of acquiring suitable, well-located land for human settlements development.

The Housing Development Agency (HDA) was established by an Act of Parliament (The Housing Development Agency Act 2008) to address issues of land acquisition, assembly and release of public, private and communal land for development process so as to accelerate housing delivery and human settlements development.

A further initiative to address inequalities and spatial inefficiencies in respect of land, was the enactment of the Spatial Planning Land Use Management Act (SPLUMA) of August 2013. The main objective of the Act is to address these historical spatial and socio-economic imbalances in development, through improved access to, and more socially just use of, land.

Its objectives are to promote social inclusion, spatial equity, efficient settlement patterns, rural revitalization, urban regeneration and sustainable development.

SPLUMA will ensure that more effective spatial planning and land development is promoted in the country. The planning system promoted through the Act will also promote a more sustainable and equitable development across racial lines.

The SPLUMA seeks to bridge the racial divide in spatial terms and to enable transformation of the settlement patterns of South Africa in a manner that gives effect to the key constitutional provisions, by the introduction of a new approach to spatial planning and land use management, based on the following instruments:

i. Development principles, norms and standards that must guide spatial planning, land use management and land development,

ii. Spatial development frameworks, to be prepared by national, provincial and local government,

iii. Land use schemes to manage and facilitate land use and land development, and

iv. Land development management procedures and structures.

In support of this Act, the Department of Rural Development and Land Affairs is currently developing and testing the viability for a set of integrated Land Use Monitoring Tools to support land use management and enable the implementation and tracking of spatial development frameworks and principles by local municipalities, provinces and national government according to SPLUMA.
Another initiative is the National Human Settlements Land Indices (NaHSLI) developed by the HDA. It is an analytical tool to facilitate and guide the formulation of planning alternatives that optimise utilisation of scarce resources and reduce the negative impact of land and property development on the environment through four pillars, namely, the natural environment, the regulatory environment, the structural environment and the social environment.

The Priority Housing Development Areas approach was also developed to address spatial targeting and to support the spatial transformation principles as outlined in the NDP. The approach is also in line with one of the aims of the Integrated Urban Development Framework, to propose interventions to overcome entrenched apartheid spatial patterns by providing a national framework to enable municipalities to adopt spatial targeting mechanisms to manage continuing urbanisation more efficiently and equitably.

The platform for Spatial Temporal Evidence for Planning in South Africa (StepSA) uses advanced software to simulate urban growth patterns that could result from various economic, demographic and policy scenarios 30 years into the future. The model has already been applied in three major metropolitan regions of South Africa and is about to be applied in two more. The effectiveness of various policy instruments specifically aimed at curtailing sprawl has been investigated by using the model to simulate urban growth boundaries and the provision of affordable public transport with the expectation that densification will occur within public transport corridors.

South Africa also served on the steering committee of a Global Science Fund/OECD initiative aimed at advancing research methods that model urban systems in ways that enhance effective decision-making for sustainability and climate change adaptation. Recognising the increasing importance of urban form, operation and human behaviour in the global climate change debate, the committee is promoting urban systems modelling as a discrete discipline worthy of active investment and development at a system-wide level over the coming decades and the establishment of a code of practice for urban systems modelling by 2015.

10. Enhancing Urban and Peri-Urban Food Production

The 2009 General Household Survey estimated that 20% of the population have “inadequate or severely inadequate” access to food. The 1999 National Food Consumption Survey found that 52 percent of households experienced hunger, with the highest share of hungry households in rural areas (62 percent), in contrast with urban areas (41 percent). While targeted action is essential, these figures also highlight the need to address the problems of unemployment and economic exclusion.

Urban agriculture is becoming an increasingly acceptable, affordable and effective tool for sustainable urbanisation. Potential benefits include food security, food sovereignty, ecological and biodiversity, restoration, urban greening, water recharge and cleaning, the fostering of social cohesion and general urban renewal.

How urban agriculture is integrated into existing policy and development strategies in urban centres, and in particular how urban agriculture is viewed by planners and key decision makers, is key to the success or failure of urban agricultural practice.

Statistics South Africa (StatsSA), 2010
Labadarios The National Food Consumption Survey (NFCS): South Africa, 1999
South Africa does not have a national policy or strategy on urban agriculture aimed at urban food security and enterprise development. There have been a few attempts by cities to articulate urban agriculture in various strategies and policies, as well as a number of smaller, largely micro-driven urban food security projects that includes urban agriculture as a component. The impact of such initiatives will need to be studied going forward.

11. Urban Mobility

It can be argued that the efficiency of urban mobility is defined by the level of investment and quality of infrastructure. Measured by road infrastructure South Africa has a comparatively well-developed road infrastructure network. In 2005, the extent of South Africa’s road network in was a total of 753 458km (See Table 7 below)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Road Authority</th>
<th>Length (km)</th>
<th>% of total road network</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>National Roads</td>
<td>16 197</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provincial Roads - Paved</td>
<td>47 157</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provincial Roads - Gravel</td>
<td>176 716</td>
<td>23%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provincial Roads - Access</td>
<td>124 238</td>
<td>16%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Un-proclaimed Rural Roads</td>
<td>221 092</td>
<td>29%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Metro, Municipal and other Roads</td>
<td>168 058</td>
<td>22%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>753 458</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: SANRAL, Provincial Road Authorities, Road Infrastructure Strategic Framework of SA, 2005

This has steadily improved and currently the National Roads network is 19 665km.

However; there are still developmental challenges in terms of mobility. Racially segregated town planning, along with rapid urbanisation, and urban sprawl, continue to plague South Africans with long and costly travel distances, particularly for the urban poor, to access economic opportunities and social services.

The Transport Policy White Paper of 1996 identified goals and strategies to steadily improve this situation. The South African National Roads Agency Ltd (SANRAL) was established in April 1998 as an agency of government. Since the advent of democracy, Government has sought to realign its public expenditure and the financing of public services to redress the imbalances of the past. Recognizing the enormity of many demands on the fiscus and the advantage of constructive engagement with the private sector, SANRAL proactively utilizes alternative sources of finance for road infrastructure and opportunities to reduce dependence on tax-based revenues.

The 2002 Road Infrastructure Strategic Framework for South Africa (RISFSA) improved the classification of roads and allocated maintenance responsibilities more clearly. The municipal authorities maintain their road assets, the provincial government takes responsibility...
for its own road assets and SANRAL maintains the national network. Some of this national network is within the city boundaries. This scenario is more prevalent in the Gauteng Province’s three city region of Johannesburg, Pretoria and Ekurhuleni. In preparation for the 2010 Soccer World Cup, the South African government through SANRAL invested in the Gauteng Freeway Improvement Programme (GFIP). While SANRAL has over the years employed the tolling system (user pay) on its national roads linking major nodal cities across the country, GFIP is the first of its kind where the tolling system is an electronic system, i.e. e-toll thus there is no stopping of vehicles on the road to effect payment.

The launch of the Passenger Rail Agency of South Africa (PRASA) in March 2009 brought forth a new era in passenger transport. Amongst its four subsidiaries, Metrorail operates commuter rail services in urban areas offering rail passengers integrated services that prioritise customer needs, provide better mobility and accessibility to transport.

Gautrain is a modern state of the art rail system that is able to run at speeds of 160km per hour in comparison of the 60 to 80km per hour of the Metrorail system. Gautrain operates primarily between two Metros; Johannesburg and Pretoria that are roughly 60km apart. Beyond the two primary nodes it links with other strategic economic nodes; the OR Tambo Airport in the Ekurhuleni Metro and Sandton City within the Johannesburg Metro. Significant revitalisation and expansion of both the passenger and freight rail networks now form a key policy focus of the National Department of Transport, with a policy Green Paper on this expansion having been released in 2013.
12. Improving Technical Capacity to Plan and Manage Cities

Figure 4 illustrates the historical overview of the development of local government systems in South Africa.

Figure 4 Historical overview of the development of local government systems in South Africa

Municipalities are primarily responsible for providing quality, cost-effective municipal services. As set out in the 1998 White Paper on Local Government, they should also focus on transforming unequal and inefficient use of space, identifying priority business areas and improving the built environment by developing and maintaining appropriate infrastructure.

Recurring episodes of local protests, most significantly rising in some urban areas during 2013, have focused public attention on the state of local government. (See Figure 5 in this regard).

The main causes of such protest are not always understood, as complex factors are at play, but they are usually reported as due to inadequate or/and absence of municipal and social services. This inevitably raised questions about the capacity of local government to plan and manage city growth, most obviously in the poorer or informal settlement areas where the capacity to meet demand is over-stretched.
The National government has allocated substantial funds to building municipal capacity since 1994. The Siyenza Manje Programme spent some R933 million in the period 2006/07 to 2009/10, while almost R5.8 billion has been allocated for municipal capacity support between 2013/14 and 2016/17.

Table 8 lists the various initiatives and programmes that have been undertaken by the public and private sectors, especially since the 2000 as it increasingly became evident that municipalities were battling to lead socio-economic development in their respective communities.
### Table 8: Public and Private Sector Initiatives to build capacity at local government level

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Initiative</th>
<th>Purpose</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Project Consolidate Public Initiative launched October 2004</td>
<td>Hands-on assistance to 139 targeted municipalities by experts, dubbed Service Delivery Facilitators (SDFs), with a range of managerial, technical and financial skills.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Joint Initiative on Priority Skills Acquisition (JIPSA) Public Initiative with private role players launched March 27, 2006</td>
<td>To create short-term, sustainable interventions to the skills problems, i.e. engineering, planning, artisanal, technical and project management skills at municipal level.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Siyenza Manje: launched jointly by several State Departments, the South African Local Government Association (SALGA) and the Development Bank of South Africa (DBSA)</td>
<td>Re-employment of retired personnel with skills in engineering, project and financial management, and town planning, who would then be assigned to targeted municipalities. The first batch, 67 in total, was recruited between May and November 2006. They provided both hands-on intervention and mentoring to young graduates.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skills Importation Public Initiative</td>
<td>Departments of Labour and Home Affairs were assigned to make acquisition of work permits and entry into the country easier for this category of individuals. This would involve encouraging South African citizens with the relevant skills, who are either working or resident abroad, to return home for employment in the municipal sector.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unemployed/Inexperienced Graduates: Placements Public Initiative launched in 2005</td>
<td>To draw unemployed graduates into the municipal sector, especially in the Departments of Arts and Culture, Environmental Affairs and Tourism, and Public Works. Whilst providing the much needed expertise, albeit inexperienced, to the municipal sector, this measure went a long way to reduce the rate of unemployment among graduates, especially within the black community.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public-Private Sector Initiatives: Training Programmes</td>
<td>Private and public institutions undertook joint initiatives to provide training to municipal employees. (e.g. the Old Mutual Business School, assisted by the South African Management Development Institute and the Department of Provincial and Local Government, where 97 municipal employees were provided with hands-on training in foundational project management).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Municipal Demarcation Board - Annual capacity assessment of municipalities</td>
<td>Monitoring and Tracking to improve the capacity of municipalities to implement budgets and their service delivery mandate, to measure their ability to meet their obligations in performing their powers and functions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Municipal Infrastructure Support Agent 2011</td>
<td>To support municipalities with planning, management and other technical expertise to roll out infrastructure more efficiently and effectively – especially in weaker municipalities. MISA is currently providing technical capacity support to 107 municipalities, with a total of 77 technical experts (engineering and planning professionals) assigned to support these municipalities.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Platform for Spatial Temporal Evidence for Planning in SA</td>
<td>Funded by DST and developed as a collaboration between CSIR, HSRC and a range of national, provincial and local role players to provide decision-makers, officials and researchers with access to advanced spatial analyses, data sets and tools to support research, policy making and municipal/regional spatial planning in Urban Growth as well as Regional Development areas.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Geospatial Analyses Platform (GAP) and CSIR/SACN Functional Settlement Typology</td>
<td>The result of major policy initiatives and technology developments, themeso-scale geo-spatial platform for the assembly, analysis and sharing of economic, development and demand information is used by a wide range of municipalities as basis for spatial development frameworks. The platform enables spatially and temporal specific analyses of settlements and regions, used to inform the National Disaster Unit as basis for National Disaster Management System, the National Development Plan (2012) and the Integrated Urban Development Framework (2014).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The National Treasury Cities Support Programme (CSP) supports metropolitan municipalities with technical assistance, capacity-building and other support initiatives to improve the performance of the built environment. The programme operates within the framework of the larger fiscal reform agenda. Some of the fiscal support has resulted in the establishment of new grants such as the Urban Settlements Development Grant and the Integrated City Development Grant, as well as an effort to align and co-ordinate a range of local government infrastructure grants that fund human settlements, public transport, spatial targeting in major townships, and electrification.

13. Challenges experienced and Lessons Learned in these Areas

The key lesson learned with regard to entrenched spatial forms and the uphill struggle to reform urban and rural space is that close and intense collaboration is required between different role-players: planners, the private sector, government sectors, its entities, communities, designers, environmentalists et al. An integrated, inclusive space cannot be crafted by single players.

The National Planning Commission proposes a national focus on spatial transformation across all geographic scales and makes a strong case for the development of a National Spatial Framework that seeks to align economic principles, market forces and commercial realities with spatial planning with the sole purpose of negotiating better development outcomes.

For example, although the SPLUMA now provides a framework for spatial planning and land use management aimed at spatial transformation, it is argued that more fundamental changes will be required in areas that go beyond the mandates of the department that sponsored the act. Such broader reform, it is argued, should provide the platform for integration between spatial planning, social services and housing, transport planning and environmental management. It should also foster a much tighter integration of spatial planning with long term infrastructure planning and finance regimes.

With respect to urban sprawl, urban renewal initiatives have remained out of reach for the low income groups, and the urban poor continue to be located on the urban fringes far away from amenities. Travel patterns therefore continue to be city centre bound in the mornings and outward bound in the late afternoon peak. These realities informed the impetus by government for its multi-modal approaches to public transport, to densification objectives and rail revitalisation policy. The major infrastructure challenges ahead lie in enabling much more integration between economic growth objectives and spatial targeting, with the location of land to support human and social infrastructure and transport.

In response to the above, the Department of Transport is working on a Multi-modal Transport Planning and Coordination Act, to promote the development of an integrated transport plan with other sectors of the economy to guide the transport sector’s sustainable investment; in the provision of affordable, effective, efficient and environmentally sensitive transport infrastructure and services.

Urban agriculture, aimed at food security and enterprise development must also become part of the development strategy of every urban and peri-urban centre in South Africa, underpinned by a clear National Policy and supported by comprehensive studies and analysis of the structure of food systems, coordination of data sets on land availability and suitability.
In terms of municipal capacity, the government has adopted a Framework for Local Government that is built upon lessons learned from the past endeavours to support local government. A national-led long-term programme of support and reform is being implemented, which seeks to also strengthen the role of provincial government in its Constitutional mandate to support, build capacity, monitor, supervise and intervene, if necessary in local government.

The key challenge remains the capacity of local government; it is a young sphere of government, and has multiple complex roles to undertake, thus government-wide collaboration over a shared platform for support is intended to bring the required revitalization to local government.

See Annexure D for recommendations from the South African Planning Institute.

14. Future Challenges and Issues in these Areas that could be addressed by a New Urban Agenda

a. Ensuring sustainable planning and design

Future challenges should be addressed by:

i. Working closely with the governments of urban areas to implement the IUDF.

ii. Building spatial and planning partnerships to integrate and coordinate investments and social infrastructure

iii. Revising the intergovernmental planning framework to provide for more specific and forward-looking planning innovations

iv. Continuing to build international partnerships, such as with the BRICS economies, the Habitat 111 New Agenda, and encourage donor support for urban development initiatives.

v. Designing climate resilient cities, applying applicable norms and standards, and developing best practices for environmentally sustainable cities.

b. Improving urban land management and addressing urban sprawl

i. Recognising the social function of land and recognizing the importance of public space and public facilities

ii. Implement the SPLUMA and support integration with supporting initiatives such as through the City Support Programme and the IUDF.

iii. Promote greater collaboration between role-players to drive sustainable city growth

iv. Promote land densification objectives where suitable, supported by land-use practices that are more equitable and bring greater inclusivity into city spaces.

v. Provide for a special focus on the service and infrastructure needs of informal settlements and poor areas, and provide for special incentives, coordinated action, to upgrade successfully.

See Annexure N for Comment by the Isandla Institute on recognising the social function of land.

c. Enhancing urban and peri-urban food production

i. Adopt the National Policy Framework on urban and peri-urban food production as a means of food security.
ii. Encourage the use of urban food gardens and related innovations by city management and NGOs

d. Addressing urban mobility challenges

i. Fast track the objectives of the Department of Transport's (DoT) National Land Transport Act of 2009 that enables devolution to metros for Integrated Transport Planning.

ii. Endorse and support the objectives of the new Rail Revitalisation Policy (DoT) to expand rail networks and add to the multi-modal options available for commuters.

iii. Promote non-motorised transport options and assign urban space for these.

e. Improving technical capacity to plan and manage cities

i. Build and develop the CSP in partnership with sectors and relevant institutions

ii. Work with cities to identify skills shortages

iii. Implement a mentoring programme for young planners from graduation to registration.

iv. Continued professional development of planning professionals in the public as well as private sector to strengthen new thinking, social ethics, and the application of norms and standards.

v. Build capability to advise the public and communities regarding land use matters, investment and development potential of land.

vi. Utilize new technologies to assist with spatial planning.
15. **Addressing Climate change**

In response to the broad environmental agenda, the *Constitution of South Africa* states that all citizens have the right to an environment that is not harmful to their health and wellbeing, and to an environment protected for the benefit of present and future generations, through reasonable legislative and other measures. The past 20 years have seen a dramatic and sustained process of forming environmental guiding principles, institution-building and restructuring, legislation and policy development and domestic and international engagement – all with the intention of addressing the historical legacy of inequality, international isolation and the fragmented structures of environmental governance.

South Africa, like other developing countries, is at particular risk from climate change due to a combination of geography, the intrinsic vulnerability of poor communities to environmental threats, and the pressures that economies based on resource extraction place on the environment. South Africa has acknowledged that climate change poses a major threat and has committed to strengthening its social and economic resilience to the effects of such change.

In 2008, Cabinet approved the Long-term Mitigation Scenarios to guide policy direction. In 2009, the President announced that South Africa would implement mitigation actions that would collectively result in a 34 percent and a 42 percent reduction in its emissions growth trajectory by 2020 and 2025, respectively. Achieving these targets will require financial, capacity-building, technology development and technology transfer support, and a global, legally binding agreement.

South Africa hosted the 17th session of the Conference of the Parties (COP 17) to the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change in 2011 to mobilise support for the Climate Change Programme. The most notable outcome of COP 17 was the Durban Platform for Enhanced Action, which set timelines for negotiating a new climate regime from 2015 onwards. While preparatory work and research to set targets and measure reductions in emissions in different sectors are under way, implementation programmes include over 300 000 domestic solar water heaters installed to date and the launch of the Renewable Energy Programme.\(^{17}\)

The National Climate Change Response Policy which was launched in October 2011. This policy provides a clear roadmap for responding to the urgency of climate change as it pushes towards a green economy. The focus of the National Climate Change Response Policy (2011) is predominantly on mitigation, but increasingly also on adaptation. Key departments provide have developed their own departmental climate change strategies in response to the policy.

South Africa has norms and standards to ensure Environmentally Efficient Housing. Environmental issues are inherently linked with the quality of life. Settlements are often strongly influenced by access to resources in the environment. Environmentally sound human settlements are characterised by good air quality, energy and water efficient homes.

\(^{17}\) Cited from Twenty Year Review – South Africa 1994-2014
with planting that provides green lungs or even food security. These may be seen as healthy, sustainable settlements which provide quality living environments. The promotion of settlements with these attributes would bring social, economic and environmental benefits to South Africa.

Designs for affordable housing take cognisance of the need for the resultant dwellings to be thermally efficient. The cost constraints imposed by the subsidy scheme make it difficult to meet this requirement. However, there are several principles that enhance the thermal efficiency of the dwelling at minimal cost.

16. Disaster Risk Reduction

The enactment of Disaster Management Act 57 of 2002 (DMA) places emphasis on “a continuous integrated multi-sectoral, multidisciplinary approach to disaster risk management” at all levels of government with special emphasis on prevention, mitigation and emergency preparedness. The Act has ushered in a complete paradigm shift in disaster management, in that the scope of the disaster management has changed from reactive approach, i.e. response and post disaster relief, to holistic, proactive management of disasters, which prioritise prevention, mitigation and preparedness. It is thus, recognised as good practice by many countries which have used it as a guide to advance their own legislative frameworks. The Act is currently under review to ensure proper alignment and continued relevance within the current changing environment.

The National Disaster Management Framework (NDMF), which was promulgated in April 2005 is the legal instrument aimed at unpacking the Act in more detail to address such needs for consistency across multiple interest groups by providing a “a coherent, transparent and inclusive policy on disaster management appropriate for the Republic as a whole”. The two legal instruments are complemented by a range of disaster-specific (relating to fires, mine health and safety and sporting and cultural events) and disaster-associated (relating to environmental impact assessment, water resources, agricultural resources and mineral resources) legislation.

Within the South African context, disaster management is a multi-sectoral activity which is dependent on the role of all sectors who interact with disasters in one way or another. It is against this backdrop that organs of state in various levels across the country are at different levels of developing and implementing their disaster management plans, which also incorporates climate change adaptation. These plans are based on the Risk Assessment Process undertaken to determine the types of risks/hazards the plans are to address.

The promotion of a culture of disaster risk avoidance by capacitating government and communities through integrated education, training and public awareness (as set out in the NDMF) is fundamental to safeguarding our development efforts and community livelihoods against hazards and disaster impacts. A National Capacity Building Action Plan is compiled annually in collaboration with Disaster Management Centres and various role players, for:

i. Awareness raising on risks to various hazards based on local dynamics e.g. Informal settlements shack fires prevention;

ii. Training and capacitating councilors, ward committee structures and traditional leaders on various disaster management measures to enhance their decision making capacity. This also involves learning from local best practices based on Indigenous Knowledge
Systems especially in designing the human settlements;

iii. Training of governmental and community structures including volunteer structures at local level; and

iv. Design and incorporation of disaster management content in education and school curricula e.g. City of Tshwane Municipality and Western Cape Province and for on-going informal training.

From Figure 6 and Figure 7 below one can see that local government needs to do more to mainstream disaster risk reduction structures into their programmes. The South African Local Government Association (SALGA) found that many municipalities lacked some of the most basic elements of a level 1 plan for disaster management\(^{18}\).

\(^{18}\) SALGA: Disaster Risk Reduction: A multi-stakeholder approach to targeted intervention in selected municipalities: 2013

**Figure 6: Functioning of Disaster Risk Management structures per province (KwaZulu-Natal, Free State, Eastern- and Western Cape)**
There are several initiatives taken to reduce risk by building resilience of vulnerable groups within society. For example, in an effort to empower women and children to be part of the mainstream economy and as well as playing an active role in building community disaster resilience, the Dr Kenneth Kaunda District Municipality within the North West Province launched a project of the Girls in Risk Reduction Leadership (2008-2009) and Women in Disaster Management (2012).

In an effort to ensure readiness and preparedness, the South African Weather Services in collaboration with the National Disaster Management Centre ensures that all relevant role players and communities are well informed regarding all threatening weather hazards. Most often, communities at risk are evacuated well in advance to reduce the impact of the disasters.

A key achievement has been the establishment of Public-Private Partnerships for disaster risk reduction to promote resilient investments, increase job opportunities at the community level, enhance accountability for private sector and ensure the relevance of private sector investment to benefit vulnerable communities while preventing future risks. Government has launched a “Business-adopt-municipality” (BAAM) partnership which aims to support identified municipalities by enhancing their capacities. The project now focuses on both fire prevention and disaster risk reduction through proper urban planning e.g. storm water drainage systems planning.
The Department of Science and Technology in 2009 commissioned the development of a National Risk and Vulnerability Atlas to support the National Disaster Management Framework. Over the past five years the Atlas\(^9\) has contributed significantly to understanding the impact and risks associated with global change by providing sensitivity and vulnerability information at national, provincial and municipal levels. The Atlas is a first of its kind in South Africa bringing together academia, industry and government agencies with the purpose to understand risks and vulnerabilities within South Africa’s landscape. The Atlas has also supported the skills development of the various risk practitioners in the country’s Risk and Vulnerability Science Centres.

### 17. Reducing Traffic Congestion

Before 1994, transport was not managed in a holistic way. Racially segregated town planning, which saw black people being allocated land far away from business centres, coupled with inadequate transport infrastructure, meant that the majority of South Africans did not have easy access to economic opportunities predominantly located away from places of residence in the city centres and/or industrial nodes.

Traffic congestion challenges persist from the perspective of dormitory areas where infrastructure investment lags behind the rate of urbanisation. Residents from these predominantly black townships access the economic opportunities largely via public transport facilities. The dominant form of public transport is the privately owned and unregulated mini-bus taxi industry.

\(^9\) www.rvatlas.org

This however is changing. Government has developed a public transport strategy and the complimenting action plan that is aimed at relieving the traffic pressures experienced on the corridors leading to the centres of economic opportunities. These initiatives include rapid public transport networks that encompass dedicated public transport lanes, predominantly known as the Bus Rapid Transport (BRT) Please refer to Section 40 (Access to sustainable means of transport) for further details.

The Gauteng Freeway Improvement Project earlier mentioned in Section 11 has significantly contributed to freeing up traffic congestion on major urban routes linking the cities and towns of the Gauteng Province. Please refer to Section 40 of this report: Access to sustainable means of transports for further information.

*Rea Vaya Bus Service on dedicated bus Lanes*
Complementing this multi-billion rand investment on the roads, the government investment through a Public Private Partnership (PPP) in the Gautrain rail project is also a major milestone towards reducing traffic congestion on the roads within Gauteng. Gauteng is the smallest of all the nine provinces in South Africa but yet with the highest population figures and it is the economic centre of South Africa. Traffic volumes on its roads have been steadily going up to an extent that a trip between Johannesburg and Pretoria during peak hours over approximately 60km would take plus minus 2 hours. The Gautrain has provided an alternative means of transport for a significant number of people thus directly contributing towards reducing traffic congestion in the province’s major routes.

**The Gautrain Rail Service on its Dedicated Track**

Cabinet approved the multi-billion rand investment in rail infrastructure and services by PRASA as a further initiative by the state to alleviate traffic congestion, amongst other objectives. The investment will improve the quality of train services, thus it will be more attractive to more users and as such lead to more and more passengers shifting from road to rail, thus reducing traffic congestion on the roads. Perhaps the greatest intervention by the train services on traffic congestion will be on the proposed Moloto rail line investment between Pretoria and Siyabuswa in the Mpumalanga province.

The challenges of the traffic congestion cannot be solely solved by the transport infrastructure and services initiatives. A holistic approach by the parties involved in the urban spatial development is necessary to tackle the challenges in a comprehensive manner.

**18. Air Pollution**

*Midvaal, South of the mining belt in Johannesburg*

The National Environment Management: Air Quality Act (2004) reformed the law regulating air quality in order to protect the environment by providing reasonable measures for the prevention of pollution and ecological degradation and for securing ecologically sustainable development while promoting justifiable economic and social development. The Act also provides for national norms and standards regulating air quality monitoring, management and control by all spheres of government; and for specific air quality measures.

An important standard for air quality (SANS 1929) was published in January 2005. SANS 1929 gives limit values for common air pollutants to ensure that the negative effects of such pollutants on human health is prevented or
reduced. Another standard linked to air quality is SANS 20049, which is concerned with the emissions of pollutants from different categories of motor vehicles.

Since the publication of government’s Integrated Pollution and Waste Management policy in 2000, government has been implementing the National Air Quality Management Programme 2000 – 2010 (NAQMP). The NAQMP provides a starting point for the development of the National Air Quality Management Framework required by the Air Quality Act. Currently, industrial emissions are regulated by the Chief Air Pollution Control Officer (CAPCO). Registration certificates for individual industries are issued by CAPCO, which state the actual quantity of particulate emissions that may be emitted as well as the level of emission allowed.

South Africa is a major emitter of CO2 and accounts for 65% of Africa’s emissions. Most of these emissions have their source in the energy sector, mainly from electricity supply, industry, transport and liquid fuels supply.

Key flagship mitigation programmes have been identified and the promotion and implementation of clean energy resources such as for example the renewable energy and energy efficient initiatives: Solar Water Heating Programme, Energy Efficiency and Demand Management Programme as well as Green Fund have been initiated.

In South Africa mining and industry, compounded by the burning of poor-quality coal and biomass by those with limited access to electricity, have resulted in high levels of air pollution in some areas. Since 2007, plans to manage air quality and ambient air-quality standards have been developed for identified areas. Some regions, such as the Highveld and Vaal Triangle, have been declared priority areas due to high pollution from burning coal to produce electricity and liquid fuel.

To assess whether air quality is improving or not, the national air-quality indicator was developed, as well as the greenhouse gas emissions inventory for energy- and industrial process emissions. The focus is currently on reducing

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"Together we move South Africa forward"
burning of solid fuel in residential areas and vehicle emissions. To reduce emissions from transport, lead has been phased out of liquid fuel, and regulations have been introduced to allow for blending.

Energy production in South Africa remains a serious challenge to air pollution, as it is largely dependent on coal. The Integrated Resource Plan for energy was developed in 2011 to guide future energy investments, guarantee the security of supply and reduce carbon emissions. The plan identified the need to accelerate efforts to tap into the country’s solar, wind and hydropower resources, while responsibly exploiting fossil fuels and mineral resources in order to reduce air pollution\(^\text{21}\).

The country has committed to stringent CO2 emission reduction targets (to achieve 34% below “business as usual” by 2020), undertaken with the understanding that the actions will be supported by international finance, technology and capacity building. However, while the government has committed itself to reduce its CO2 emissions, there is currently two new coal-fired power stations under construction at Medupi and Kusile in Limpopo and Mpumalanga respectively. The Medupi and Kusile units are expected to supply 4 800 MW each to the national grid. Clearly these additional units will add to South Africa’s already high levels of CO2 emissions. However, the State utility for the generation of electricity, Eskom, has committed itself to implement the latest technologies to reduce its carbon footprint.

See Annexure E for case study of a successful national atmosphere/air pollution programme/strategy. See Annexure F for Examples of Energy-Efficiency Projects and Efforts to Reduce Green House Gas Emissions.

\(^{21}\) Twenty Year Review – South Africa 1994-2014

19. Challenges Experienced and Lessons Learned

Although South Africa has introduced a wide range of policies, strategies, programmes and plans to address housing challenges, challenges remain with implementing environmentally sound practices. Whilst the South African housing programmes address the housing backlog and demand through various subsidy schemes, hundreds of houses are being built without consideration of environmentally sound principles. If these interventions are taken into account at the inception phase of each project, it would ensure that quality of life is attained. This implies far greater input and oversight of the contractual obligations of contracted builders.

Poor, uncoordinated planning among organs of state without integrating and incorporating disaster risk reduction measures into human settlement design and construction, results in the state experiencing unnecessary costs in relation to rehabilitation and reconstruction of disaster damages. Organs of state, both at national and provincial level, need to ensure a coordinated and well integrated system of planning which is aligned to integrated development planning within the local sphere of government to ensure sustainable development and safeguard community livelihoods against hazards and disaster impacts. It is of critical importance to ensure that the planning is aligned to the budget which will include prevention and mitigation in all programmes.

Challenges that have slowed the progress towards meeting air pollution goals and targets include:

i. socio-economic and political impacts of closing down outdated refineries, lack of information and understanding of gasoline engine performance, weak national energy
policies, lack of local lead-exposure data for policymaking and standard setting, as well as inadequate retail infrastructure for unleaded gasoline.

ii. Barriers in mitigating indoor air pollution associated with energy use, on the other hand, include limited access to cleaner technology financing, lack of awareness, weak public health policy and regulation, and cultural diversity.

iii. Lack of appropriate early warning systems and prediction of atmospheric changes and fluctuations resulting from local air pollution is another serious challenge to intervention.

Challenges in terms of addressing traffic congestion include:

i. Poor alignment between the costly freeway tolling strategy and systematic public transport improvements has laid a problematic foundation for a future with increased levels of congestion comprising a greater number of vehicles.

ii. The long term challenge of the devolution of transport functions to the most appropriate level as set out by the NLTA 2009.

iii. The more immediate challenge of achieving improved public transport service integration from a users’ perspective during the devolution transition.

iv. Little has been done in driving a shift in travel behaviour towards sustainable transport through Travel Demand Management (TDM) strategies.

v. There is much theory and practice learning which exists internationally on this topic but there has been limited take up and adaptation in a South African context.

vi. The fragmented approach to transport planning and implementation is a major challenge. Various transport infrastructures and services are been understood and implemented in isolation of each other. The reality is that they exist in a system and impact each other greatly thus a ‘siloh approach ultimately compromises the functionality of the entire transport system.

20. Future Challenges in these Areas that could be addressed by a New Urban Agenda

Climate change impacts carry significant implications for the economies of the region including South Africa.

A well-resourced pro-poor adaptation agenda is required to overcome the impacts of climate change and adequately respond to the climate change challenges facing South Africa. A pro-poor agenda would require:

i. An urgent review of the impacts of macroeconomic policies on the poor and the extent to which these policies are undermining the adaptive capacity of the poor to climate change impacts;

ii. Reviving the land and agrarian reform agenda to ensure that issues such as insecurity of tenure and resource rights that present barriers for poverty and adaptation especially in rural areas are addressed;

iii. Building the institutional capacity at local level for the implementation of climate change adaptation measures;

iv. Improving access to information as well as providing a forum for local communities to engage with and influence the climate change agenda at national level and
international level, thereby up-scaling and improving the understanding of climate change adaptation needs from a local level perspective.

The new agenda should address disaster risk reduction, in particular:

i. Poor Integrated planning within organs of state needs to be strengthened and be the concerned communities must be involved throughout the whole process. Local communities should be assisted in mapping their hazards and risks they are exposed to and how they can be reduced.

ii. Through public information and education programmes, communities will take necessary measures to reduce disaster risks at community level.
Chapter IV: Urban Governance and Legislation: Issues and Challenges for a new Urban Agenda

There is as yet no legislation that applies specifically to urban areas in South Africa, but this may be developed, together with stronger and more differentiated fiscal and governance frameworks, following the release of the policy framework for urbanisation and urban development – the Integrated Urban Development Framework (IUDF) in August 2014. This policy will be accompanied by an Implementation Plan detailing the mechanisms to be utilised to manage the policy reforms proposed.

The following sections overview some of the key legislative frameworks that currently may be applied to support better managed urbanisation or are expected to have a positive impact on urban governance and development trajectories.

21. Improving Urban Legislation

The form of local government in South Africa is well placed, within the unitary state, to manage its own affairs (The Constitution, S151 (3). Further, it is held responsible, through policy and legislation, for the socio-economic development of its area; ‘municipalities are where apartheid’s settlement geography must be confronted, where the trade-offs involved in addressing poverty and investing in growth must be made, and where a new and more cohesive society must be borne’.

To execute the vision, the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa provides for three categories of local government: A’s which are the metro governments and these have exclusive municipal executive and legislative authority in their areas, B’s which are local municipalities that fall within the shared executive and legislative authority of a district, which is a C category, and the districts themselves. Within the B and C categories there are secondary cities and smaller urban towns, but they do not qualify as metro categories, of which there are eight in South Africa.

Legislation has been introduced since 1994 that provides a foundation for improving socio-economic development outcomes; it is applicable to all municipalities, and metro governments may shape their responses according to their respective socio-economic environments, such as emerging towns and secondary cities.

Important local government legislation includes the Municipal Systems Act (Act 32, 2000), which importantly provides the framework for promulgation of by-laws, for spatial and forward planning, for the forms and processes required for community engagement and participation in the affairs of the municipality, and the governance procedures for the assignment of powers and functions to municipalities, also defined in the Municipal Structures Act (1998), that gave rise to two-tier local government.

The Integrated Development Plan (IDP), Municipal Systems Act (MSA), No.32, 2000

The MSA covers many aspects of local government as can be seen from the objects stated in the Act that include ‘to establish a simple and enabling framework for the core processes of planning, performance management, resource mobilisation and
organisational change which underpin the notion of developmental local government’.

Section 24 of the MSA requires the municipality to undertake planning that is aligned with other municipalities and organs of state and in line with national and provincial legislation and policy. It is the role of the Provincial MEC responsible for local government to monitor and assist municipalities to prepare IDPs.

National legislation has also been promulgated that allows for the assignment of core functions in the management of the urban built environment to municipalities. These important regulatory levers include the management of spatial planning and land use through the passing of the Spatial Planning and Land-Use Management Bill (SPLUMA), in 2013, and the 2013 Infrastructure Development Act.

**SPLUMA**

In 2013, the Spatial Planning and Land Use Management Act (Act 16 of 2013) (SPLUMA) was promulgated. It introduces, inter alia, a new system of spatial and land use planning for the country, including spatial development plans and frameworks for all spheres of government. At the national sphere, there will be a National Spatial Development Framework23, approved by Cabinet. It is envisaged that this will be the spatial expression of government’s vision and strategic priorities – it is where development will happen ‘in space’. It is therefore being seen as the spatial accompaniment to the NDP and together these two policies will guide the development of South Africa. This Framework is yet to be initiated, but will be the responsibility of the National Department of Rural Development and Land Reform (RDLR).

Aligning to some degree, there will also be Provincial, Regional and local Spatial Development Frameworks. The new Act envisages these spatial plans as spatial expressions of the policy, development and investment priorities of all sectors and stakeholders that must be traded off in the process of their preparation to arrive at a truly integrated spatial plan for the respective spheres of government. At the local sphere in particular, it must be a powerful planning instrument that reflects the integrated development plan.

Such plans cannot be prepared without considerable co-ordination, alignment and discussion and decision-making about trade-offs and priorities.

**The Infrastructure Development Act**

The Infrastructure Act has been promulgated by the Department of Economic Development to support the objectives of government in rolling out infrastructure of significant economic and social importance to the Republic. This is exemplified by South Africa’s massive infrastructure development programme at an investment value of R847-billion on new and upgraded infrastructure over the next ten years.

Its primary objective is to ensure the successful implementation of the country’s 18 major Strategic Infrastructure Projects (SIPs). The Act provides the regulatory environment to support the work of the Presidential Infrastructure Coordinating Commission (PICC), chaired by the President. The PICC is dedicated to the effective planning and implementation of the country’s infrastructure.

The Act aims to enable fast, coordinated and joint working across government, by ensuring that each sphere and each planning entity includes the SIPs’s and other projects, into their growth and development plans, and that regulatory decisions regarding investments may be fast-tracked. Investment plans must be
aligned to funding allocations, and public-private partnerships are to be encouraged. It also seeks to enable the levers by which the skills and capacities that reside across the state may be harnessed for the execution of these projects.

Devolution processes to strengthen the authority for built environment functions are provided for through the National Housing Act (1997), and integrated planning and operating opportunities in public transport services are provided for in the National Land Transport Act, 2009.

22. Decentralisation and Strengthening of Local Authorities

South Africa has a well-established legislative policy framework for decentralisation, with local government as a distinctive sphere of government in terms of the Constitution. Political authority is devolved to local government and local councillors are elected democratically at the local level.

Since 1994, local government in South Africa has steadily moved away from a racially segregated and discriminatory local government system. The decentralisation of administrative powers and functions to local government means that the provision of municipal services are now ‘wall-to-wall’ and inclusive, and are supported by legislation.

In terms of policy and planning by government, it was recognized early on that spatial apartheid was a stubborn root cause of prevailing inequalities and poverty. The White Paper on Local Government (1998) stated clearly that municipalities should focus on transforming unequal and inefficient use of space, identifying priority business areas and improving the built environment by developing and maintaining appropriate infrastructure.

For decentralized planning, each municipality is by law (The Municipal Systems Act 2000), required to develop an Integrated Development Plan (IDP) with the participation the community and stakeholders and this must be coordinated with the plans of all the other levels of government. All municipalities are compliant with tabling their IDPs to Council.

South Africa has also made important strides in building its intergovernmental and redistributive fiscal system. The Intergovernmental Fiscal Relations Act was passed in 1997, laying the basis for the annual enactment of the Division of Revenue Act. The latter legislation details the vertical split of funds between the three spheres and horizontal split between sector Departments at a national and provincial level, and also between municipalities in the local government sphere. Local government raises revenue in the form of charges and taxes, and as a result only 27 percent of their spending is financed through the division of revenue.

At the level of community engagement there is an acknowledged need to improve local government responsiveness to citizen issues raised, and to strengthen participatory governance. A degree of ‘neglect’ of local government means a concerted effort is now on the agenda for intergovernmental capacity-building and support from all spheres.

23. Improving Participation and Human Rights in Urban Development

The South African Constitution is underpinned by principles of good governance, which also highlight the importance of public participation as an essential element of successful good local governance. The Constitution confirms a number of citizen rights and more specifically, the right of communities to be involved in local governance.
It further enjoins the municipal administration to respond to the needs of the people and to encourage the public to participate in policy-making.

Community involvement in decision-making and the democratic processes at all spheres of government is a key feature of the post-apartheid government. The commitment to community involvement in local government affairs finds further expression in a number of statutes and policies namely, the Local Government: Municipal Systems Act (2000); Local Government: Municipal Structures Act (1998) and the National Development Plan (2011). These laws and policies provide a legal framework for participatory local democracy as they are intended to be realized through development initiatives that require formal participatory processes in local governance.

**Strengthening Public participation through Ward Committees System**

Since 2001, Ward Committees have emerged as a key institutional mechanism intended to contribute towards bringing about people-centered, participatory and democratic local governance. Since ward committees have the knowledge and understanding of the citizens they represent, they make it possible to narrow the gap between municipalities and communities. To this end, Ward Committees have been established in all 4277 municipal wards across the country.

Post the 2011 local government elections, government has strengthened its theme of broadening public participation in local governance through ward committees by introducing ward level service improvement plans. Ward Committees and their functionality did not necessarily provide a guarantee that indeed government was putting development at the heart of participation, it neither provided a sense that citizens were actively participating in matters of local governance. Ward level service improvement plans meant that within the current regime of ward committees, communities would actively participate in the developments planned for their ward spaces.

*For an innovative approach to community mobilisation, engagement and participation, please see example of the Federation of the Urban Poor (FEDUP) in Annexure G.*

*See also Annexure N by the Isandla Institute for Comment on the importance of Community Participation.*

### 24. Enhancing Urban Safety and Security

South Africa’s high rates of crime and violence within a context of increased urbanisation, call for more acute measures to address urban violence and crime by both the South African government and non-government players.

Crime and violence are disproportionately concentrated in South Africa’s urbanised areas, as is also the global trend. This is compounded by factors such as the rapid growth and transformation of cities and enormous socio-economic disparities, socio-spatial contrasts and spatial segregation. Within this framework, violence and crime is manifest across spatial, institutional and social dimensions.

To promote safety and security to its citizens, South Africa introduced the National Crime Prevention strategy in order to shift the focus from reactive crime control to proactive crime prevention. The strategy was further complemented by the Combating Crime Strategy and the Victim Empowerment Programme. Crime has been significantly reduced, but does not yet meet the minimum required standards and public expectation.
Effective crime fighting also relies on community cooperation. Community Policing Forums (CPF) have established at police station level to provide a mechanism for citizens to hold police accountable, and to determine community needs and policing priorities through consultation.

To encourage communities to be active participants in their own safety, Ward Safety Committees have been established. These participate in ward safety audits to enable them to take responsibility for their safety as a collective with other enforcement agencies. Ward safety plans which identifies safety challenges/threats in the ward are shared with various role-players in order to mitigate the threat.

Successful partnerships with organised business include the Business Against Crime initiative, which has resulted in major declines in crime in targeted city centres, and the Business Working Group, which aims to review and revamp the criminal justice system. In addition, civil-society organisations have played significant roles in partnering with government in the fight against crime and gender-based violence.

Our National Development Plan; Vision 2030 also puts safety and security at the centre of a developmental state. The safety vision espoused in the National Development Plan, is for “All people living in South Africa to feel safe and have no fear of crime by 2030”. To achieve safer communities, the NDP calls for strengthening of the criminal justice system and reforms to the police, but emphasises that, as importantly, the underlying root causes of violence and crime that need to be addressed.

25. Improving Social Inclusion and Equity

Inclusivity and equity are critical issues for South Africa. The deep history and consequent legacy of South African cities and towns is one of racial segregation, poverty, and exclusion from social and economic opportunities. This has established a template for a divided urbanism that is difficult to break down due to its economic underpinnings. Spatially, it has left a legacy of sprawl, low densities, functional segregation between home and work, alongside racial and class separations. This equals high levels of inefficiency and wasteful use of scarce resources, especially land and infrastructure networks, which in turn translates into severe fiscal pressures when seeking interventions to forge more integrated spaces.

In many instances, for example, rapid growth and development of cities has encouraged locational segregation by income, by class and by colour, of the respective social groupings making up city populations. This phenomena is often referred to as the ‘urban divide’ and can be graphically reflected in the spatial formation of most of the cities in the developing world. This spatial and economic divide negatively impacts on social cohesion: it diminishes economic opportunity, and reduces the hope for improved prosperity and a better quality of life for the city dweller.

Cities can offer opportunities such as access to better services, connectivity, cultural and artistic vibrancy and green and open public spaces. Indeed, various developmental agendas have confirmed that different urban populations experience the city very differently. A more equitable city life then needs a clearer definition of what this would look like, and what it would entail in terms of better governance and planning for a safer, more inclusive, liveable city.
Post Democracy in South Africa, the ruling ANC declared that: ‘No political democracy can survive and flourish if the mass of our people remain in poverty, without land, without tangible prospects for a better life. Attacking poverty and deprivation must therefore be the first priority of a democratic government.’ Thereafter, on 8 May 1996 all political parties in the new democracy unanimously adopted a Constitution whose preamble encapsulated the belief that “South Africa belongs to all who live in it, united in our diversity”.

Democracy also introduced inclusive and equity-based principles to South Africans, as are enshrined in the Constitution: freedom of movement and of association, the right to own property, freedom of expression and freedom of the press, the equality of women, religious freedom, workplace freedom and the right to strike and protest, all in an attempt to restore the human dignity that was stripped away in the colonial and apartheid past.

The White Paper on Local government (1988) was a seminal policy framework for local government, and gave rise to the local government legislation that governs this sphere. Soon to follow were important policy frameworks to reverse segregation and restore dignity. These included the framework for inclusive human settlements (Breaking New Ground, 2004), the integrated urban renewal programme (URP), and the integrated sustainable rural development programme, (ISRDP), which ran for a decade from 2001-2011.

The requirement for coordinated implementation of these programmes was a new test for the system of intergovernmental relations, bringing together all three spheres of government to act in both rural and urban areas.

In direct support of creating policy from the vision of transformed urban spaces, the country’s Integrated Urban Development Framework (IUDF) process was initiated in 2012, and has become progressively aligned to the thinking that informs the UN Habitat’s Urban Agenda. The IUDF will be released for stakeholder and public comment in August 2014.

Urban policy in South Africa is crafting response to inclusive cities that includes this principle when planning for:

i. Universal access to decent, sustainable services and infrastructure.

ii. Universal access to educational, health and the other key social services that will ensure progressive social and economic inclusion.

iii. Protection of the civic rights and freedoms enshrined in the Constitution (including the right to a safe and healthy environment).

iv. Inclusive economic growth, characterised by secure livelihoods for all, and decreasing levels of inequality.

v. Acknowledging, enabling and providing a range of settlement options of urban dwellers.

vi. Urban spaces that are designed to be inclusive by being safe and accessible, and

vii. Local participation and ownership in city development processes.

26. Challenges Experienced and Lessons Learned in these Areas

Reviews of existing legislation have demonstrated the importance of the better management of concurrency between national and provincial governments, in order to better
deliver streamlined services in municipal spaces, that are well governed and fiscally viable. Similarly, research into the duplication and fragmentation of functions between the two-tier system of local government (district and local) has opened the discourse in government for reforms to the assignment framework for powers and functions.

The broad principle of defining how differentiation may be better applied between types of municipality, spatially, by performance and governance capabilities is also the subject of ongoing exploration within government. Reforms to legislation are required to improve intergovernmental planning for accelerated spatial transformation, and for greater functional accountabilities. The new legislation to support land access and infrastructure development will be critical going forward to overcome constraints in resource access and efficiencies.

The country’s National Development Plan (NDP) has recognised these challenges. It is understood that the realisation of the vision outlined in the NDP has planning implications for all spheres of government and public entities, including the following:

• Aligning plans and programmes across the spheres to ensure that there is a systematic effort to address priorities highlighted in the NDP.

• The implementation processes to be coordinated to ensure that activities undertaken by all sectors complement each other and ensure that priorities are addressed in a systematic manner.

In planning, the Integrated Development Plans of municipalities (IDP) have an uneven record in delivering integrated planning across local spaces, as many national and provincial sector departments are not collaborating sufficiently with municipalities during the planning stages for infrastructure and services. Managing intergovernmental coordination is a major challenge in South Africa.

Viability-wise, a fiscal ‘gap’ is emerging in many municipalities, as revenue from the Treasury fails to bridge the growing gap between services revenue and municipal expenditure, due to increasing costs of bulk services, infrastructure investments and maintenance costs, and high levels of poverty. One lesson from this is that more centralized delivery mechanisms have been introduced through the new Infrastructure Development Act (May 2014).

Ward committees often function poorly and appear vulnerable to political manipulation. The escalation of service delivery protests occurring across South Africa conveys a general attitude of dissatisfaction with local government and confirms the need to improve participatory governance.

All the ingredients have been assembled for effective, responsive and participatory local government. Yet, for all the achievements, there is an argument that government still has to invest more towards promoting participatory governance and in particular towards a functional ward committee system.

While there can be no dispute on the impressive commitment to the development of a culture of participation, it would seem that most municipalities still have to extend the impact of the ward committees in the community and within the council. The continued countrywide community protests can be viewed as an expression of dissatisfaction within this realm of governance in the country. Research conducted by the Department of Cooperative Governance in partnership with key stakeholders indicates, inter alia, the following shortcomings:
• Incorrect composition of ward committees – the elected members should represent a diversity of interests in the ward and there should be equitable representation;
• Uneven credibility and awareness amongst local communities often linked to a perception of political bias;
• Lack of evidence that ward committees have preferred access to municipal information or are able to influence council;
• Physical constraints, such as size of some wards;
• Problems linked to voluntary nature of ward committees;
• Political rivalry between the ward councilor and ward committee members;
• Bad multi-party relations and weak-organized community bodies; and.
• Poor relationship between community development workers and ward committee members.

Although all of the above-mentioned challenges need to be unpacked and addressed each on its own, the biggest obstacle for effective ward committees is the total lack of continuous involvement in terms of administrative and financial support by the municipalities. Key lessons from functional and effective ward committees have confirmed the importance of governance levers to be involved in core municipal processes, i.e. the Integrated Development Plan (IDP).

Our cities, as part of the Safer Cities Programme play a critical role in ensuring safe urban spaces. The Qalakabusha Social Intervention Programme developed by the eThekwini Municipality, for example, focuses on collaborative efforts to deal with homelessness, vagrancy and substance abuse within the inner city and surrounding areas. The municipality is also involved with stakeholders in securing buildings to be used as shelters for the homeless where rehabilitative programmes will be offered. The programme has highlighted the value of multi-sectoral approaches in dealing with social issues and urban safety.

The following key issues have emerged from the intervention of several initiatives:

a) The need for holistic approaches in order to attain safety: Policies and interventions aimed at preventing violence and crime should be transformative in nature. They should take a holistic view of the situation addressing various facets such as social, economic, political factors, etcetera.

b) Government cannot do it on its own, partnerships are critical: Partnership between government and non-government role players, both civil-society and private sector is critical to deal with violence and crime prevention. Believe in communities and their ability to innovate and provide solutions for their situations.

c) Creation of integrated information and knowledge capabilities that can be used by various units and other external role-players is critical for developing innovative and responsive solutions: Availability of an information system that can be used for various purposes such as to monitor crime, forward planning and plan for disasters is critical for creating safe environments.

d) Safety is an outcome of various initiatives, particularly at local level. The issue of security is perceived differently; government perceives safety as the absence of crime while citizens view or from the quality of life. The ability to balance the two views and expectations in national and local policies is critical.
27. Future Challenges and Issues in these areas that could be addressed by a New Urban Agenda

The effective administration, support and monitoring of legislation is the first baseline to enable legislation to be effective as a lever for development. The collection of performance data is essential, and subsequent analysis and interpretation, to ensure that the cycle of evidence-based policy-making is well informed and responsive to the needs on the ground. Legislation also needs amendments and updating in response to changing conditions, as illustrated through the need to revise the governance arrangements for powers and functions to allow for more specific forms of differentiation in assignment of powers, that can benefit urban authorities and their governance functions.

It is also important to recognize the complexity of implementing legislation within a unitary state, whereby the Constitutional principles of interrelatedness and interdependence of each sphere require high levels of consultation and agreement on matters impacting on another sphere.

In the planning framework, this complexity is demonstrated by the problems of aligning and coordinating the investment plans of sectors, as assigned by legislation and by the Constitution, within municipal spaces (e.g. water, electricity, housing, transport), with the plans and budget of the respective municipalities. This is especially complex in urban areas, where as category A entities, they should have sole executive powers over a wide range of functions.

Going forward, implementation of the Spatial Planning and Land use Management Act (SPLUMA) and means to formalize secure land tenure for the urban poor needs to be prioritized.

Then to complement this, mechanisms for improving spatial planning, improving community access to planning processes, and improving intergovernmental coordination around land management will need implementation focus.

New measures are currently being taken to strengthen the intergovernmental planning framework. The new framework recognises the need for differentiation, in planning demand, scope and resources between differing municipalities, thus providing a revised legislative framework for urban planning to support increased proficiency and own authority over key urban development functions.

Poor coordination of planning and service delivery implementation has hindered access, promoted urban sprawl and resulted in uneven quality of services. To improve coordination of urban development, the National Development Plan (NDP) recommends that the urban housing and public transport functions are devolved to cities, where human settlement planning takes place. This is to be complemented by a comprehensive review of powers and functions across the spheres, to provide for greater clarity and scope for differentiation.

For deepening local democracy, the empowerment of governance structures at local level is important, as well as establishing the required mechanisms to fight corruption and promote accountability and transparency within municipalities, complemented by comprehensive support programmes as provided for in S154 of the Constitution. Attention should also be given to ensure the broad-based participation of local communities in decentralized structures and bringing marginalised and vulnerable groups in more meaningful ways into governance processes.

The National Development Plan envisions that by 2030 South Africa will have a state that...
is capable of playing a developmental and transformative role. In broad terms, such a state intervenes to support and guide development in such a way that benefits and accrues across society, especially the poor. Communities must persist to hold government accountable and demonstrate resilience in following up on initiatives that they participated in shaping. As government, we do not believe that public participation challenges should be responded to through policy and legislative reviews, but we would want the resilience of communities to be marshalled and directed at how the country is moved forward. If we accept that community participation must begin at the lowest level within the community, then citizens must be empowered to participate in local governance.

The realisation of the urban approach to safety demands an integrated multi-sectoral consideration of the ways in which urban safety mechanisms can best be mainstreamed across development practices and the respective roles of all spheres of government. In order to be successfully achieved, it is integral that urban safety be factored into the urban planning and risk management strategies of all cities across South Africa. Safety is not a sectoral issue, but a cross-cutting issue. The inclusion of safety in national urban policies is one mechanism of mainstreaming safety.

The outcomes must be the creation of liveable, inclusive urban spaces. To this effect, focus needs to be on adopting a developmental approach that is based on investing in people, places and jobs. This can be achieved among others through first-class public facilities and infrastructure, as well as the first-class services in public facilities - from first class education in our public schools, public transport systems and health services, etcetera.

This requires a commitment from both government and society to work together, based on a strong social compact, and including the private and business sector to ensure job creation builds decent jobs and livelihoods that promote a sense of equity and dignity.
Chapter V: Urban Economy: Issues and Challenges for a New Urban Agenda

28. Improving municipal/local finance

See Annexure H for a description of South Africa’s intergovernmental system.

The Municipal Finance Management Act (MFMA) was introduced in 2003. At that time, the system of local government finance was characterised by practices such as one-year line-item budgeting, which did not support strategic planning and the alignment of budgets with priorities over the medium term. This generally resulted in councils allocating resources based on historical commitments rather than looking at priorities and the future needs of communities.

Municipal finance practices were also not rooted in a culture of performance and regular reporting. Reports were often irregular or inaccurate, or contained too much data and too little useful information. Often municipalities did not publish annual reports and did not submit their financial statements for audit on time or at all.

Compared to where local government was in 2003, significant strides have been made with implementing the new financial management arrangements spelt out in the MFMA and its regulations. However, progress is uneven and many municipalities are yet to implement both the letter and the spirit of the MFMA, namely ‘to enable managers to manage’ within a framework of regular and consistent reporting so that they can be held accountable.

Key mechanisms for strengthening accountability

The set of legislation governing local government provides for a number of mechanisms for strengthening accountability.

The first mechanism involves separating and clarifying roles and responsibilities of mayors, executive councillors, non-executive councillors and officials. This separation of political and management roles is critical for good governance.

The second mechanism involves developing a performance orientation. The legal framework introduces requirements and processes for establishing service delivery priorities and plans. The aim is to ensure alignment between the plans, budgets, implementation actions and reporting to ensure proper management accountability for the achievement of service delivery targets.

26 The executive mayor and executive committee are expected to provide political leadership, by proposing policies, guiding the development of budgets and performance targets, and overseeing their implementation by monitoring performance through in-year reports. In executing their duties, they may not use their position, privileges or confidential information for private gain or to improperly benefit another person.

The municipal manager holds the primary legal accountability for financial management in terms of the MFMA and, together with other senior managers, is responsible for implementation and outputs. They have a duty to act with fidelity, honesty and integrity and in the best interests of the municipality at all times.

Non-executive councillors, as elected representatives of the community, debate and approve the proposed policies and budgets and also oversee the performance of the municipality. They hold both the executive mayor or committee and the officials accountable for performance on the basis of quarterly and annual reports.

26 The executive mayor and executive committee are expected to provide political leadership, by proposing policies, guiding the development of budgets and performance targets, and overseeing their implementation by monitoring performance through in-year reports. In executing their duties, they may not use their position, privileges or confidential information for private gain or to improperly benefit another person.
The third mechanism involves strengthening reporting and disclosure requirements. High quality and timely management information allows management to be proactive in identifying and solving problems as they arise. It also strengthens the separation of roles and supports a performance orientation in local government.

**Alignment of planning, budgeting and reporting**

Section 153 of the Constitution requires that ‘a municipality must structure and manage its administration, budgeting and planning processes to give priority to the basic needs of the community, and to promote the social and economic development of the community’.

The MFMA, together with the Municipal Systems Act (2000), aims to facilitate compliance with this constitutional duty by ensuring that municipalities’ priorities, plans, budgets, implementation actions and reports are properly aligned.

**Recent and future financial management reforms**

Reforming municipal financial management is not an event, but a process. The introduction of the MFMA in 2003 laid the foundation for this. Since then, regulations dealing with supply chain management, public private partnerships, the minimum competency requirements of municipal finance officials and asset transfers have been put in place. Each reform aims to build on the foundation laid by previous initiatives, taking into account the time needed for municipal systems and practices to change.

Since 2008, National Treasury has been giving specific attention to strengthening municipal budgeting and reporting practices. Key initiatives have been the introduction of the Municipal Budget and Reporting Regulations in 2009, the enforcement of in-year financial reporting processes and firmer management of conditional grants in accordance with the annual Division of Revenue Act. These reforms have been supported by strengthening National Treasury’s local government database and by publishing an increasing range of local government financial information on National Treasury’s website.

**Future reform initiatives National Treasury is currently working on include:**

- introducing a standard chart of accounts for municipalities to ensure financial transactions are captured consistently by municipalities, and so improve the quality of financial reporting
- strengthening revenue and cash management policies, processes and procedures, with a particular emphasis on tariff setting
- ensuring the better alignment of plans, budgets and reporting by paying attention to the structure and content of Service Delivery and Budget Implementation Plans (SDBIPs) and annual reports, and aligning the format of annual financial statements to report against budgets
- strengthening non-financial reporting, to facilitate evaluations of ‘value for money’
- finalising of the regulations for financial misconduct to facilitate the enforcement of the provisions dealing with financial conduct in chapter 15 of the MFMA.
29. **Strengthening and Improving Access to housing finance**

In 1992 a National Housing Forum was established to address the housing crisis brought about by apartheid spatial planning. The National Housing Forum comprised a range of stakeholders, from political parties to civic associations, researchers/academics and representatives of the private sector, but excluded the government and the National Party.

The debates in the National Housing Forum around whether housing should be private or public sector driven, the type of housing to be provided and the reason for the lack of private sector housing finance finally culminated in a compromise in 1993. The compromise gave rise to the *1994 New Housing and Policy Strategy for South Africa White Paper*. The White paper outlines how government intends to resolve the housing crisis, with specific focus on the provision of shelter and security of tenure. It acknowledged that lack of secure tenure needed to be urgently addressed, “as the most likely intervention to have a highly significant and positive impact on the propensity of individuals and communities to commence with the process of investing in their own housing conditions, no matter how modest they may be at the beginning.”

The first 10 years of housing delivery successfully established the necessary legislative and policy framework for the delivery of housing and delivered to scale as promised. However, the 10 year review conducted by government also found serious shortcomings as well as changing conditions. This led to the approval in 2004 by Cabinet of *Breaking New Ground - A Comprehensive Plan for the Development of Sustainable Human Settlements*. The Comprehensive Plan seeks to address delivery constraints, corruption and mal-

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administration, provide more choices in terms of tenure options, create racially and economically integrated settlements, and improve the quality of the product offered. Households earning less than R3500/month are now entitled to the full subsidy, as well as introducing a grant to those households earning between R3500 and R7000 as a deposit to assist these households in obtaining mortgage finance.\textsuperscript{28} The Comprehensive Plan also indicates a shift towards demand responsiveness, rather than a one-size-fits-all approach, indicating a range of housing options will be offered, and a range of subsidies provided in line with these differing options.

Through a focus on stimulating the housing market, government’s housing subsidy intervention becomes one of asset creation and broad based economic empowerment for households earning between R0 to R3 500 a month. A housing benefit received through government’s subsidised housing programme becomes an asset which can be saved, traded, or collateralised and housing becomes the support around which an individual’s or family’s financial management strategy is based.

Government has created four Housing Development Finance Institutions (National Housing Finance Corporation, Rural Housing Loan Fund, National Home Builders Registration Council and National Urban Reconstruction Housing Agency) to facilitate access to housing finance to the low-income group across the country.

See Annexure I for overview of these Housing Development Finance Institutions.
On the affordable housing market for households earning between R3 501 and R15 000 per month, Government has developed and implemented Finance Linked Individual Subsidy Programme (FLISP) in order to provide financial assistance for them. The amount of subsidy offered range from R10 000 to R87 000 for a qualified household.29

Together, Government and the private sector have delivered 5 677 614 formal houses, the housing market has increased from R321 billion in 1994 to R4,036 trillion in 2014.30

Between 2004 and 2008, Banks invested R53,1 billion in housing finance loans through the Financial Services Charter (FSC) where 985 000 families benefited; and a further R42,9 billion in housing finance loans has been originated by banks since 2009 providing finance to an additional 1,054 million beneficiaries. From 2008, approximately 80 000 affordable properties have been added to the existing affordable stock base.31 Of almost 6 million residential properties on the Deeds Registry, 3,5 million are valued at less than R500 000.32

In summary, to date, Government has spent R125 billion on human settlements development and R16 billion on other infrastructure projects for redeveloping human settlements. Overall, 3.7 million subsidised housing opportunities for very poor households have been delivered since 1994 allowing 12,5 million people access to accommodation.33

30. Supporting Local Economic Development

Prior to the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa of 1996 and preceding the transition to democratic local government, local authorities, as they were then known, were mere creatures of statute created by provincial governments.34 The transformation of local government

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29 Reviewed Finance Linked Individual Subsidy Programme (20 April 2012)
30 Twenty Year Review - South Africa1994-2014
31 ABSA, Quarterly Review 2011
32 ABSA, Quarterly Review 2011
33 Twenty Year Review - South Africa 1994-2014
34 http://www.salga.org.za/pages/Municipalities/About-Municipalities
was directed at removing the racial basis of government and making it a vehicle for the integration of society and the redistribution of municipal services from the well-off to the poor.

**Achievements**

In South Africa, cities and large towns produce 80% of the country’s GVA and they are home to 69% of the country’s population. This presents opportunities in terms of the natural concentration of economic activity, economic growth, poverty reduction and job creation. It also creates a number of social costs and challenges ranging from increased pressure on infrastructure, to increase unemployment.

South African cities have made notable achievements in a number of areas, from an economic development perspective.

Government has also invested considerable expenditure in infrastructure development in all the major cities of the country, mainly in the road and logistics infrastructure. Also notable is the country’s focus on incentives, with programmes such as the Special Economic Zones and Industrial Development Zones. The country’s Framework for Local Economic Development (2014) also places specific emphasis on city economic development as a central theme in the thematic areas of building a diverse economic base; developing inclusive economies; enterprise development; economic governance and developing skillful and learning economies.

**Development of the Informal economy**

The Department of Trade and Industry\(^{35}\) (the DTI) reports that 2.21 million people were located in the informal sector in the second quarter of 2011 (excluding the agricultural sector), compared to 9.2 million in the non-

\(^{35}\) Department of Trade and Industry, National Informal Business Upliftment Strategy, 2014

agricultural formal sector. This represented 1.3 million men and just over 900,000 women. The DTI further indicates that the value of the informal sector is estimated at around 8% of South Africa’s GDP or R160 billion.

Because of its expansion, its linkages with the formal economy, its sheer weight of numbers with respect to contributions to the overall economy, the informal economy not only represents an important livelihood strategy, but is now a critical and distinctive policy focus in South Africa, as seen by the recent approval of the National Informal Business Upliftment Strategy (2014). The new strategy focuses on regulatory reforms, local government reform as it relates to the sector, social security, sector development support, trader organisations support, and youth and women empowerment.

**Improved Long Terms Planning**

Major metropolitan municipalities in the country have adopted long-term growth and development strategies that integrate economic planning, spatial planning, infrastructure planning and social planning. This facilitates predictability of the cities’ development trajectories, whilst it also ensures that adequate resources are allocated to the implementation of those plans.

**Township Economies**

Linked to the growing trend, urbanisation has seen the growing development of township economies. Migration to cities creates rapidly expanding informal settlements (currently 189 in Johannesburg and 232 in Cape Town)\(^{36}\). This has spawned the rise of a large, poorly documented informal (cash) economy. Recent research by the Sustainable Livelihoods Foundations indicates that that the growth

\(^{36}\) Sustainable Livelihoods Foundation, http://livelihoods.org.za/
40. The reasons why the unemployment rate has increased from 20% in 1994, despite the large growth in employment over the period, are that the number of people entering the labour market as well as the number of people being counted in the labour market has increased. The number of people actively seeking work was estimated at 2.4 million in the mid-90s, rising to 4.8 million in 2013.
### Table 9: Overall employment by economic sector and industry

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sector and industry</th>
<th>2001</th>
<th>2011</th>
<th>2012</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Formal (non-agricultural)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mining</td>
<td>3.9%</td>
<td>2.1%</td>
<td>2.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manufacturing</td>
<td>11.7%</td>
<td>11.5%</td>
<td>11.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Utilities</td>
<td>0.6%</td>
<td>0.7%</td>
<td>0.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Construction</td>
<td>2.7%</td>
<td>5.6%</td>
<td>5.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trade</td>
<td>10.9%</td>
<td>14.8%</td>
<td>14.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transport</td>
<td>3.9%</td>
<td>4.3%</td>
<td>4.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finance</td>
<td>7.9%</td>
<td>11.8%</td>
<td>11.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community and social services</td>
<td>14.2%</td>
<td>19.3%</td>
<td>20.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>55.9%</td>
<td>70.1%</td>
<td>71.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Informal (Non-agricultural)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mining</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>n/a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manufacturing</td>
<td>3.1%</td>
<td>1.7%</td>
<td>1.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Utilities</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Construction</td>
<td>2.4%</td>
<td>2.4%</td>
<td>2.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trade</td>
<td>16.0%</td>
<td>7.7%</td>
<td>7.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transport</td>
<td>1.5%</td>
<td>1.6%</td>
<td>1.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finance</td>
<td>1.2%</td>
<td>1.2%</td>
<td>1.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community and social services</td>
<td>2.6%</td>
<td>2.3%</td>
<td>2.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>n/a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>26.8%</td>
<td>16.9%</td>
<td>15.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Agriculture</strong></td>
<td>7.7%</td>
<td>4.6%</td>
<td>4.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Private households</strong></td>
<td>9.5%</td>
<td>8.5%</td>
<td>8.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


### 32. Integration of the urban economy into national development policy

Since 1994, densities have increased in some urban areas and there has also been partial regeneration of inner cities but overall, little progress has been made in reversing apartheid geography and in some cases the divides have been exacerbated (NDP 2011: 238). Cities and large towns, home to 69% of the population produce 80% of South Africa’s GVA, and yet have some of the lowest densities in the world. In contrast, the country’s rural areas account for 13% of the national GVA and 22% of the population.

Today, about 63% of South Africans now live in urban areas and 40% in metropolitan municipalities. Recognising these realities, the National Development Plan (NDP) has called on cities to be economic growth drivers through improved spatial efficiency and social inclusion. It predicts that by 2030 another 7.8 million people will be living in South African cities and by 2050 a further 6 million, adding

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42 Department of Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs, Towards an integrated urban development framework. A discussion document, 2013
enormous pressures to housing, services and infrastructure\(^43\).

Since the advent of democracy, government has recognised the importance of planning for liveable, economically viable and sustainable towns, cities and rural areas. The 1998 White Paper on Local Government highlights the role of local government in restoring spatial justice, and social and economic development. In execution, remarkable progress has been made in the universal access to free and basic services. Moreover, within the framework of a cooperative governance system, huge investments have gone into public housing, transport subsidies and the underlying infrastructure networks to service residential and commercial areas.

Since 1994, there have been significant service delivery and development gains, but apartheid spatial patterns have largely remained unchanged in most areas.

\(^43\) Department of Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs: Towards an integrated urban development framework: A discussion document, 2013.

Some achievements are highlighted below:

i. Adoption of fiscal and monetary policies aimed at maintaining economic stability, while seeking to bring about economic transformation and increase productivity through micro-economic interventions.

ii. Government is now focused on upgrading informal settlements as well as building new low-income houses to share existing infrastructure.

iii. Since 1994, the national Department of Human Settlements has spent R125 billion (at 2010 prices) on housing and human settlement development, while R16 billion has been spent by other government agencies on other infrastructure projects for redeveloping human settlements.

iv. The capital investment by the state has created 1.29 million direct, indirect and induced person-year jobs, and the operational investment has created a further 10,800 jobs.

v. The growth of the average price of houses in the market, including for the affordable or gap market, has been fivefold over the 20 years.

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**Table 10: Settlement typology, GVA and population change, 1996-2011\(^44\)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Functional settlement type</th>
<th>Total GVA (xR1000)</th>
<th>Pop 1996</th>
<th>Pop 2001</th>
<th>Pop 2011</th>
<th>% change p/a 1996-2011</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>City Regions (Pop &gt;1million &amp; gov and economic service index: &gt;7)</td>
<td>1 185 948</td>
<td>15 005 442</td>
<td>17 411 707</td>
<td>21 856 192</td>
<td>3.04%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cities (pop &gt; 400 000 &amp;&lt; 1m; &amp; gov and economic service index: 2-5)</td>
<td>178 276</td>
<td>2 782 186</td>
<td>3 209 787</td>
<td>3 876 064</td>
<td>2.62%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regional Service Centres (pop: 100-500k &amp; gov and economic service index)</td>
<td>88 770</td>
<td>2 093 504</td>
<td>2 333 315</td>
<td>2 686 146</td>
<td>1.89%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Service Towns (pop: &gt;20 000 &amp; gov and economic service index: 0.065)</td>
<td>27 278</td>
<td>664 479</td>
<td>826 337</td>
<td>970 366</td>
<td>3.07%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total cities and larger towns</td>
<td>1 480 272</td>
<td>20 545 611</td>
<td>23 781 147</td>
<td>29 388 768</td>
<td>2.87%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local and niche towns (pop varies &amp; gov and economic service index: 0.001-0.065)</td>
<td>123 168</td>
<td>3 418 703</td>
<td>3 937 326</td>
<td>4 345 993</td>
<td>1.81%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rural nodes in high density settlements</td>
<td>4 850</td>
<td>148 384</td>
<td>160 935</td>
<td>191 123</td>
<td>1.92%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Small Towns</td>
<td>128 018</td>
<td>3 567 087</td>
<td>4 098 261</td>
<td>4 537 116</td>
<td>1.81%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rest of South Africa (high dense rural areas, densely populated areas, and sparsely populated areas)</td>
<td>16 408 074</td>
<td>16 925 740</td>
<td>17 844 213</td>
<td>16 408 074</td>
<td>0.58%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total South Africa</td>
<td>40 520 772</td>
<td>44 805 148</td>
<td>51 770 097</td>
<td>51 770 097</td>
<td>1.85%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^44\) Department of Co-operative Governance and Traditional Affairs, www.cogta.gov.za
33. Challenges experienced and Lessons learned in these areas

The current financial model for municipal finance is based on the presumption that municipalities can raise 95% of their own revenue. But this was the case before 1994 when municipalities had much smaller boundaries, mostly excluded the African majority, and had a limited service delivery role. It cannot apply to the new municipalities, with their larger boundaries, significantly bigger numbers of residents, and expanded developmental role.

Local government needs to be allocated more funds from the national budget but local government will have to be assisted with capacity to spend its funds more productively and effectively. Many municipalities do not have sufficiently qualified people to manage their funds effectively. Poorer municipalities are unable to pay for the technical skills they need. E.g. In the 2009/10 financial year, municipalities were unable to spend 17.1% of their capital budget. By December 2010, for example, the municipal debt had reached R62.3 billion. Despite its huge responsibilities, local government gets at present only 8.7% of the national revenue. While this represents a significant increase from the 4.7% of the budget local government received in 2006, it is still widely considered to be insufficient to meet the escalating demands of governing at local level.

Challenges in supporting economic development in municipal areas fundamentally lie in misunderstandings as to what actually constitutes what has been widely called Local Economic Development (LED). Attracting investments in local areas requires collaboration between role-players, and an enabling environment in terms of services and infrastructure. The notion of ‘competitive advantage’ needs to be understood, as does the likelihood for expansion of industry, manufacturing or tourism.

In order to fight the challenge of unemployment, inequality and poverty in the country, R9 billion was committed to a ‘job fund’ to co-finance state and private projects that were intended to create jobs in 2011. The Expanded Public Works Program (EPWP) had been allocated R73 billion over three years, which also includes community based projects, maintenance of roads and infrastructure.

With regard to improving access to housing finance, key challenges identified are to access well-located suitable land, affordability, credit indebtedness, housing supply, rising property rates, taxes, levies and electricity prices, upgrade more in-situ informal settlements, and connect and improve existing township areas simultaneously. Inner city land is the most expensive to acquire and is scarce, while strategically located public land is in short supply or not always suitable for housing. Most cities have some strategic and under-used sites, for example owned by a number of state entities, which seem eminently suitable for housing development but are difficult to acquire due to the propensity to sell at inflated market level values which most municipalities cannot afford, even though much of the land in question was acquired extremely cheaply under apartheid or shortly thereafter.

Challenges in supporting economic development in municipal areas fundamentally lie in misunderstandings as to what actually constitutes what has been widely called Local Economic Development (LED). Attracting investments in local areas requires collaboration between role-players, and an enabling environment in terms of services and infrastructure. The notion of ‘competitive advantage’ needs to be understood, as does the likelihood for expansion of industry, manufacturing or tourism.

Institutionally, there needs to be far greater focus in all spheres of government on spatially informed economic analysis and subsequent targeting.

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45 Department of Co-operative Governance and Traditional Affairs, Towards a Review of the Local Government Financial System
46 Department of Co-operative Governance and Traditional Affairs, Towards a Review of the Local Government Financial System
47 Twenty Year Review - South Africa 1994-2014
34. **Future challenges and issues in these areas that could be addressed by a New Urban Agenda**

Low-income/subsidised housing provision has been a major focus of government in post-apartheid urban South Africa. While successes can be noted, there is growing concern regarding the social and environmental sustainability of housing programs and the impacts upon both the surrounding environment and human health. However, the major obstacles to a sustainable, financially viable low-cost housing process, include macro-economic conditions, the limits to the state purse, the high proportion of demand, and the enduring historical legacies of race and class.

As centres of economic concentration and industrial agglomeration, economic linkages between South Africa’s growing cities and the rural hinterland are increasingly becoming important. Another future challenge is to move beyond the traditional notions of building competitive cities (e.g. focusing on industrial clustering) to a stronger focus on sustainable, inclusive growth, focusing on spatial economic inclusivity.

Target women and the youth: The government is committed to this form of targeted employment creation as a poverty reduction measure to avert deep poverty levels whilst the larger economy is expanding and reaching a level where it is able to provide more decent long-term jobs and thus sustainable livelihoods.

A challenge for the New Agenda will be to offer more partnerships for innovative solutions to job creation for the poor. Part of this agenda should urge governments to recognise the importance of the informal sector for sustaining the poor.

Finally, recent studies by the Economic Development Department indicate that it is crucial to maintain, expand and strengthen the existing network of gateways, ports and corridors and regions that currently act as infrastructure-led job engines. The focus on infrastructure expansion is a key feature of South Africa’s economic growth strategy.
35. **Slum upgrading and Prevention**

South African towns and cities are of a unique nature characterised by historically distorted settlement patterns. This is largely attributed to the effects of segregation according to race, class and pre 1994 apartheid planning policies. The post 1994 democratic government was faced with huge backlogs for adequate shelter and housing. Informal settlement policy began as a clear policy of clearing backlogs through the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP). However the approach of clearing and relocating informal settlement dwellers to greenfield developments, which are further away from socio-economic opportunities, perpetuated the problems of informality, characterised by poor living conditions as well as social and economic exclusion.

**Government/Local Authorities in partnerships with stakeholders**

As a result of the perpetual challenge and increasing number of informal settlements, high level policy discussions at a National level began to explore more progressive ways of responding to informal settlements. The policy decisions that materialised resulted in the introduction and approval of the Comprehensive Plan for the development of Sustainable Human Settlements commonly known as “Breaking New Ground” (BNG) in 2004 by Government.

The Plan, or BNG, put in place an approach that promotes the progressive in-situ upgrading of informal settlements with an emphasis on the need for Municipalities to play a greater role in housing development and supply through the following:

- Integration of informal settlements into the broader urban fabric to overcome spatial, social and economic exclusion.
- The introduction of a new informal settlement upgrading instrument to support the incremental approach to upgrading of informal settlements, using a phased in-situ upgrading approach or relocation of households as a last resort where development is not feasible or desirable.
- The introduction of a range of tenure options and housing typologies into the upgrading process, including introducing mechanisms to optimise the locational value of land through social housing (medium density) solutions.

BNG also called for the introduction of a mechanism to fast-track the release of well-located land and service provision interventions to forestall the establishment of informal settlements. It was additionally intended that a comprehensive mobilisation and communication strategy of all relevant stakeholders and / or role players would be developed to clarify the intentions of the policy and to raise awareness on the implications of the policy.

The Upgrading of Informal Settlements Programme (UISP) instrument is government’s overarching policy approach to the upgrading of the country’s informal settlements. It recognises the importance of an integrated approach to the development of sustainable human settlements that recognises the value of informal settlement upgrading as a viable strategy for addressing inequality. It details the process and procedure for the in situ upgrading of informal settlements as it relates to the provision of grants to a
municipality to carry out the upgrading of informal settlements within its jurisdiction in a structured manner. The programme recognises the importance of community participation and specifies the installation of a social compact between the local authority / municipality and the community. The programme, through grant funding provided, assists the municipality in fast tracking the provision of security of tenure, basic municipal services, social and economic amenities and the empowerment of residents in informal settlements to take control of housing development directly applicable to them.

The shift to the incremental approach resulted in the establishment of the National Upgrading Support Programme (NUSP), a technical assistance and capacity building support programme. The objective of this support programme was to assist municipalities and provinces who were not accustomed to a more community-centric approach to upgrading.

36. Improving access to adequate housing

Housing in South Africa is a basic human right, enshrined in the country’s Constitution. The State is obliged to progressively ensure everyone has access to adequate housing, and must take reasonable legislative and other measures to achieve the realisation of this right.

According to Census 2011 data, the vast majority (77.6%) of South Africans were living in formal dwellings, an increase of 12.5% since census 1996. Few people seemed to live in informal dwellings (13.6%) and even fewer lived in traditional dwellings (7.9%); the latter is down from 18.3% in 1996.

The South African vision strives for the establishment of viable, socially and economically integrated communities, situated in areas allowing convenient access to economic opportunities as well as health, educational and social amenities, within which all South Africa’s people will have access on a progressive basis, to:

i. A permanent residential structure with secure tenure; and

ii. Potable water, adequate sanitary facilities including waste disposal and domestic electricity supply.

The Housing Subsidy Scheme is the primary assistance measure for the National Housing Programme. Households with an income of R3500 or less per month, who have not owned property previously, and who satisfy a range of other criteria, can apply for a subsidy and use it to get housing, either to own or to rent. Please also see Section 29 of this report for more information on South Africa’s housing programme.

The minimum size of permanent residential structures to be provided by means of the housing subsidy is 40 square metres of gross floor area. Each house under the National Housing Programme, as a minimum must be designed on the basis of:

- Two bedrooms;
- A separate bathroom with a toilet, a shower and hand basin;
- A combined living area and kitchen with wash basin; and
- A ready board electrical installation where electricity supply in the township is available.

Whilst nearly three million houses have been built for poor and low-income households since 1994 under the programme, there has been criticism of the programme in terms of poor quality construction, space being very small, not integrated into the larger policy framework for integrated human settlements and sites still located on the periphery of major urban centres. These matters are currently being urgently
addressed by the current Human Settlements administration.

In pursuing the goal of developing sustainable human settlements, a variety of Housing Programmes have been introduced including a social housing (rental housing) programme. The rental programme was introduced as one of initiatives towards eradication of housing backlogs, through provision of rental housing for low income persons who cannot be accommodated in the formal private rental market. The programme seeks to contribute to the Government’s agenda of re-dressing the imbalances of the past by bringing lower income people into areas where there are major economic opportunities; by promoting integration of the society (a mix of race and classes); by promoting spatial access to economic opportunity and promoting job creation.

It also provides an alternative to people that do not want home ownership (tenure diversity), promotes densification in demarcated zones that are rapidly urbanising; and supports urban renewal and city regeneration. Some social rental housing units tend to have up to four families move through their units over a 10-year period, offering a wider set of accommodation options in well-located areas, potentially having provided well located, affordable accommodation to more than 300,000 people.

**Key Achievements**

- Over the past 20 years, about 2.8 million completed houses and units, and just over 876,774 serviced sites, were delivered, allowing approximately 12.5 million people access to accommodation and a fixed asset.
- About 56 percent of all subsidies were allocated to woman headed households.
- About 353,666 rental units of the previous government were transferred into ownership of tenants.
- More than 10,739 communities in 968 towns and cities across the country benefitted from the Government Housing Programme, indicating the extent of the interface between communities and government, and each of the 3.7 million households.

### 37. Ensuring sustainable Access to Safe Drinking Water

In 1994 approximately 40 percent of households had no access to basic water supplies (defined as 25 litres of safe water within 200 metres of their homes). The democratic era witnessed the rapid delivery of water services to the population, with the backlog reduced to 5 percent of households without access to basic water supplies in 2012.49

South Africa achieved the MDG target of 88.3% in relation to access to an improved water source in 2005 when 88.4%; according to Stats SA General Household Survey (GHS), of the population had access to improved drinking water services. Census 2011 reported that 90.8% of the population was using an improved drinking water source. Census 2011 results indicate that the percentage of households with access to piped water inside the dwelling or yard has increased in all the nine provinces. The Western Cape had the highest percentage at 99.1%, followed by Gauteng, Free State and Northern Cape at 98.2%, 97.8% and 97.4%, respectively.

Further, South Africans have the right to Free Basic Water (FBW), which seeks to ensure that all people have access to water in the house or yard. However, there are still some major challenges pertaining to reaching the goal of 100% water supply for all communities and households.

49 Cited from Twenty Year Review – South Africa 1994-2014
South Africa has set itself a target of achieving improved access to drinking water services for all its citizens by 2014. According to the trend shown in the General Household Survey (GHS) data, it is unlikely that South Africa will meet the 100% target for itself by 2014. Separate studies have shown the reason for the flat trend of delivery of water services is due to functionality and the interpretation of the definition of what constitutes a basic service which should be access to a tap within 200 meters. Some of our provincial government departments defined “basic” as access to water in-yard or in-house which resulted in under capacity of the bulk water feeder mains.

Most of the achievements made towards meeting the water targets can be attributed to the South African government taking ownership of the MDG process through institutional alignment of government departments, appropriate funding models assisted by international loans, dedicated monitoring programmes by government departments, the Presidency and Parliament.50

![Figure 9: Proportion of population using an improved drinking water source](image)

The Census data provides the baseline year (1996) of the access to sanitation (49.3%) and the basis for calculating the MDG target of 74.65%. The GHS data is used to determine the likelihood of achieving the MDG Target using Census 2011 access to sanitation of 66.5%

38. Ensuring Sustainable Access to basic sanitation and drainage

In 1994, approximately 50 percent of households lacked basic sanitation (defined as a household toilet of at least a ventilated improved pit latrine standard). The democratic government also prioritised the rapid delivery of sanitation services to the population, increasing the percentage of households with access to at least a basic level of sanitation from 50 percent of households in 1994/95 to 83 percent in 2011/12. Despite the rapid progress, the bucket system, undignified sanitation

South Africa has set itself a target of achieving improved access to drinking water services for all its citizens by 2014. According to the trend shown in the General Household Survey (GHS) data, it is unlikely that South Africa will meet the 100% target for itself by 2014. Separate studies have shown the reason for the flat trend of delivery of water services is due to functionality and the interpretation of the definition of what constitutes a basic service which should be access to a tap within 200 meters. Some of our provincial government departments defined “basic” as access to water in-yard or in-house which resulted in under capacity of the bulk water feeder mains.

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and applying the rate of delivery to a sanitation service as provided. The trend observed is some 2% per annum i.e. 8% by 2015. It is likely that the MDG Target will be met.

South Africa has made steady and sustainable inroads into sustainable sanitation and drainage facilities. The percentage of households with access to flush or chemical toilets has increased in all the provinces since 1996. Census data 2011 shows that Gauteng is the province with the highest percentage (96.3%) of households with access to flush or chemical toilets, followed by North West, Western Cape, and Mpumalanga with 91.8%, 91.6% and 91.1%, respectively. The percentage of households that have access to flush or chemical toilets in Eastern Cape, Free State, KwaZulu-Natal and Northern Cape is below the national average of 90.6%.

South Africa has set itself a target of 100% access to improved sanitation facilities by 2014. This target will not be met. The data shows that between 1996 and 2001 the rate of sanitation delivery is half that of water and coming off a low base. Between 2001 and 2011, the sanitation rate of delivery is twice that of water. This difference in delivery seems to coincide with the institutional arrangements that the municipality boundaries for the local authorities were finalised in 2002.

The Water Services Act (1996) makes it a legal mandate of local authorities to provide access to water and sanitation to all the citizens of South Africa. The provision of water along the supply chain from source to tap requires a higher level of technical skill when compared to providing a basic improved sanitation facility like a ventilated improved pit. Census 2011 confirms the fact that South Africa’s rural municipalities are where the majority of no services exist for access to water and sanitation. Separate studies have shown that it is in these very municipalities where little to no technical skills exists. Therefore, appropriate technical skills are required in our rural municipalities to oversee planning and project management of programmes to achieve the ideal of 100% access to sanitation in the short term.  

Figure 10: Proportion of population using an improved sanitation facility

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52 Cited from Millennium Development Goals 2013 Country Report - South Africa
39. Improving Access to clean domestic energy

The vast majority (82.2%) of households are connected to the main electricity supply. Slightly more male headed households (83.1%) than female headed households (80.7%) had such a connection (StatsSA, 2013). Table 11 shows that the vast majority (89.5%) of non-poor households had connectivity to the main electricity supply. This was true for only 70.1% of poor households, meaning that three out of every ten poor households were living without electricity. Nevertheless, it does attest to the significant electrification process that has taken place in South Africa over the last two decades. What is interesting to note, is that poor households headed by women (71%) had a slightly higher connectivity than poor households headed by men (69.2%); this may reflect the status of women and female headed households in particular as a priority target group (StatsSA, 2013).

Table 11: Connectivity to main electricity supply by poverty status (upper bound poverty line) and sex of household head

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Connection to main electricity supply</th>
<th>Male head of household</th>
<th>Female head of household</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>All (%)</td>
<td>Non-poor (%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Connected</td>
<td>83.1</td>
<td>89.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not connected</td>
<td>16.9</td>
<td>10.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

StatsSA, 2013

Figure 11: Percentage distribution of households by type of energy used for lighting: Census 1996, Community Survey 2007 & Census 2011

The following data from Census 2011 depicts the different types of energy sources that households use as well as break down the electricity consumption or usage for lighting, cooking and heating (StatsSA, 2012). The data clearly shows an increase in household consumption of electricity for lighting, cooking and heating.
Figure 12: Percentage distribution of households by type of energy used for cooking: Census 1996, Community Survey 2007 & Census 2011

StatsSA, 2012

Figure 13: Percentage distribution of household by type of energy used for heating: Census 1996, Community Survey 2007 & Census 2011

StatsSA, 2012
South African households on average spend 14% of their total household income on energy needs, which is higher than the international benchmark of 10% for energy poverty. The majority (74%) of households in the poorest quintile are energy poor. According to the Department of Energy, even high income households are suffering under the burden of higher energy prices and even among the richest quintile, 13% of households are energy poor – clearly illustrating that increasing electricity prices are a threat to all South Africans.  

40. Improving Access to sustainable means of transport

The Public Transport Strategy of the Government of South Africa (2007) has two key thrusts:

• Accelerated Modal Upgrading (initiatives to transform bus, taxi and rail services); and

• Integrated Rapid Public Transport Networks focus on implementing high quality networks of Rail Priority Corridors and Bus Rapid Transit Corridors in thirteen cities led by major metropolitan centres around the country)

The Action Plan is in largely funded by the Public Transport Infrastructure and Systems Grant aimed at improving public transport infrastructure.

Since the adoption of the Strategy and Action Plan, the following has been achieved:

• R18 billion spent in 5 years. Includes at least R9 billion on 2010 World Cup “transport legacy” projects - mostly roads & city “beautification”

• 4 cities started building Bus rapid Transit Corridors (Johannesburg, Cape Town, Nelson Mandela Bay and Mbombela). Nelson Mandela Bay got stalled from 2009 and Mbombela built a partial HOV lane that was never operationalised

• Only Johannesburg and Cape Town are operating services (2009 and 2010 respectively)

• 2012/13 Rustenburg and Tshwane started building

• 2013/14 eThekwini commenced building

Furthermore, the Public Transport Infrastructure Systems Grant (PTIS Grant) as of the year 2013 has bought:

• Around 90km of dedicated lanes in Cape Town, Johannesburg, Rustenburg and Nelson Mandela Bay

• Around 300km of feeder routes in mixed traffic

• 51 stations

• Over 300 stops/shelters

• 4 depots that can service 600 vehicles

• Over 620 buses in Cape Town, Johannesburg, Nelson Mandela Bay and eThekwini

• 3 AFC smartcard systems in Cape Town, Johannesburg and eThekwini

• 2 Full ITS systems in Cape Town, Johannesburg plus interim in Nelson Mandela Bay Compensation to scrap over 1300 taxis in Cape Town and Johannesburg

• Extensive non-motorised transport (NMT) in Cape Town, Johannesburg, Rustenburg and eThekwini

The Accelerated Modal Upgrading Programme foresees investing significant amounts of towards upgrading the existing train stations, extending new lines and buying new rolling stock to replace the current fleet that has been in a state of disrepair. The extension and/or building of new rail lines has been a missing link in the SA transportation system for more than 40 years. The PRASA investments are a critical development for growing urban populations where the urban edge is also increasing, so that these new human settlements are connected to the commuter rail services.

The most commonly used mode of public transport in the country is the privately owned minibus taxi. It is an industry that is currently not regulated and attempts towards this have proved difficult. However, in 1999 government introduced a taxi recapitalisation programme to incentivize the private minibus taxi industry to renew its fleets with newer and safer vehicles, in the interests of commuter safety. A scrapping allowance of R55 000 per vehicle was allowed, provided that a new vehicle adhering to a list of safety specifications was purchased.

The Non-Motorized Transport (NMT) Policy is currently being finalised. There have been initiatives being implemented in various cities around the country. Only about 1% of South Africans bicycle to work, largely due to long distances (due to sprawling & segregated apartheid cities), unfavourable weather conditions (hot temperatures), and safety concerns. Non-motorised road users (pedestrians and cyclists) account for approximately 30% of road accident fatalities each year. Pedestrians and cyclists have been forced to share road space with motor vehicle users. There is virtually no infrastructure for the non-motorised transport mode. However, this is changing with city-led initiatives in Cape Town, Durban and Johannesburg progressively moving ahead, as well as in smaller cities like Polokwane.

In 2001, the Department of Transport initiated the Shova Kalula (Pedal Easy) bicycle project as a pilot project for the provision of a low cost mobility solution to improve the access and mobility of people in both rural and urban areas. See Annexure J for non-motorised transport pilot project.

The Department of Transport is embarking on completing the development of the National Transport Master Plan (NATMAP). NATMAP is a comprehensively holistic transport plan, i.e. it covers all modes of transport infrastructure and operations. The NATMAP goal is to produce a sustainable long term integrated multi-modal transportation systems action plan so that transportation interventions and/or investments are based on a coordinated implementation schedule. It is therefore a tool for identifying, selecting and prioritising the right projects or programmes at the right time for maximum infrastructure and operations investment impact.

41. Challenges Experienced and Lessons learnt

Slum Upgrading and Prevention:

i. Whilst UISP sets out the national approach to informal settlement upgrading; it is however not prominent in terms of application and/or practice across many informal settlement projects. As a result the conventional, quantitative housing delivery continues to dominate development policies and approaches to the point that the provision of a top structure (house) is perceived as the only ‘solution’.

ii. The distinction between slum upgrading and access to adequate housing is problematic. A high level of political will is needed
to stress the importance of incremental housing approaches in order to assist those living in informal settlements to improve their housing conditions without relocating them, and allowing for security of tenure, allocation of permanent plots and similar where this is possible.

iii. Insufficient access to well-located land has resulted in people living in situations of informality and resorting to land invasion in search of services and socio-economic opportunities. This has material consequences in terms of health and safety as well as political and legal consequences, including insecure tenure, vulnerability to evictions and the inability to claim rights to full citizenship.

iv. The alignment between human settlements and planning remains a key challenge and the NUSP is trying to build a stream of integrated informal settlements plans and / or strategies that can be aligned to municipal integrated plans and budgets for implementation.

v. Institutional capacity, roles and responsibilities: the inability of all stakeholders (national, provincial and local government; NGOs; CBOs; Private Sector and communities) to effectively work together continues to hinder the scale and impact of delivery.

Improving Access to Housing:

i. Despite far reaching achievements that have been attained since democracy, historical disadvantages continue to have an adverse effect in South African human settlements and chronic inequalities still prevail in respect to access to housing. These include:

- The backlog continues to grow: millions of people are housed inadequately in informal settlements and backyard shacks, and there is not enough bulk capacity to supply all the networks from which households get their services.  

ii. There is a delay in devolving the full authority to Metropolitan municipalities for the housing and transport functions, although this is government policy.

iii. There is a shortage of viable rental accommodation for poor and low-income households.

iv. The state of the residential property market - in its inception, housing policy intended to address the market dys-functionality by providing the poor with starter homes through a housing subsidy which then would allow them to trade or participate in the residential property market. There has been little economic activity in the low end of the housing market. This means that houses developed by government are not being absorbed into the residential property market and therefore are not providing a lever for the poor to participate and enjoy the benefits of owning a property.

v. Finance - Growing infrastructure backlogs and limited resources place huge pressures on sustainable human settlement finance. The number of urban poor who cannot contribute to municipal coffers are rapidly growing, as is the associated demand for services. The rates base of municipalities has remained constant and in certain areas even declined as the economy has continued to shed jobs.

54 See Annexure N for Comment by the Isandla Institute
An integrated approach to human settlements development is important:

i. Affordability of housing and services;

ii. Good location and higher densities;

iii. A sustainable livelihoods approach;

iv. Community participation and leadership development - the community is a complex issue relating to a sense of identity belonging and responsibility. The complex social and cultural fabric should find freedom of expression in the built environment;

v. Meeting needs of vulnerable people;

vi. Appropriate tenure options;

vii. The choice between public and private rental housing;

viii. Good design and construction; and

ix. Applicability to both rural and urban areas.

See Annexure K for an analysis by the Socio-Economic Rights Institute of low-income rental accommodation in Johannesburg. Also See Annexure L for research findings by StepSA on self-build housing in informal settlements. Also See Annexure N for Comment by the Isandla Institute on the need to address the tension between the notions of housing and of human settlements.

**Ensuring sustainable Access to Safe Drinking Water**

South Africa has the following challenges with regard to sustainable access to safe drinking water: Firstly, there is a complex legislative environment for water services. Whilst the 1997 Water Services Act sets the principles and the norms and standards, the Municipal Structures Act legislation provides that a district municipality the right to be the water service authority (WSA) and it can thereafter delegate or enter into an agency agreement for the water service provider role to the locals in its area.

A complicating factor is that often unclear agreements are concluded, which mean that fiscal and functional accountabilities between the entities, and even the appointed Water Boards themselves are blurred and result in audit queries and unaccounted for debts and losses. Secondly, the prevailing spatial realities of rural poverty being linked to poorer service delivery undermines the legislative intent of districts supporting weaker local authorities in their service delivery functions. Thirdly, most municipalities should have resident water engineers in technical services departments, but there is a critical shortage of skilled and qualified water engineers. This shortage impacts badly on government’s service delivery objectives. This central conundrum has been under assessment and review for some time, but there are such major technical, human resource and fiscal challenges in adjustments to the water services functions such that a cautious, highly informed approach to reform is warranted.

**Ensuring Sustainable Access to basic sanitation and drainage**

A number of challenges have to be overcome, including the approach adopted for investing in infrastructure. Firstly much more integrated urban infrastructure planning and management is necessary, with communities involved, in order to deliver the key services. For example collective planning is needed for energy (including a metered supply to every user, energy efficiency and renewable energy); water and sanitation (including water efficiency, recycling and re-use); the location and efficiency of storm water drainage services and solid waste management (including reduction, recycling
and re-use). These services should be seen as *interconnected* and planned for accordingly.

Secondly, whilst a great overall achievement, consolidated statistics do not reveal the differentiation challenges within the figures. There are communities still really struggling for water and for decent sanitation. This despite the commitment to the MDGs and the hard work of government and its partners.

Lessons learned include the awareness of demand-driven community involvement in planning for sanitation: this refers to the motivation/desire for sanitation originating from within the community, as opposed to from an outside agency. This approach promotes behavioural change within communities through health and hygiene education, as opposed to only considering infrastructure provision by the state.

*See Annexure M for an analysis of free basic services for the indigent by the Socio-Economic Rights Institute.*

### Improving Access to clean domestic energy

The greatest constraint in advancing clean renewable energy is cost. The challenge therefore is to advance renewable energy technologies to a point where more options that can generate energy at costs that are competitive are available. Other than cost, some of the factors that limit renewable energy use are intermittence, public acceptance and grid reliability.

Typically, energy-poor locations in South Africa are also job poor, and those with no or low incomes cannot always afford monthly electricity bills. Energy poverty is due to limited access to the national electricity grid, an inability to pay, or both. The implementation of rural, sustainable energy access projects in the poorer regions of South Africa can create jobs, while also reducing carbon emissions — two key government targets.

Policy and funding also have a significant effect on the growth of clean, renewable energy use. Extensive R&D funding is needed to increase the competitiveness of the technology, through research and demonstration projects. Analytical and policy support for identifying and overcoming political and institutional barriers to increased use of renewable energy technologies are important for overall successful market deployment.

### Improving Access to sustainable means of transport

Integrated transport and mobility is a vital component of South Africa’s economic infrastructure investment. It contributes to a denser and more efficient urban form, supports economic and social development, and is crucial for strengthening rural-urban linkages. Much government effort has been made to implement the Public Transport Strategy of South Africa, but some challenges remain:

Firstly, most metropolitan cities have made little progress in assuming the regulatory and contracting functions, as it is a complex process with major functional, funding and human resources repercussions. Secondly, commuter rail services remain a national competency delivered through PRASA and are largely not yet aligned with city plans.

Thirdly, existing bus and minibus taxi operations need to be better integrated with the rail and bus rapid transport (BRT) networks, to reduce transfer times and costs and to improve the speed and quality of commuter journeys. This will involve integrating infrastructure, schedules, ticketing and fares and negotiating with existing operators. Related to this is the lack of facilities
for non-motorised transport. Currently, the design of walkways, crossings, and entrances to many public and other buildings limits the access of pedestrians or cyclists. Many places have no non-motorised infrastructure at all. This lack of integrated planning in key sectors illustrates the very real coordination challenge for implementing a coherent agenda for sustainable transport planning.

42. Future Challenges and Issues that could be addressed through a New Urban Agenda

It is important to recognise informal settlements as part of the arrival destination solution of migrants, and as a housing solution for the landless and the very poor, meaning that upgrading may need to be expanded. This is an important element of access to housing for the poor.

The range of options and technologies used for housing for the poor to lower income groups needs to be expanded and move away from the entrenched notion of provision of a top structure (house) as the only ‘solution’.

In addition to addressing the needs of the youth and women and the elderly, the New Urban Agenda should make provision for addressing the needs of people with disabilities in human settlements. The issue of “universal design” for housing and human settlements should form part of the New Urban Agenda.

Furthermore, Health should be a consideration in the New Urban Agenda as the development of sustainable human settlements and improved quality of life has a strong correlation with improved health and improved health care.

Slum Upgrading and Prevention:

- Access to basic services, transport, health and educational facilities in informal settlements must be maintained as core elements of the New Urban Agenda

- Communities need to be involved in decision-making on the planning, resettlement likelihood and alternative accommodation regarding insecure settlement areas.

Improving Access to Housing

- Planning, housing, human settlement development and public transport need to be better integrated to ensure greater urban efficiency and vibrancy.

- State capability needs to be increased to support the co-development of housing and settlement-making between citizens, community organisations, cooperatives, the private construction sector and banks.

Ensuring sustainable Access to Safe Drinking Water

- Providing support to local government: this is a critical area in all basic services if equalization and redress is to be effected.

- Security of freshwater: this is emerging as a global issue owing to steadily increasing use of limited resources by a growing population, coupled with diminishing availability due to inadequate management, deforestation and

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56 In South Africa, the Minister of Water Affairs signed off the Enhanced Local Government Support Approach (EL-GOSA) concept paper that provided the overall framework within which the Department of Water Affairs provides support to local government. This has enabled the adoption of a structured approach to local government support and an improvement in linkages of activities impacting on local government across the water value chain.
increasing pollution. To achieve a secure and sustainable water future, the efficiency of current water supply and usage certainly needs to be improved and should be a key feature of the new urban agenda.

Ensuring Sustainable Access to basic sanitation and drainage

The sanitation and hygiene infrastructure of many cities is stressed beyond current capacity, and infrastructure investments have not kept pace with rapid and unplanned urbanisation. While large infrastructure overhaul—if and when it is possible—has great potential benefits, various public finance, planning, budgetary, and institutional impediments limit how much can be achieved in the short run through large-scale investment alone.

Therefore improving delivery of basic sanitation and drainage services will require identifying the barriers to adopting new products, technologies, and solutions, especially where there is lack of potable water supply. While there is evidence that community sanitation facilities are usually poorly maintained, and the source of much distress, more engagement is needed about the specific obstacles to implementing constructive community action, or how different approaches or technology may be adopted through community action and awareness and education campaigns.

It is recommended that the new agenda places a prominent focus on the need for active citizenship by communities when seeking sustainable solutions to improved access to basic services, especially in countries where rapid urbanisation and or the urbanisation of poverty means that millions of residents are living in informal settlements without access to the dignity of proper sanitation and drainage. This also means close collaboration with municipalities to work together for such solutions.

Improving Access to clean domestic energy

Improving energy access through sustainable energy choices can create jobs in the South African economy. Greening the country’s economy has the potential to expand development. Accessing available, clean resources such as wind and solar power and improving use of biomass (mainly wood fuel) will create additional sources of energy for industry and households alike, while building demand for new skills, jobs and enterprises.

South Africa needs more alternative energy sources, and the poorest households tend to be the poorest in terms of energy access, too. The implementation of sustainable energy access projects in poorer or more rural areas have demonstrated that communities can make their own energy choices—such as the use of solar and wind powered electricity generation, if through education, acceptance can be found for the use of such alternatives.

These factors indicate that widespread community programmes, on the facts behind clean, renewable energy sources are a requisite for more widespread acceptance and use. Going forward, therefore, governments and its partners should create a positive focus on promoting clean, renewable energy use and this should be a priority for the new agenda.

Improving Access to sustainable means of transport

Due to the importance of transport policy to meet the objectives for inclusive, liveable cities, it would be proposed that cities need to develop plans on how to organise transport functions and

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create transport authorities with the capacity to implement and operate well-planned, forward thinking, integrated public transport networks. Sufficient notice should be taken of non-motorised options, use of ‘greener’ technologies and fuels, and how certain forms of densification promote access for commuters and users generally.

A major focus in the next few years in South Africa needs to be to complete the definition of the Integrated Public Transport Network plans, including inter-modal integration of all modes in the urban space as appropriate for every city’s context. Non-motorised transport (NMT) should be included in all planning, budgets and implementation plans. In cities already serviced by many modes (e.g. Metrorail, BRT, provincial bus services and municipal bus services), the systems need to continue to be improved, with modal integration taking centre stage. This is an approach that can be applied across urbanizing cities and spaces to inform the new agenda.

As part of the new agenda, nation-wide programmes could also be introduced to support the development of integrated transport-related planning, the building of human resource capacity in transport planning and management, and also encourage much more engagement with communities on preferred transport options in less well-serviced areas.
Chapter VII: Indicators

i. \( \text{% of people living in slums}^{58} \)

- 2011: 5.8\% or 2,991,473 individuals (total population) (census 2011)
  - Male – 1,566,930 : 3.0\%
  - Female – 1,424,543 : 2.8 \%

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Area Type</th>
<th>Population</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Formal residential</td>
<td>28 885 085</td>
<td>55.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Informal residential</td>
<td>2 991 473</td>
<td>5.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Traditional residential</td>
<td>16 213 517</td>
<td>31.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Farms</td>
<td>2 078 723</td>
<td>4.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parks and recreation</td>
<td>35 999</td>
<td>0.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collective living quarters</td>
<td>609 907</td>
<td>1.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industrial</td>
<td>157 978</td>
<td>0.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Small holdings</td>
<td>451 812</td>
<td>0.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vacant</td>
<td>59 587</td>
<td>0.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commercial</td>
<td>286 477</td>
<td>0.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>51 770 560</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- 2006: data not available
- 2001: 7.9\% of the total population, or 13.9\% of the population in urban areas, or 3,560,363 individuals
- 1996: data not available

ii. \( \text{% of urban population with access to adequate housing}^{59} \)

- 2011: 84.8\% or 26,197,223 individuals (census 2011)
  - Male – 12,709,793: 41.13 \%
  - Female – 13,487,430: 43.64 \%

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\(^{58}\) % of persons that lived in Enumerator Areas classified as informal residential areas

\(^{59}\) Where access to adequate housing is measured as percentage of urban population that lived in a formal dwelling.
### Table 13: Percentage of persons in urban areas that live in formal dwellings (Census 2011)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dwelling type in urban areas</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Grand Total</th>
<th>Percentage of total (excl. unspecified/not applicable)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Formal</td>
<td>12 709 793</td>
<td>13 487 430</td>
<td>26 197 223</td>
<td>84.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Traditional</td>
<td>148 462</td>
<td>155 900</td>
<td>304 362</td>
<td>1.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Informal</td>
<td>2 193 979</td>
<td>1 980 355</td>
<td>4 174 334</td>
<td>13.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>120 466</td>
<td>107 486</td>
<td>227 952</td>
<td>0.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unspecified/not applicable</td>
<td>912 014</td>
<td>743 446</td>
<td>1 655 458</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>16 084 714</td>
<td>16 474 617</td>
<td>32 559 331</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- 2013: 85.7% (General Household Survey)
- 2006: 79.2% (General Household Survey)
- 1996: 76.1% or 15 752 996 persons (Census 1996)

### iii. % of people residing in urban areas with access to safe drinking water

- 2011: 95.4% or 31 298 132 persons (census 2011)
- 2013: 98.5% (General Household Survey)
- 2006: 98.9% (General Household Survey)
- 1996: 98.2% or 21 174 647 persons (Census 1996)

### iv. % of people residing in urban areas with access to adequate sanitation

- 2011: 88.4% or 28 857 197 individuals in urban areas (Census 2011)

### Table 14: Access to sanitation in urban areas (Census 2011)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Adequate sanitation</td>
<td>14 181 876</td>
<td>14 675 321</td>
<td>28 857 197</td>
<td>88.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>None</td>
<td>315 572</td>
<td>285 636</td>
<td>601 207</td>
<td>1.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pit toilet without ventilation</td>
<td>1 061 870</td>
<td>1 027 939</td>
<td>2 089 809</td>
<td>6.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bucket toilet</td>
<td>370 541</td>
<td>352 412</td>
<td>722 953</td>
<td>2.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>188 186</td>
<td>177 118</td>
<td>365 304</td>
<td>1.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unspecified</td>
<td>76 715</td>
<td>80 078</td>
<td>156 793</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not applicable</td>
<td>28 385</td>
<td>19 839</td>
<td>48 224</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>16 223 144</td>
<td>16 618 343</td>
<td>32 841 487</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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60 Where access to safe drinking water refers to the percentage of persons that lived in urban areas and that had access to piped water, or water from a borehole in the dwelling, yard or communal tap. Categories included: piped water in dwelling, piped water on site, and public tap. It excluded borehole as this was grouped with rainwater tank and well in 1996.

61 Where adequate sanitation facilities consists of flush, chemical or pit toilets with ventilated pipes.
• 2013: 91,7% (General Household Survey)
• 2006: 87,2% (General Household Survey)
• 2001: 81,5% or 20 889 384 individuals
• 1996: data not available

v. % of people residing in urban areas with access to regular waste collection

• 2011: 87,4% (census 2011)

Table 15: Access to refuse removal (Census 2011)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Refuse removal</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Removed by local authority/private company at least once a week</td>
<td>28 516 866</td>
<td>87,4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Removed by local authority/private company less often</td>
<td>537 486</td>
<td>1,6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communal refuse dump</td>
<td>550 020</td>
<td>1,7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Own refuse dump</td>
<td>2 253 722</td>
<td>6,9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No rubbish disposal</td>
<td>622 188</td>
<td>1,9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>156 188</td>
<td>0,5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unspecified</td>
<td>156 793</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not applicable</td>
<td>48 224</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grand Total</td>
<td>32 841 487</td>
<td>100,0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

• 2013: 88,7% (General Household Survey)
• 2006: 87,7% (General Household Survey)
• 1996: 84,7%, (Census 1996, measured as households in urban areas receiving weekly kerbside removal of refuse)

vi. % of people residing in urban areas with access to clean domestic energy

• 2011: 29 715 960 persons or 91,1% of urban residents. (Census 2011)
• 2013: data not available
• 2006: data not available
• 1996: 17 142 681 persons or 79,7%

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62 Where regular waste collection is defined as persons who lived in urban areas and who had weekly kerbside refuse removal.

63 Measured by percentage of persons that lived in urban areas that used electricity for lighting. The use of electricity for lighting is the most accurate indicator of access to ‘clean’ domestic energy, as electricity is usually used for lighting, but not necessarily for more energy intensive activities such as cooking or heating.
vii. **% of people residing in urban areas with access to public transport**

South Africa does not have data that pertains precisely to this indicator. However, the section outlines relevant findings from the 2014 National Household Travel Survey by Statistics South Africa.

**Figure 14: Percentage of metropolitan households who travel more than 60 minutes to selected services, 2003 and 2013:**

- **Figure 15: Modal shift trends for work trips:**

viii. Level of effective decentralisation, measured by:
   a. % of urban policies and legislation in whose formulation local and provincial
government participated from 1996 to present
   2013 no data available64
   2006 no data available65
   1996 no data available66
   b. % share of both income and expenditure allocated to provincial and local
governments from national budget
   2013: provinces: 43.5%; local government: 8.9% (2013 Budget Review)
   2006: provinces: 42.3%; local government: 6.3% (2006 Budget Review)
   1996 data not comparable
   c. % share of local authorities expenditure financed from local revenue
   2013: 72.1% (when all 278 municipal budgets are summed -
     National Treasury database of municipal budgets)
   2006 data – municipal budget data incomplete
   1996 data – estimated at 90% in Local Government White Paper

ix. % of city, regional and national governments that have implemented urban policies
   supportive of local economic development and creation of decent jobs and livelihoods67
   2013 -100%
   2006 – 100%
   1996 – no data available

x. % of city and regional governments that have adopted or implemented urban safety and
   security strategies
   2013 — no data available
   2006 – no data available
   1996 – no data available

xi. % of city and regional governments that have implemented plans and designs for
   sustainable, resilient cities that are inclusive and respond adequately to urban growth
   No data available68

64 All spheres of government are consulted and participate in the development of national policies and legislation. MINMEC is
   the consultative structure comprised of the Executive from national and provincial government, as well as the South African
   Local Government Association. No data currently exists, however, to determine how many municipalities or how many prov-
   inces were present during these intergovernmental debates and consultative sessions.
65 See previous footnote
66 See previous footnote
67 Local Economic Development is a component of all municipalities’ Integrated Development Plans
68 All municipalities and city governments in South Africa compile Integrated Development Plans. Some cities have developed
   their own unique forward-looking and visionary growth plans to 2055, 2050 and similar. However there is no institutional
   mechanism currently available to record the percentage that have implemented plans as specified to above. The same ap-
   plies to regional (provincial) governments, who develop Provincial Growth and Development Strategies (PGDSs) and imple-
   ment these in concordance with their local government structures. However, once the emerging Integrated Urban Develop-
   ment Framework (IUDF) is under implementation, it will be supported by monitoring mechanisms that can include indicators
   relating to the specific plans and designs of cities and provinces.
xii. **Share of GDP produced in urban areas**

No data available on GDP produced in urban areas. However, there is data on the Gross Value-Add of the eight metropolitan municipalities, for secondary and for the rest of South Africa.

Share of Gross Value Add:

- **1996**
  - Metros 57%
  - Secondary Cities 18%
  - Rest of South Africa 24%

- **2012**
  - Metros 62.2%
  - Secondary Cities 15.5%
  - Rest of South Africa 22.3%

**Figure 16: Index of Gross Value-Add (GVA) for the metros and secondary cities, 1996-2013:**

![Graph showing index of gross value add](image)

*Source: IHS Global Insight database*

*(Percentage = per billion rands)*
Figure 17: Index of GVA for the individual metros, 1996-2013

Source: IHS Global Insight database

Figure 18: GVA for Metros and Secondary Cities, 1996 and 2013

Source: IHS Global Insight database
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Annexure to South Africa’s National Report to Habitat III

See Annexure A to N submitted separately