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Assessing Forward Planning in Rural Local Government:

A Case Study of Moqhaka Local Municipality

Master's – Governance and Management

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Declaration of Originality

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Declaration

1. I understand what plagiarism is and am aware of the university's policy in this regard.
2. I declare that this mini dissertation is my original work. Where other people's work has been used, this has been properly acknowledged and referenced in accordance with departmental requirements.
3. I have not allowed and will not allow anyone to copy my work with the intention of passing it off as his or her own work.

Abstract

Rural planning in post-apartheid South Africa faces challenges in addressing the future proactively. This is largely due to the unjust policies and governmental approaches of the colonial era and apartheid that continue to this day. Literature suggests that little attention has been paid to the relationship between rural planning and future orientation, with planning being reduced to solving today's problems rather than developing a vision for the future (Isserman, 1985; Meng, 2009; Muñoz-Erickson et al., 2021). Against this background, Ngumbela (2021, p. 84) poses a critical question:

> Are South African local municipalities the tools of effective and efficient local service delivery, backed by a capable state and Developmental Local Government whose impact is merely a short drive from the fog into the light – or are they moving further into the dark? (2021:84)

The study problematises rural local government development as preoccupied with redressing past injustices and aims to determine whether a proactive engagement with the future informs non-metropolitan rural local government planning. Adopting a qualitative approach, the study evaluated Moqhaka Local Municipality's planning systems and tools using two methods: interviews and content analysis. The study found that the question posed by Ngumbela (20210) highlights the need for local governments to be restructured and redefined in order to be developmental. It also proposes that future studies and planning be (re)merged to maximise the known and minimise the unknown. In essence, the study provides valuable insights into the realities of local rural planning and its engagement with the future.

Acknowledgements

This work is in loving memory of my wife, Gamuchirai Ndamulelo Sebola-Samanyanga. May those in and within the winds be with you, Muthu-wanga.

I would also like to thank Dr T.K. Pooe for his expert guidance and advice – much appreciated.

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Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1 Introduction

Urban and rural planning[i] is in disarray and hesitant about its sole purpose and mandate: to provide hope for a better future (Isserman, 1985; Muñoz-Erickson et al., 2021). Meng (2009, p. 48) argues that planning has been reduced to solving today's problems rather than creating a vision for the future. This is evident from the planning and development outcomes observed in South Africa that persist after apartheid, such as socio-economic inequality, spatial segregation and distorted land tenure. The success and effectiveness of planning in South Africa's (re)development since the beginning of the democratic dispensation have been increasingly questioned – given the plethora of planning guidelines, legal frameworks, and initiatives and tools that have been put in place to make amends for the past. Ratcliffe and Krawczyke, cited in Muñoz-Erickson et al. (2021, p. 160), contend that "urban/rural planners and policymakers need a more effective future-oriented approach that enables them to comprehend the present and future complexity".

Against this background, this research study accesses future planning in Moqhaka Local Municipality (MLM) – hereafter generally referred to as Moqhaka, a rural local government in the Free State Province. In doing so, it takes into account planning initiatives and tools such as the Integrated Development Plan (IDP) and relevant accompanying sector plans and strategies such as the Local Economic Development Strategy (LED), Housing Sector Plan (HSP) and Spatial Development Framework (SDF).[ii] The research study aims to understand local governance and forward planning from a rural perspective. The two methods used in the study are interviews and content analysis.

1.2 Rationale for the Study

In South Africa, there have been two major planning paradigms, pre- and post-colonial and the apartheid dispensation (Ngumbela, 2021). Throughout the colonial and apartheid regimes, the first paradigm consciously dictated socio-economic and spatial patterns to keep most of the population in settlements with poor infrastructure. A top-down approach was taken in planning, with power vested in the national government, limiting the powers of provincial and, even more so, local authorities. Mabin and Smith (1997) argue that planning as a profession has become a disappointing substitute for an existing practice desired by policymakers. Tewdwr-Jones (2003) adds that this has been reduced to a harmless, simple exercise. This profession is not shaping the future as it should be – a profession that aims to improve the social, economic and spatial aspects of development. The preceding sentiments by Tewdwr-Jones persist despite the legal obligation to plan for the future.

1.2.1 Legislation and Policies Mandating Forward-Planning

Legislation such as the Green Paper on Development and Planning (1999), National Green Paper on Strategic Planning (2009), Spatial Planning and Land Use Management (2013), Municipal Systems Act (2000) and policies and programmes such as the National Development Plan (2011), National Spatial Development Plan (2006 and 2011) and Growth Development Strategies (GDS) continually reinforce the need for planning to deal with the future. Therefore, planning in South Africa aims at socio-economic and spatial integration through strategic planning related to land use, spatial structures, economic activities, transport networks, social structures and the environment.

To achieve this, planning used a less rigid, more flexible and more proactive approach. This paradigm shift has enhanced South Africa's past planning instruments and guided plans, as well as structure plans to holistic Spatial Development Frameworks (SDF) (Du Plessis, 2014). This has produced new urban and rural development instruments, such as the Integrated

Development Plan (IDP), a product of the integrated development planning process. Nevertheless, even with the IDP and SDF, progress in planning is consistently stifled by short-term policy interventions that result in planning struggles to deliver on promises made.

1.2.2 Political Influence on the Continuation of Planning

Since 1994, various interest groups have made attempts to address the challenges of political interference, corruption and the use of cadres who sometimes lack the requisite skills (Ngumbela, 2021). Regarding the local development and planning aspect, studies have found that political interference prevents the enforcement of land use management (LUM) regulations (Boamah, 2013), some focusing on how political interference influences the decision-making process (Goodfellow, 2013; Cirolia & Berrisford, 2017; Moodley, 2019). However, some studies have focused on the role of officials, many of whom are bribed to approve developments or not enforce LUM regulations (Agheyisi, 2018).

This study argues that political agendas essentially perpetuate the short-term planning orientation. This phenomenon is exacerbated by the race between politicians, budgets and appointment dates set by law. Moreover, politicians go so far as to use the proposed changes as lobbying tools in the future. One example that explains this phenomenon is the appointment period of a municipal manager by a municipal council – which is directly influenced by the serving period of an elected mayor. On the other hand, the legislation responsible for the situation includes the Municipal Structures Act of 1998, section 82 and the Municipal Systems Act of 2000, section 56, which insist “the municipal manager is to be appointed by a municipal council”. Ngumbela (2021) contends:

> It is common knowledge that South African municipalities are characterised by conflicts between politicians and senior office bearers. There is considerable confusion about the responsibilities and roles of the Mayor’s office and the City Manager’s office. A further challenge is that municipal officials cannot divorce party

> politics from the municipal government. Some officials become involved in administrative affairs, irrespective of the city manager being the municipality's legal accounting officer. (2021, p. 98)

Although initially enacted to appoint a municipal manager and management team who are conversant with the administrative echelon of the municipality and not the political echelon, the abovementioned Acts are regrettably politically translated to the fullest extent. How does a municipal council consisting of politicians appoint a municipal manager, the administrative head of a municipality? Going back to the initial point, the municipal manager and administrative team often serve a parallel period with the mayor (Wooldridge, 2008). Should the mayor's term in office end, so does the manager's term. Even when the municipal manager's term continues, the political party's manifestoes or the ideas of the newly appointed mayor will replace the former mayor's ideas about the municipality's direction. In essence, political interference has a detrimental trickle-down effect on a municipality's administrative echelon, hampering a municipality's planning and development progress and outcomes. Unfortunately, this political agenda works its way down to the administrative level of a community. There is a widespread concern that the policy agenda has begun to stifle the need for skilled and capable leadership in communities (Atkinson, 2007).

1.3 Research Problem

During post-colonial and apartheid South Africa, rural planning was reluctant to address the future proactively (Ngumbela, 2021). This is primarily due to the unjust policies, legislation, and governmental approaches of the colonial era and apartheid that endure to this day. The relevant literature demonstrates that little attention has been paid to the relationship between rural planning and its future orientation. Scholars such as Isserman (1985), Meng (2009) and Muñoz-Erickson et al. (2021) claim that planning has been reduced to solving today's problems rather than creating a vision for the future. This study's research problem is

that development in rural local government has become overwhelmingly concerned with redressing past socio-economic and spatial injustices. Ngumbelo (2021) notes:

> It may be argued that while, to some degree, municipalities share the responsibility for the poor state of their affairs, many of the socio-economic problems facing South Africa remain profoundly related to its infamous past. This is especially so with regard to urban planning, which has consequences for the growth of local economies and, by extension, deprivation, inequality and unemployment… (2021, p. 87)

This does not rule out the current attempt toward forward-planning initiatives in Moqhaka, witnessed through the IDP and relevant accompanying sector plans and strategies such as the LED, HSP, and SDF. However, this study is intended to assess whether it suffices to engage with the future proactively. There is a need for development in rural local government to escape the urbanism race. Rural areas have a future, and thus this future needs to be proactively and appropriately engaged – from a rural perspective.

1.4 Research Purpose

The purpose of this study is to assess whether a proactive engagement with the future informs non-metropolitan rural local government planning – and if there is an engagement with the future, what the nature of such engagement is. The study assesses Moqhaka's planning systems and instruments. The desired outcome is to better understand the contemporary reality of planning concerning its engagement with the future. Ideally, the (re)merging of Futures[iii] studies and planning will maximise the known and minimise the unknown (Connell, 2009).

1.5 Research Question, Objectives and Strategy

1.5.1 Research Question

How do rural local government planning approaches and instruments proactively engage with the future?

1.5.1.1 Secondary Questions.

i. How do rural local governments approach planning in their quest to implement development?

ii. What are the critical aspects of rural local government planning instruments and strategies employed to foster development?

iii. Does rural local government's contemporary approach to planning suffice as forward planning proactively to engage with the future?

1.5.2 Research Objectives

The objectives of the research study are:

i. to comprehend how rural local governments approach planning in their quest to implement development

ii. to unravel the critical issues with rural local government planning instruments and strategies employed to foster the development

iii. to establish whether rural local government's contemporary approach to planning suffices as forward planning proactively to engage with the future.

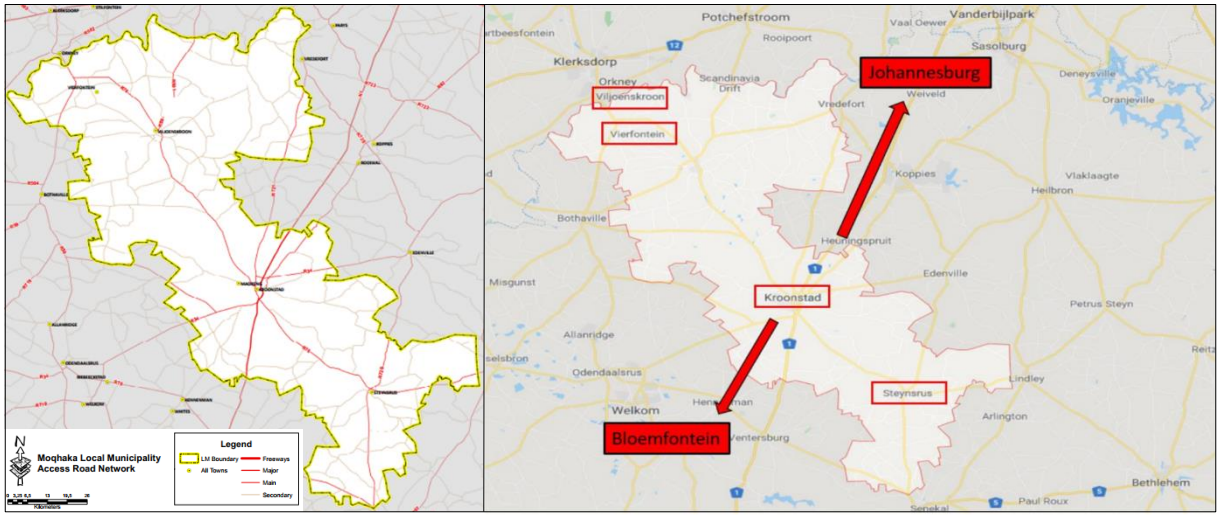
1.5.3 Research Strategy

A qualitative research approach was employed for this study, using more than one source of data to enhance the study's credibility and validity (Cassell & Symon, 2006). These primary data sources included (i) Moqhaka planning instruments and strategies and (ii) semi-structured interviews with individuals involved in planning in Moqhaka directly or indirectly. The

research study was guided by information mainly acquired through the review of literature derived from primary and secondary sources, including policies, legislation, and strategies.

1.6 Case Study: Moqhaka Local Municipality

Map 1: Jurisdiction of Moqhaka Local Municipality



Note. *Moqhaka Housing Sector Plan (2019) and Moqhaka Tourism Strategy (2019)*

The Moqhaka Local Municipality is a Category B municipality in the Free State Province, located in the southern portion of the Fezile Dabi District. It has a surface area of about 7 925 km^2 and is the largest of the district's four municipalities, covering over a third of the district's land area. Kroonstad, Viljoenskroon, Steynsrus, Vierfontein, and Renovaal are the major towns in Moqhaka. The municipality's primary entry points are Provincial Roads P15/1 and P15/2, which run north-south through the area (refer to Map 1). The Ngwathe Local Municipality lies to the east, Nala Local Municipality and Matjhabeng Local Municipality to the west, Setsoto Local Municipality and Nketoana Local Municipality to the south, and North-West Province to the north from Moqhaka's borders. According to the Moqhaka Housing Sector Plan (2019), the municipality's population has declined from 167 892 people in 2001 to 160 532 people in 2011 and 154 732 people in 2016. Despite this, households climbed from 41 514 in 2001 to 45 661 in 2016 and 53 601 in 2016.

Like the rest of the Free State Province, the area is experiencing a general migration trend from rural to urban areas (urbanisation). The urban portion of the municipality houses 78 percent of the inhabitants, while the rural portion houses the remaining 22 percent. Despite this, Kroonstad is the centre of a vast agricultural community that contributes significantly to the MLM and area economies.

1.6.1 Significance of Moqhaka to the Research Study

According to Moqhaka Local Municipality's IDP (2022), the fundamental challenges facing Moqhaka are (i) unemployment, (ii) poverty and (iii) inequality. These challenges dovetail with the nation's core challenges from past colonial and apartheid injustices. The year 2022 marks 28 years of democracy since 1994 – it is no wonder that rural planning finds itself hesitant to proactively engage with the future and is more concerned and invested in addressing past socio-economic and spatial injustices. This is evident through the prioritising of imperative planning instruments such as the SDF. During the first review cycle of the IDP process in 2003/04, the first thoroughly developed SDF was reviewed, and for 2004/05, 2005/06, 2006/07, 2008/09, and 2009/10 cycles, it was further refined. March 2017 was the latest SDF after close to a decade of no review. Bear in mind that an SDF is to run concurrently with an IDP; that is, it should be reviewed every five years. The Municipal Systems Act 2000 (Act No. 32 of 2000) defines Spatial Development Frameworks as an essential component of Integrated Development Planning for municipalities. The Spatial Planning and Land Use Management Act of 2013 has also made them mandatory (Act No. 16 of 2013). This also refers to the review's requirements (at least after five years from the date of approval).

This directly speaks to Moqhaka's failure to prioritise future-orientated planning instruments and the misalignment of sector plans as strategies.

1.7 Limitations of the Research Study

This research study primarily examines whether proactive engagement with the future influences non-metropolitan rural municipal planning and, if there is engagement with the future, what kind of engagement it is. Therefore, the scope of this study is limited to evaluating Moqhaka's planning systems and tools. The sample size is mainly dependent on the nature of the qualitative research questions. The data collected came from fewer than ten participants, although the aim was to reach at least ten participants. However, due to the limited number of relevant participants within Moqhaka, the sample size is less than ten. Nevertheless, the number of participants was sufficient to undertake the research study.

1.8 Research Study Outline

The research study comprises six chapters, organised as presented in Table 1. below.

Table 1

Research Study Outline

Chapter 1: Introduction	The study's background and reasoning are presented in this chapter. It also comprises a summary of the study's research questions and objectives and a description of the research design, including the methodology and methods.
Chapter 2: Developmentalism and Futures Studies	This chapter deals with an overview of the theoretical framework that guides the research study – one theory is Developmentalism, and the other is Futures Studies.
Chapter 3: Rural Local Government (Re)Planning	This chapter discusses local government and planning in South Africa, focusing mainly on planning before and after 1994 to provide a space for debate and a general understanding of where South African planning originated and where it is today located.
Chapter 4: Research Methodology	The research strategy and technique are described in this chapter. It also details the study's worth and the methodology's benefit. The sample and its features are then discussed to comprehend the nature of the findings.
Chapter 5: Presentation and Analysis of Findings	This chapter presents an overview of the Moqhaka Local Municipality. It then presents the findings obtained through semi-structured interviews and content analysis from the fieldwork investigation.

	It then analyses and discusses the findings, guided by the problem statement and research questions.
Chapter 6: Conclusion	This chapter summarises the main points of the research and discusses the implications. It also explains the study's shortcomings.

1.9 Chapter Summary

This chapter introduces the justification of the study through the background and problem statement. It further describes the purpose of the study, research questions, and a brief discussion of its methodology. The chapter ends with an outline of its contents. Overall, the chapter recognises that planning has become hesitant in its purpose of creating a better future. It has been reduced to solving everyday problems instead of looking forward to the future. The following chapter documents an overview of the theoretical framework that guides the research study.

Chapter 2

Developmentalism and Futures Studies

2.1 Introduction

Apartheid plans sowed seeds still bearing fruit, from chronic socio-economic to spatial challenges (Slabbert, 1994). It is probably more important to understand the seeds and how much apartheid planning has contributed to the disconnect between urban and rural planning and the future of South Africa. Due to the preceding events and South African mandates since 1994, scholars such as Tewdwr-Jones (1999) have stated that “planning sometimes conjures up an image of the abandonment of the past and not necessarily that of a pro-active future-seeking and future-shaping profession”. Unfortunately, urban and rural planning in South Africa is a victim of Tewdwr-Jones' observations.

The objective of this chapter is to comprehend how rural local governments approach planning in their quest to implement development. Therefore, this chapter deals with an overview of the theoretical framework that guides the research study – one theory used is Developmentalism, and the other is Futures Studies. A theoretical framework is an intersection of theoretical ideas and known literature on the subject(s) that any study addresses; it considers both the theoretical and the practical and facilitates the consideration of how the theory might be used to effect positive change in response to study findings.

2.2 Local Perspective on Understanding Development

To better understand the local government’s planning approach towards development, it is best to contextualise its intention and what it seeks to address in the South African context. Therefore, as Stewart et al. (1997, p. 1) mention, “development may be defined as positive social, economic and political change in a country or community. Development arises in response to the gross inequalities and absolute poverty generated by the world economy" Cloete and Wissink (2000) add:

> …development is not an end product but a continuous process of improvement in living conditions; it has both subjectively perceived and objectively determinable dimensions (a state of mind and a physical reality); it should be durable, which implies that it must empower people to improve their conditions themselves over a long period, in a relatively independent way; and needs a balanced or synchronised improvement in different policy sectors (social, cultural, economic, political, organisational and technological), and in the areas of both basic life-sustaining and higher-order needs in order to be durable (2000, p. 77).

In South Africa, the primary developmental objectives are to address the country's triple threats of poverty, inequality and unemployment caused by past and current socio-economic injustices. In essence, these are to be addressed by meeting the basic needs of South African citizens, redistributing resources, and creating jobs. Development in South Africa was outlined in 1994 through the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP), when the democratically elected African National Congress (ANC)[iv] became the ruling party (ANC, 1994). According to the ANC's RDP of 1994, the main objectives of development are to:

- empower people
- eradicate poverty
- empower women for gender equity
- improve the economic circumstances of people
- improve the social circumstances of people
- create infrastructure (roads, streetlights)
- create jobs
- meet the basic needs of people: access to land, access to food, access to clean water, access to housing, access to education, access to electricity
- redistribute resources
- provide telecommunications
- provide transport.

Therefore, it is imperative to understand the concept of development and its objectives as urban and rural planning initiatives in South Africa and other countries around the world to address the basic needs of people – because land and the activities it is used for are one of the most basic needs of people, particularly those who were previously disadvantaged.

Despite the planning reconfiguration from post-1994 to the present, its effectiveness in (re)building South Africa is often questioned. This view is supported by the National Urban Development Framework (NUDF), which argues that planning policies and legislation after 1994 have largely failed to redress past spatial and socio-economic inequalities (National Urban Development Framework, 2009). That said, Du Plessis and Landman (2002) argue that the South African metropolitan area is one of the least productive globally. Robins (2002) adds that the socio-economic and spatial inequalities of apartheid continue unchanged; it has become a repetition without difference. As stated by Pieterse (2004), South Africa is perhaps as economically, socially and spatially divided as it was in the pre-democratic era. Furthermore, the National Planning Commission believes that the spatial and socio-economic injustices of the apartheid regime have probably worsened since 1994.

2.3 Developmentalism

The purpose of this section is to comprehend developmentalism in the context of South Africa's aspiration towards a developmental state. Developmentalism s an economic theory that holds that less developed economies can best thrive by fostering a solid and diverse domestic market and imposing high tariffs on imported goods (Bresser-Pereira, 2020). Developmentalism is fundamentally geared toward economic prosperity; political ideology is generally applied in economic theory. Politics and the economy are at the core of any developmental endeavour of municipal jurisdiction, province or country. Developmentalism is generally divided into two schools of thought: Classical Developmentalism and New Developmentalism. As Bresser-Pereira (2020) writes: “Really

existing Developmentalism is a historical occurrence; it is a form of political and economic organisation of capitalism, whereas classical and new Developmentalism are economic and political theories aiming to explain progress or human development (Bresser-Pereira, 2020, p. 323).

Classical Developmentalism is the understanding of industrialisation as the primary way to achieve economic development. This theory considers foreign confinement to be the main obstacle and calls for foreign savings; Bresser-Pereira (2020) understands the concept of economic development as structural change; it advocates an active role for the state; and in the political sphere, it emphasises the role of a developing class coalition, bringing together businessmen, workers and the public bureaucracy to build the nation-state and bring about the industrial and capitalist revolution. On the other hand, New Developmentalism is the sum of the new and relatively consistent theories and the resulting strategies for growth and progress, which, due to their relative novelty compared to other theories and their internal consistency, can lead to a new school of thought (Bresser-Pereira, 2020). New Developmentalism is inherently democratic and progressive because its proponents criticise the inequality that characterises capitalist societies because they understand that economic development is only sustainable if wages rise over the long term and because it targets middle-income countries that are already democratic or mature enough for it. In essence, developmentalism rests on a "creative mixture that combines the administrative streamlining of local bureaucracies, policy experimentation and innovation, cadre management and, most notably, the economic guidance of the private sector" (Schubert & Heberer, 2015, p. 3).

2.3.1 Developmental Local Government

In this study, however, Developmentalism will be approached and translated from a development planning perspective, one that Chalmers Johnson, an American political scientist

specialising in comparative politics, eloquently coined Developmental State. A developmental local state is:

> a state with a particular and appropriate leadership structure; an active and strong central state with a particular organisational architecture; a state with a strategic entrepreneurial focus, vision and orientation; an entrepreneurial state machine that thinks and works like a business; an export-oriented state with strong international partners; a learned and attuned state (society) with high levels of competency and skills, and an embedded state that is in close contact with the people. (Coetzee, 2010, p. 20)

East Asian countries have, to date, been regarded as exceptional examples of what a developmental state entails, as they were the only countries to successfully catch up and become developed countries in the 20th century. The concept of a developing state is based primarily on the contributions of Johnson and Woo-Cumings (1982) on Japan, Amsden (1989) on South Korea, and Wade (1990) on Taiwan – these three countries, along with other East Asian countries such as Singapore are known as the Asian Tigers and Asian Cubs.

From a South African perspective, in a paper titled "Thinking about developmental states in Africa, Mkandawire" (2001) captures the essence of a developmental state as a national project. Mkandawire, cited in Gumede (2018), notes the nationalist project focused primarily on nation-building and national development, overcoming the institutional legacies of colonialism and bringing the fruits of social and economic growth to the populace. Specifically, the national project aimed to achieve a fairer appropriation of the productive forces at the local level. With that said scholars such as Pooe and Mohale (2022) critically examine whether the Government of South Africa under the auspices of the African National Congress (ANC) in the post-1994 period can be considered a developmental State (Pooe & Mohale, 2022). The consensus is that South Africa does not meet the criteria identified by Mkandawire to be

considered a developmental state; according to Pooe and Mohale (2022), this was witnessed in the manner in which South Africa handled the recent Covid-19 pandemic. In a paper titled "Is South Africa[v] building a capable state through Developmental Local Government?" Ngumbela (2021) asks:

> Are South African local municipalities the tools of effective and efficient local service delivery, backed by a capable state and Developmental Local Government whose impact is merely a short drive from the fog into the light – or are they moving further into the dark? (2021, p. 84)

Decisive state intervention, as well as substantial control and planning, best describe a developmental state. The question posed by Ngumbela (2021) makes it abundantly evident that local governments must be (re)structured and (re)defined in light of advancement and productivity to achieve a Developmental Local Government. Thus, the following are the characteristics of a Developmental Local Government to be aspired towards: "a state with a particular and appropriate leadership structure; an active and robust central state with a particular organisational architecture; a state with a strategic entrepreneurial focus, vision, and orientation; an entrepreneurial state machine that thinks and works like a business; an export-oriented state with strong international partners; a learned and attuned state (society) with high levels of competence (Coetzee, 2010, p. 20). Pycroft contends:

> Developmental Local Government thus seeks not only to democratise local government by introducing the notion of elected representatives even in rural areas but also to transform local governance, with a new focus on improving the standard of living and quality of life of previously disadvantaged sectors of the community… (cited in Ntsebeza, 2004, p. 68)

Therefore, the question of what municipalities can do to make planning and a municipal system more future-oriented and more developmental is answered by altering the current form

of local administration towards a Developmental Local Government. However, when critically analysing the Developmental Local Government theory, an essential ideological driver comes to play to be realised in practice. There is simply no silver bullet or one size fits all intervention that is a solution to transforming South Africa into a developmental state. Rather, a conglomeration of development-orientated initiatives, as discussed above, is needed. Nonetheless, this work adopts (re)linking Development Planning with Futures Studies; this, therefore, speaks to the vision and future orientation that Coetzee (2010) alludes to and the short drive from the fog into the light that Ngumbela (2021) asks for.

2.4 Planning and an Uncertain Future

Perhaps it is best to begin this segment by establishing common ground on the concept of Futures Studies. Futures Studies, also known as futurology and futurism, is defined by McHale (1978, p. 10) as an activity involving many elements of prediction, speculation, imaginative extrapolation, and normative projection. Advantageously, planning and Futures Studies have a shared goal and concern: to ensure a brighter future and reduce uncertainty (Connell, 2009). The two fields can be distinguished and understood collectively as follows: Futures Studies strive to find, invent, study, and assess, as well as to propose potential, probable, and preferred futures (Bell, 2003). On the other hand, planning is seen as executing a deliberate series of steps that ultimately result in accomplishing a predetermined goal (Hall, 1993). A straightforward example illustrating how everything is interconnected, the concept of a dream is adopted: a futurist will assist society in clearly articulating and developing its dreams, while planners will assist in making those dreams come true.

With the above understanding in mind, planning concerns decision-making under conditions of uncertainty. Friend and Jessop explain this best in their 1969 book *Local Government and Strategic Choice*, in which they contend:

> Planning is a process of decision-making under conditions of uncertainty: uncertainties in the knowledge of the external environment, uncertainties as to future intentions and uncertainties in related fields, and uncertainties as to appropriate value judgement. (1969, p. 106)

The Friend and Jessop quotation above is further elucidated by Clem Sunter's Cone of Uncertainty; he explains how the future becomes more uncertain and unpredictable as years advance into the future. An example that puts Sunter's concept into practice is population growth. While it is possible to estimate futuristic population projections by multiplying the annual average population growth rate by the period of years into the future, the more years one includes, the more uncertain and skewed the projected population becomes. This is so since there are many unknown socio-economic and environmental incidents, such as the recent Covid-19 pandemic that shut down the entire globe in one way or another. With Sunter's Cone of Uncertainty in mind, the quagmire that planners face is the knowledge that planning for the future is of the utmost importance. However, past injustices are so ingrained in the socio-economic and spatial reality of South Africa that they have merged with the present and perhaps future challenges.

As a result, planners are asking what the rational way forward is given the limited availability of resources and capacity in local government. This issue is addressed in the 1987 World Commission on Environment and Development (WCED) report as it, along with other international communities such as the United Nations, is driving the sustainable development agenda as a way forward. Manta-Conroy in Berke (2002) contends:

> Sustainable development is a process in which communities anticipate and accommodate the needs of current and future generations in ways that reproduce and balance local social, economic and ecological systems and link local actions to global concerns. (2002, p. 33)

Note that as much as the above statement seems rational today, who can say that the same statement will be considered rational three centuries from now? It is important to remember that there was a time when colonial and apartheid governments believed that segregative ideologies were rational. In this democratic dispensation, how sure are we that the rules of decency are rational? The fact is that each government and generation will address challenges according to their interpretation of reality. Spies (1988) argues that the following facets influence such interpretations:

> The way we observe things (our perception); the way in which we think (our logic); the way we evaluate things (our judgement); the way in which we plan (our orientation); the way we choose to do our things (our motivation); and the way we act (our morality). (1988, p. 6)

Ultimately, however, it is utterly irrational to ignore the need for sustainable planning for the future simply because economic rationality's assumption of resource availability in its infancy is a fictional representation of reality. But that is not to say that sticking to the idea of sustainable development is a rational choice, as planners are faced with an unknown future in which to make a rational choice. For this reason, planning should (again) be linked to Futures Studies in order to minimise uncertainty in planning for now and the future.

Therefore, the destination for planners provided the swamp they are in and should at least consist of planning a better today than yesterday and, at the same time, planning a better tomorrow in all aspects, social, economic, environmental and spatial. As for collaboration, the lack of it is essentially the leading cause of the problems and challenges urban and rural planners face today. In 1994 a decision was made to cooperate as a country in all social, economic and spatial aspects; therefore, future planning is required, hence the National Development Plan 2030 (Nation Planning Commission, 2013).

2.4.1 International Outcomes of (Re)Linking Futures Studies and Planning

International case studies are presented below, along with the insights compiled by the World Value Survey (WVS). The WVS is an international organisation established in 1981 to provide a comprehensive measurement of all major areas of human interest, from religion to politics to economic and social life (Ratcliffe & Krawczyk, 2011, p. 649), although, from an urban perspective, the case studies mentioned serve as a practical elaboration of the outcomes of (re)linking futures and planning as discussed above (Ratcliffe & Krawczyk, 2011).

The first case study is that of Dublin City Foresight. The exercise was based on a scenario approach carried out in 2002 with the aim of bringing together public and private sector stakeholders ahead of a vision exercise to be carried out by the Local Council (Community Development Council for Dublin City). The conditions were that stakeholders with different professional and socio-economic backgrounds should be involved, not only visionaries, futurologists and planners; second, the scenarios generated must be synchronised with the city's strategic planning goals. Third, there was to be no need to limit the scope of the exercise when brainstorming, as that was its whole point. Finally, the foresight exercise should be understood as a learning, interactive, ongoing process.

By comparison, the second case study is Ballymun's vision project of 2002 (Krawczyk, 2002), which was based on a vision exercise for Ballymun's renewal, aimed at developing a set of indicators that would transform one of Ireland's most disadvantaged communities into a better and more social one with an economically and spatially sustainable future. The lessons learned in this case were as follows. First, participants should attend workshops introducing the goal of the exercise and should engage in a shared vision of a better future. Second, all decision-makers should be involved in the exercise from the beginning, not halfway or towards the end. Finally, it is essential that the participants constantly remember that innovation is the engine that drives the entire vision exercise.

Other international case studies include: (i) A Prospective Approach to the Dublin-Belfast Economic Corridor, a collaborative project with the University of Ulster that addresses the strategic question of what the future holds for the Dublin-Belfast Economic Corridor in 2025; (ii) Imagine Dublin 2020, a project commissioned by the Dublin Chamber of Commerce to create an agenda for a new and improved city; and (iii) Imagine Lincoln 2020, an exercise commissioned by the Lincoln Futures Group, representing all key stakeholders from the public and private sectors to craft a bold vision for Lincoln (Ratcliffe & Krawczyk, 2011, p. 650).

2.5 Linking Futures Studies and Planning

Advantageously, planning and Futures Studies have a common concern and purpose: to ensure a brighter future and minimise uncertainty (Connell, 2009). The two disciplines can be understood separately and together: Futures Studies aims to discover, invent, study, evaluate and propose possible, probable and desirable futures (Bell, 2003). On the other hand, planning is the implementation of an ordered sequence of actions that ultimately lead to an intended goal (Hall, 1993). A simple analogy that better illustrates connectivity is that of a dream: a futurist helps society articulate and flesh out its dreams. In contrast, planners help make dreams a reality.

Considering the above, Ratcliffe and Krawczyk (2011) argue that the purpose of linking or (re)linking the future to planning is to (i) expand thinking about planning beyond conventional understandings and limitations and to lead to stimulating conversations that encourage reflection on the future; (ii) help identify future assumptions that may require further study, testing or change, and encourage society to be optimistic about the future with its potential, threats, and disasters; (iii) make intelligent choices today that help shape better future policies while inspiring society to innovate in all socio-economic and spatial development and prepare for change by enhancing learning abilities; (iv) create faster response times and more

relevant responses to future events and encourage active participation in strategic thinking and decision making.

2.6 Chapter Summary

The objective of this chapter was to comprehend how rural local governments approach planning in their quest to implement development. Given the above discussion, there is a need to seriously reflect on the planning system and its outcomes in South Africa since 1994. This critical reflection does not mean that apartheid planning has sown the seeds currently subject to socio-economic and spatial challenges. However, this vital reflection raises the question of whether the previous statement continues to signify and validate the fundamental separation of planning for the future and the reactive course it has produced over the past 28 years.

Because of these unanswered critical questions, the need to develop new cognitive understandings and applications in planning for South Africa has become inevitable. The need is triggered by how most planners understand and apply contemporary planning. It is sadly still based on a conventional cognitive approach. In other words, planning's normative framework has evolved to adapt to the current socio-economic and spatial environment. However, some planners have cognitively remained static in the past (Coetzee, 2010). Serfontein and Oranje (2008, p. 28) argue that "there is a deep disconnection between planning thought and the 'real emerging' spatialities of the 21st century".

Chapter 3

Rural Local Government (Re)-Planning

3.1. Introduction

This chapter begins with setting the rural scene, followed by an overview of Moqhaka Local Municipality as the critical focus of the study. It discusses local government and planning in South Africa, focusing particularly on planning before and after 1994 to provide a space for debate and a general understanding of where South African planning originated and where it is today located today. It then discusses the normative and legal framework of planning in South Africa to understand how it was regulated in South Africa. Finally, current planning practices are analysed, focusing on local government planning and its integrated development planning process, to determine whether there is a gap between planning and Futures Studies.

3.2. The Rural Setting

The countryside, also known as rural areas in the Global South, are settlements that are geographically located outside of urban areas where cities and towns usually exist. They typically have a low population density and are characterised by agricultural and semi-natural areas with few buildings. Different countries have different manifestations, realities and definitions of rural areas and different administrative processes for them. Due to their unique characteristics compared to urban areas, their economic activities are generally land-based and mostly consist of primary activities such as agriculture, forestry, tourism, and sometimes resource extraction. Rural areas, particularly in the Global South, suffer from push factors as younger populations migrate to urban areas for better access to education and employment (World Bank, 2018). In addition, slow socio-economic and spatial development leads to poorer health care and rural infrastructure services. Therefore, such areas are overwhelmed with poverty and poor quality of life in some rural areas.

Looking at the African continent, and South Africa in particular, rural communities have limited scope for economic diversification and poor services and infrastructure (Gumede, 2018). Due Owing to high unemployment and population losses due to rural-urban migration (rural-urban migration), their income base is declining. On the other hand, their local administrative bodies have an ambiguous distribution of powers and functions between districts and local communities, traditional authorities and leaders. The main challenges in the rural areas of South Africa include poverty, inequality and unemployment, which are primarily associated with high levels of underdevelopment and poor socio-economic conditions; poor connectivity; poor access to essential services; and suboptimal levels of economic activity (Ngwenya, 2010; Gumede, 2018; Mohale, 2018). In addition, rural communities face weak/thin and uncertain markets from a developmental and planning perspective; a lack of public investment to attract external investment; Corruption; and a lack of or minimal regulatory oversight and ability to direct development. Mohale, cited in Pooe & Mohale (2022), notes:

> The legacy of apartheid-skewed spatial development continues to be the explanatory factor behind the consequent problem of economic dualism in the country. This reality perpetuates inequality in terms of access to opportunities and services. Metropolitan and urban municipalities have the benefit of larger tax bases and attendant high standards of living and services for their citizens… This coexists with the different picture of small and rural municipalities, which are interlinked to the developed first economy but are marginalised on the basis of their geographic location. (2022, p. 105)

It has been more than nearly three two decades since 1994, and there have been notable changes in rural areas regarding basic service provision. The disorganisation of rural planning and government investment has hampered rural residents' living standards, as demonstrated by the urban-rural migration in South Africa since the apartheid era. This foregoing phenomenon is due to the passive planning of rural areas. Richardson (1987) notes:

> An exclusive focus on rural areas would result in under-investment in urban areas, limiting the growth of the urban sector and its ability to absorb the rural labour surplus. Similarly, an exclusive focus on urban development would produce similar results because it would accelerate rural-urban migration and reduce food production per capita. (1987)

The current state of rural planning in South Africa is reflected in the many challenges faced by rural residents, – which include: unemployment, inadequate settlement, poor or lack of basic and public infrastructure, considerable informality in land-use management and governance, poverty, limited revenue generation and lack of investment, and poor intergovernmental with rural local government (Harris, 2012). The preceding reflects on the disorganisation and ad-hoc approach to planning in most rural local governments.

3.3. Critical Focus: An Overview of Moqhaka

As briefly mentioned in Chapter 1, the Moqhaka Local Municipality is a Free State Province Category B municipality located in the southern part of the Fezile Dabi District. It covers an area of approximately 7 925 square kilometres. It is the largest of the district's four municipalities, accounting for over one-third of its total land area. The major towns in Moqhaka are Kroonstad, Viljoenskroon, Steynsrus, Vierfontein, and Renovaal. Provincial Roads P15/1 and P15/2, which run north-south through the municipality, are the primary entry points. Ngwathe Local Municipality forms Moqhaka's borders to the east, Nala Local Municipality and Matjhabeng Local Municipalities to the west, Setsoto Local Municipality and Nketoana Local Municipalities to the south, and North-West Province to the north. According to the Moqhaka Housing Sector Plan (2019), the municipality's population has decreased from 167 892 in 2001 to 160 532 in 2011 and 154 732 in 2011; however, households have increased from 41 514 in 2001 to 45 661 in 2001 and 53 601 in 2016.

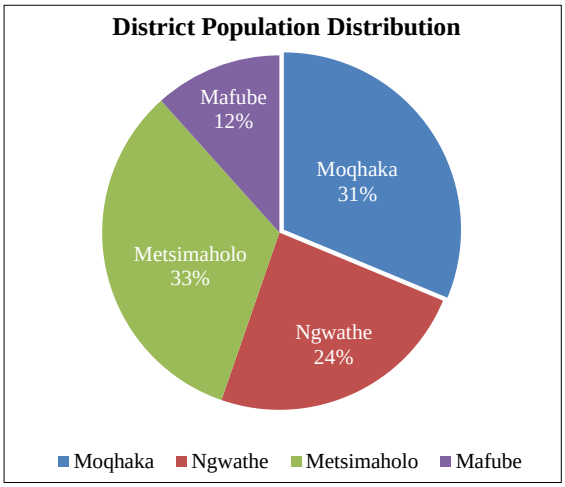
Like the rest of the Free State Province, the area is seeing a general migration trend from rural to urban areas (urbanisation). The municipality's urban portion houses 78% percent of its residents, while the rural portion houses the remaining 22% percent. Despite this, Kroonstad is at the heart of a large agricultural community that contributes significantly to the MLM and regional economies.

3.3.1 Population Dynamics

3.3.1.1 Relative to District. The Moqhaka Local Municipality, with a total population of 154 731 people in 2016, accounts for 31 %percent of the Fezile Dabi District Municipality population. The remaining 69% percent is split unevenly among Metsimaholo Municipality, Ngwathe Municipality and Mafube Municipality, which contributes 33%, 24% and 12% percent, respectively (Stats SA, 2016). Therefore, Moqhaka Municipality has the second-largest population in the district (refer to Graph 1).

Graph 1

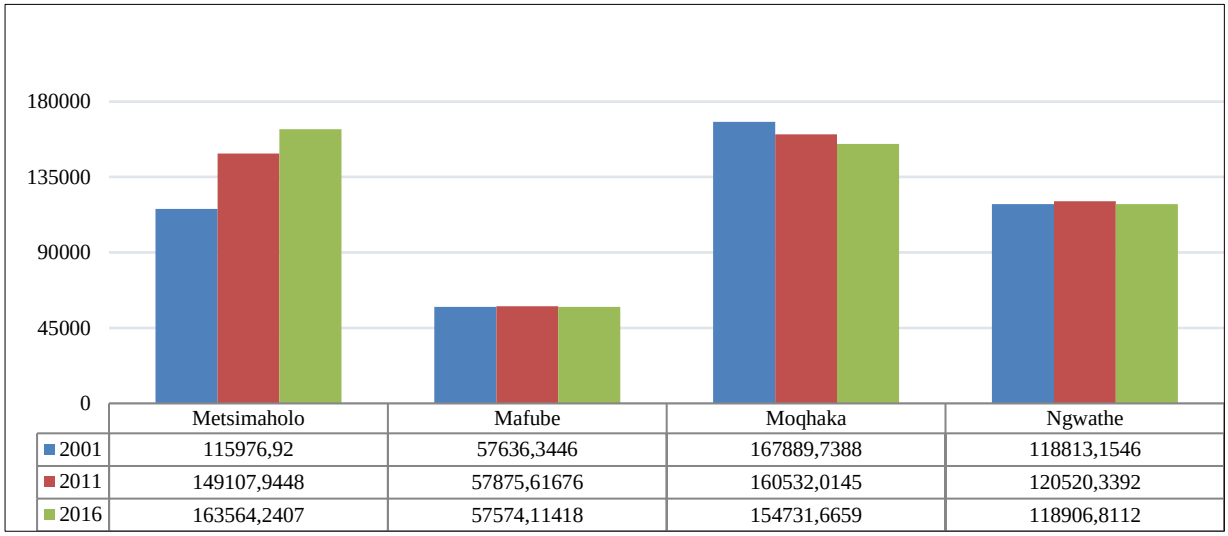
Population Growth Relative to District



Note. Statistics South Africa 2001, 2011 and 2016

Graph 2

Population Growth Relative to District (Historical)



	Metsimaholo	Mafube	Moqhaka	Ngwathe
2001	115976,92	57636,3446	167889,7388	118813,1546
2011	149107,9448	57875,61676	160532,0145	120520,3392
2016	163564,2407	57574,11418	154731,6659	118906,8112

Note. Statistics South Africa 2001, 2011 and 2016

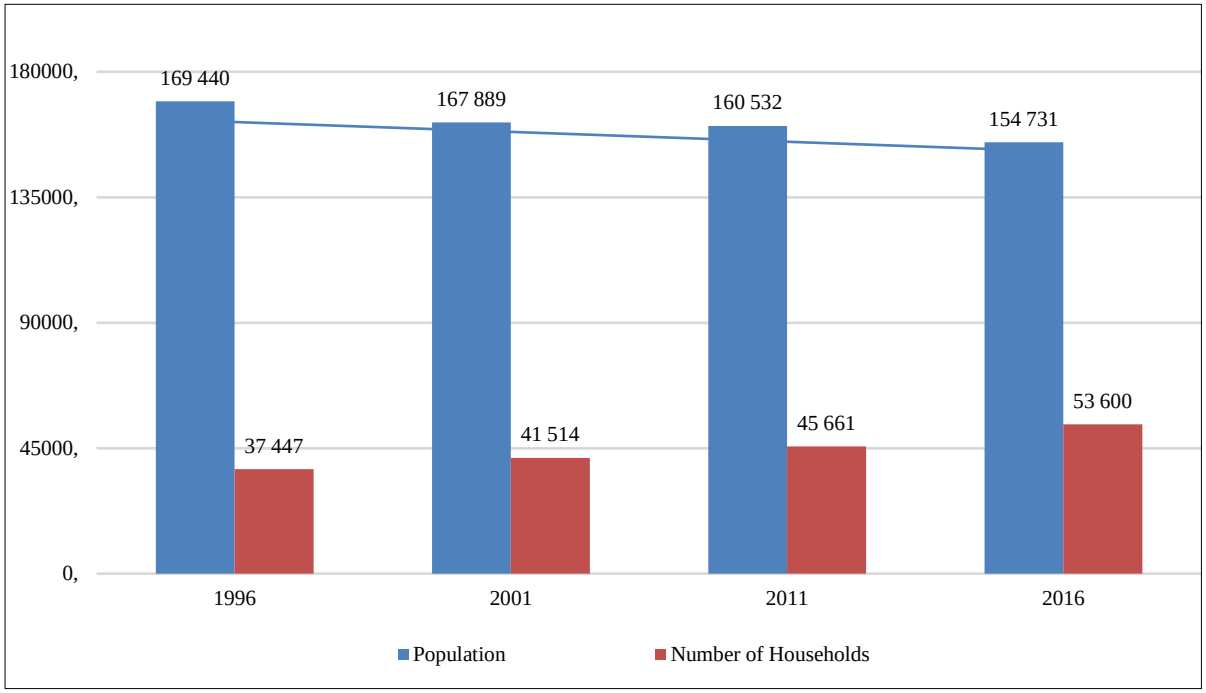
Local Municipalities in the Fezile Dabi District Municipality experienced variable net population growth trends between 2001 and 2016. The Metsimaholo Local Municipality is the only Local Municipality that experienced net population growth during this period, as the population increased from 115 976 in 2001 to 163 564 in 2016. On the other hand, Moqhaka experienced a steady decline in population size. The Mafube Local Municipality and Ngwathe Local Municipality populations remained almost the same at 57 574 and 118 606, respectively. The Moqhaka Local Municipality experienced a net population decline from 167 890 in 2001 to 154 732, according to the Community Survey 2016 (refer to Graph 2 above).

Metsimaholo Local Municipality is the most urbanised and economically developed of the four local municipalities in the Fezile Dabi District Municipality. It attracts the population from the surrounding predominantly small and rural municipalities. Moqhaka Local Municipality experiences the most outward migration within the district.

3.1.1.2 Moqhaka Population Growth. Moqhaka Local Municipality had a total population of 169 440 people or 37 447 households in 1996. In 2001, the population decreased to 161 832; however, the number of households increased to 41 514 in 2001. This trend continued as the population decreased in 2011 to 160 532 while the households increased to 45 661 with an average household size of 2.9. The area experienced a further decline to 154 732 people while the households increased to 53 600, with an average household size of 3.2 in 2016 (refer to Graph 3 below).

Graph 3

Population Growth vs Households Decline

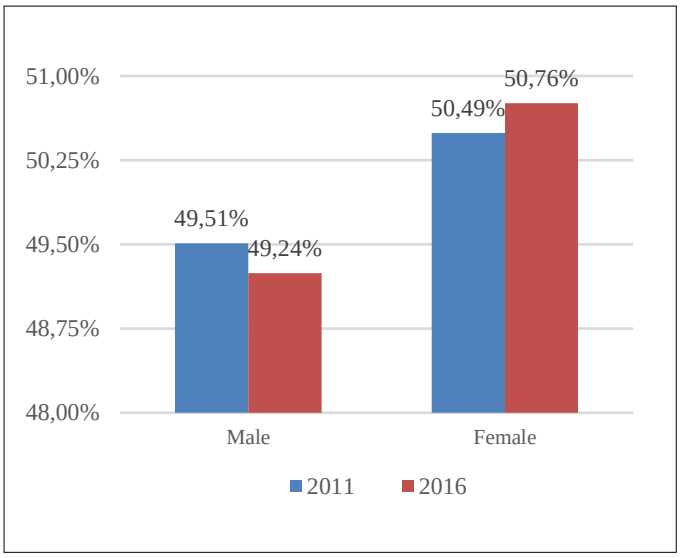


Note. Statistics South Africa 2001, 2011 and 2016

3.3.1.3 Gender Structure of the Population. The gender composition of the population indicates that females are in the majority compared to their male counterparts (refer to Graph 4). The male-female split in 2011 was 49 percent (79 477) males to 51 percent (81 055) females. In 2016, it was 49.24 percent (76 193) males to 50.76 percent (78 539) females.

Graph 4

Gender Structure



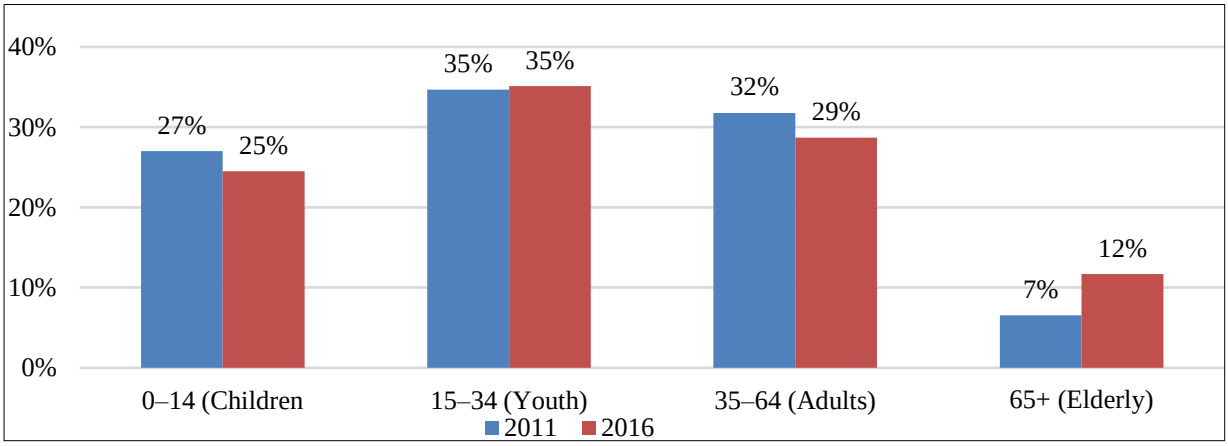
Note. Statistics South Africa (1996-2016)

According to Graph 4 above, 75 499 (51 percent) of the heads of household are women, while only 79 233 (49 percent) are male. This reflects the impact of the local economy (lack of employment opportunities) on the gender structure, which forces males to seek employment outside the area. It also implies a need for development to be sensitive to gender and the needs of women.

3.3.1.4 Age Structure

Graph 5

Age Structure



Note. Statistics South Africa (2011 and 2016)

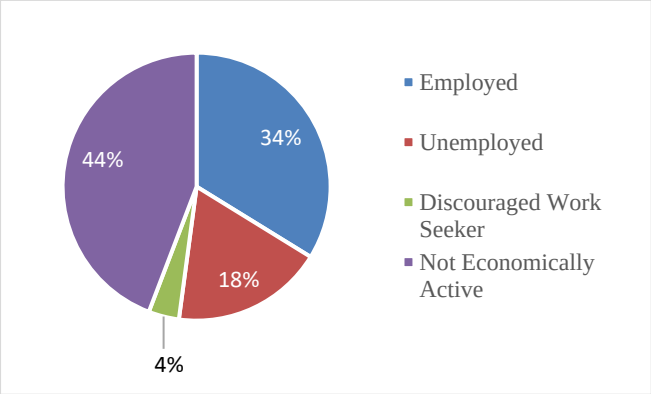
Graph 5 compares the 2011 census data to the 2016 Community Survey results regarding age groups. It reveals that the Moqhaka Local Municipality's population is predominantly young, with the majority aged between 15 and 34. Children (0-14 years) have dropped from 27 percent to 25 percent of the total population, while adults (35-64 years) have dropped from 32 percent to 29 percent. During the same period, the number of people over 65 increased significantly. This implies that the Moqhaka Municipality's human settlements programme should address the needs of a changing community where the youth predominate.

3.3.2 Socio-Economic Profile

3.3.2.1 Income Profile

Graph 6

Employment/Unemployment Rate

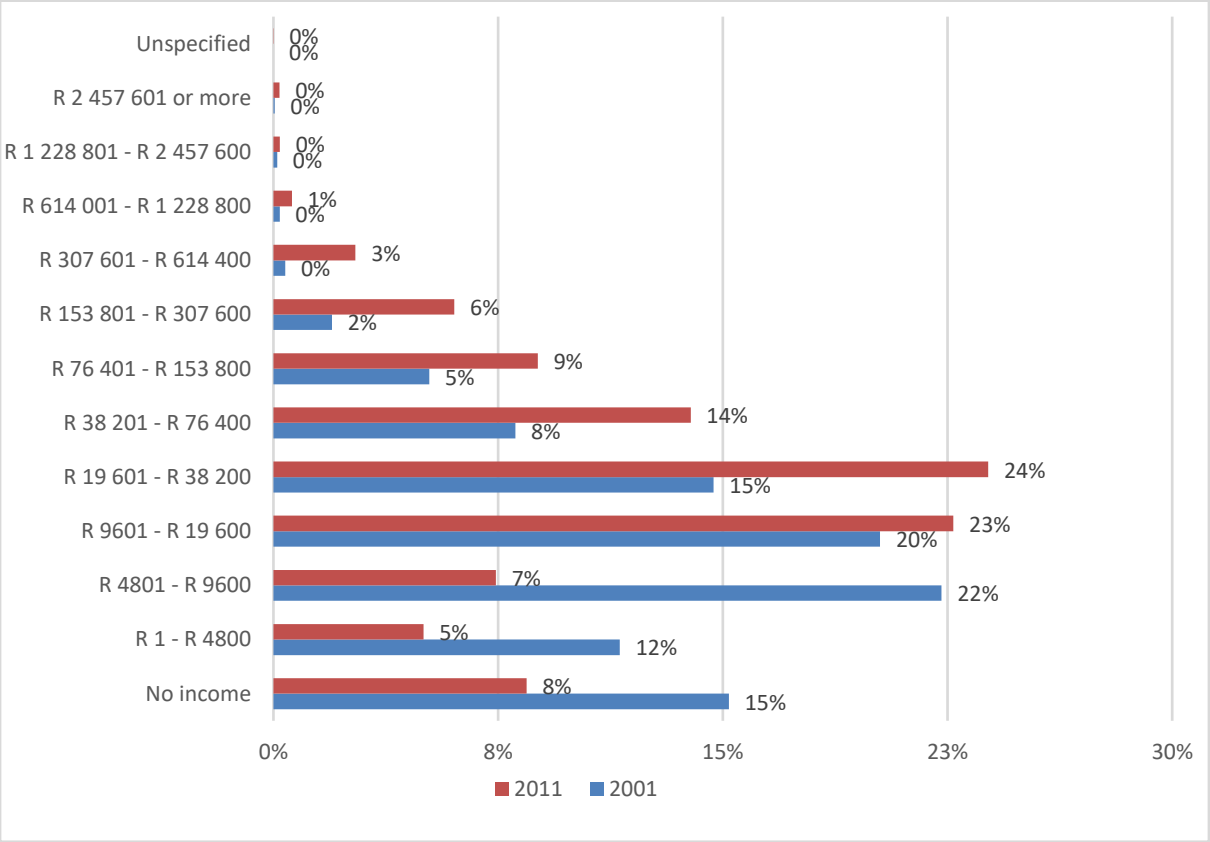


Note.*Statistics South Africa (2001, 2011 and 2016)*

Another major issue confronting the Moqhaka Local Municipality's residents is income poverty. According to StatsSA, the number of households with no income, those earning less than R4 800 and those earning less than R9 600, have decreased significantly from 15 percent, 12 percent, and 22 percent in 2001 to 8 percent, 5 percent, and 7 percent in 2011.

Graph 7

Annual Household Income



Note. Statistics South Africa (2001 and 2011)

On the contrary, the number of households in other income brackets increased significantly during the same period, indicating an improvement in the population's income profile. Despite this, about 19 896 households live below the poverty line.

3.3.3 Job Employment Profile

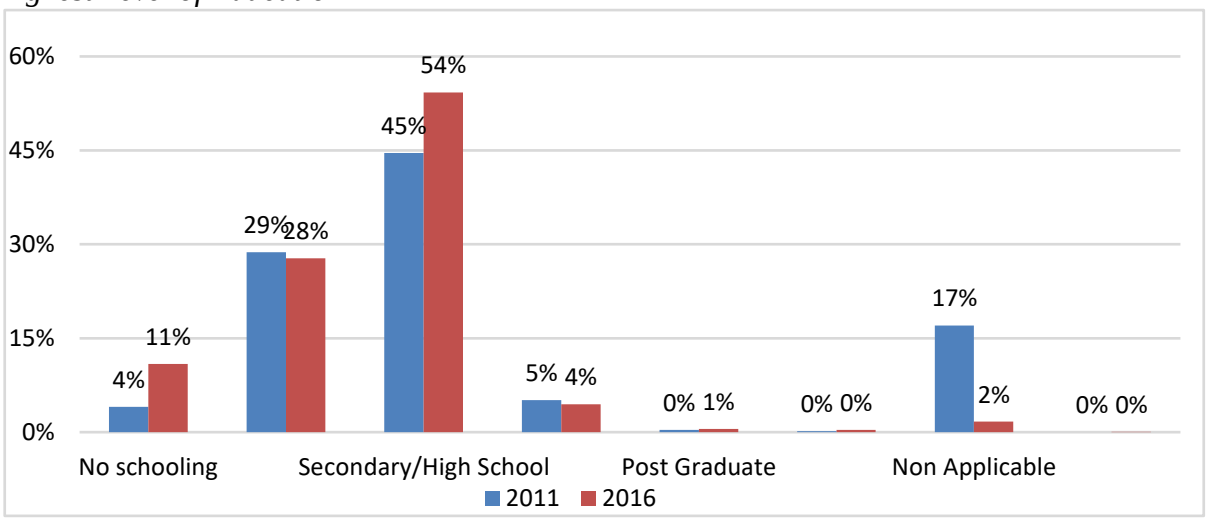
The employment/unemployment rate in the Moqhaka Local Municipality is depicted in Graph 7. It shows that 34 percent of the population is employed full-time, while 18 percent are unemployed; 44 percent are not economically active, while 4 percent are discouraged job seekers. In 2011, the official unemployment rate was 35.2 percent, while youth unemployment was 47.2 percent. The dependency ratio decreased from 50.5 in 2011 to 47.6 in 2016.

3.3.4 Education

In contrast to the relatively high unemployment and income poverty rates, the Moqhaka Local Municipality has a low level of functional illiteracy. Approximately 11 percent (16 893) of the population has never attended a formal school. This represents a significant increase of 4 percent (6 495) in 2011. Twenty-eight percent of the population has completed primary school, while 54 percent has completed secondary school. Graph 8 shows that the representation of people with graduate and post-graduate qualifications is very low at 4 percent and 1 percent, respectively. The significance of this data is that integrating education into human settlements contributes to realising South Africa's constitutional mandate of achieving universal access to educational needs and rights. Furthermore, education has several products that complement human settlements. For example, it reduces inequality by providing people with necessary job skills; it reduces crime and improves a settlement's overall liveability because an educated community is well-informed and motivated toward socio-economic and spatial development.

Graph 8

Highest Level of Education



Note. Statistics South Africa (2001 and 2011)

3.4 Local Government and Planning in South Africa

The democratic dispensation in South Africa has introduced a decentralised and more interactive approach to governance by establishing local governments. The South African Local Government Association (SALGA) notes that the South African Constitution (1996) provides that local government should play a transformative role by providing a mechanism for reliable, safe and sensitive service delivery to ensure the improvement of people's well-being because they pay for the services provided. To date, and given its novelty, local government has made significant progress in terms of bottom-up development planning and public participation and collaboration. It has provided a significant platform for socio-economic and spatial integration in South Africa. The President of the Republic of South Africa, Cyril Ramaphosa (2017), cited in Ngumbela (2021), notes:

> There have been some significant improvements by local government in South Africa since the democratic dispensation of the mid-1990s. So far, South Africa appears to have transformed racially divisive and fragmented 'bantustans' into an integrated democratic local government facilitating local democracy. (2021, p. 87)

In isolation, however, this platform minimises the realisation of the long-awaited socio-economic and spatial paradigm shift as elaborated in the National Development Plan's Vision 2030 (National Planning Commission, 2013). At the moment, local government is in disarray and hesitant about its purpose and mandate. In practice, this state of affairs applies notwithstanding the plethora of policies, laws, frameworks, programmes, and departments set up with the intention of (re)defining the mandate of local government and (re)positioning it within the autonomous state of South Africa. In terms of implementing socio-economic and spatial change, local government is failing. It can be described as a house of chaos, as Amtaika (2013, p. 291) notes, hence the 2016 SALGA conference's clarion call for the sector to put its house in order. According to the Auditor-General (2021), nearly 60 percent of municipalities

now have unrestricted audits; 87 municipalities and facilities were in the Red Zone in 2018-19, and 18 had clean audits; 54 municipalities received safe audits in 2018-19, and only 40 municipalities and agencies were in the red (2021, p. 87). Reddy (2016) contends:

> South Africa's local governance system can be described internationally as world-class when judged against the legal and political framework; however, to complement this framework, the necessary human and financial resources must be made available for the municipal structures and to ensure the functioning of the system. (2021, p. 87)

Since the establishment of local government, ill-defined powers and functions between local and provincial governments have been the cause of complications within the municipalities, resulting in power confusion and duplication. Ultimately, this portrayed local government as inefficient, ineffective and unable to drive development. Accordingly, Pieterse and Van Donk (2008) and De Visser (2009) state that when one reflects on the role of local governments in intergovernmental planning, it is not surprising that local governments consistently have limited institutional capacity to encourage national or provincial governments to redefine development programmes and initiatives.

3.4.1 Local Government and Governance

Prior to 1994, local government was subordinate to provincial and national governments. However, in democratic South Africa, local governments cannot fully utilise their new administrative powers to promote development (Tsenoli, 2007). There are three spheres of government; national, provincial and local government; of the three, the local government sphere is closest to the people. Each sphere has a direct mandate to achieve the socio-economic and spatial improvement of South Africa. It should be noted, however, that the legal position of local government is not only to facilitate a bottom-up or decentralised approach; its rightful place is also to promote democratic development through community participation to find

sustainable ways to meet the socio-economic and material needs of society, and to improve the quality of life of society (White Paper on Local Government, 1998).

However, besides the under-utilised powers of local authorities, there are other considerations. These include infrastructure bottlenecks such as housing, roads, and amenities and a backlog of services such as providing water, electricity, and sanitation to previously disadvantaged people (Mufamadi, 2008). Thus, "the transformation of South African local government from administrative centres that were under apartheid and dispersed under apartheid administration to a constitutionally recognised, self-governing area of government in a democratic South Africa, (is) described in many ways as phenomenal" (Christmas & De Visser, 2009, p. 109). As such, to achieve a transition from previous challenges to a "just" spatial and socio-economic framework, it is imperative that: (i) local governments are provided with rights and the appropriate functions; (ii) is capable of exercising these powers and functions; and more importantly (iii) has the potential to generate compelling, proactive, and innovative planning solutions in the future.

3.4.2. Planning in South Africa Pre- and Post-1994

South Africa has thus far had a pre and post-1994 paradigm shift concerning planning (Oranje & van Huyssteen, 2010). Planning adopted pre-1994 was applied in a top-down or centralised approach wherein powers were vested in the state. This resulted in limited powers for provincial authorities and even fewer for local authorities. To better understand the apartheid planning system, it is essential to constantly keep in mind that the apartheid regime consciously strove toward dictating socio-economic and spatial patterns that left native settlements underdeveloped (Fanon, 1963). As a result, planning in South Africa had already lost its sense of objective professionalism and meaning long before 1994, let alone its engagement with the future. Mabin and Smit (1997) argue that planning as a profession has become a disappointing substitute for existing practices desired by politicians. Tewdwr-Jones

(2003) adds that it has become a less futuristic exercise advocating socio-economic and spatial integration.

The above is intended to provide a brief context for the history of planning in South Africa. It is also a clear indication that, although apartheid planning practices were effective in implementing government programmes motivated by racism, the values and guiding principles of practice and the profession, both theoretically and contemporarily understood, have been simultaneously lost in the process – not to mention planning's proactive involvement with the upcoming plan. Thus, any discourse on strategic planning, whether resilient, postmodern, contemporary, sustainable, inclusive, integrated and collaborative strategic planning, has more credibility in the post-1994 South African regime than in any previous dispensation. Coined by the South African Labour Bulletin, this period is the transition from resistance to reconstruction (Maree, 2010).

In 1994, democratic elections welcomed the country and the planning model into a new deal and era of (re)construction. The country's task was apparent: to correct past socio-economic inequalities and spatial divisions. Policies and laws such as the Development Facilitation Act of 1995 and the NUDF of 1997 have been passed, and socio-economic reallocation programmes such as Redeployment and the RDP 1994 were implemented. More importantly, planning in South Africa has moved from a strict master planning approach to a more strategic planning approach (Pieterse, 2004). Mabin and Smit (1997) add that planning and reconstruction in South Africa after 1994 had an exciting future with a broader vision of participation and development, an element of importance that was missing from the planning prior to 1994. However, given the above discussion, this study asks whether the said “planning shift” was informed by an active engagement with the future. And if it was, what was the nature of such engagement?

The next part of the review focuses on the more physical or practical aspects of urban planning. This includes discussions on planning approaches, tools and legislation from 1994 onwards.

3.4.3 Legislative Framework of Planning in South Africa

A flagship initiative that paved a dominating path forward in the new democratic South Africa was the RDP of 1994 (van Wyk, 2012). The programme addressed socio-economic and spatial injustices that were consciously implemented using apartheid principles, policies, and legislation. Consequently, the programme attempted to address these injustices by investing in infrastructure and basic services, redistributing socio-economic opportunities, and rectifying spatial fragmentation. As far as planning theory was concerned, the programme introduced integration and diversification as well as urban form concepts such as compaction and densification (Republic of South Africa, 1994). The RDP was the Development Facilitation Act of 1995, one of South Africa's most influential planning legislations introduced post-1994. The Act provided normative spatial principles understood and applied as legal sources that guided the content of planning in South Africa (Republic of South Africa, 1995; Harrison, Todes & Watson, 2008).

Some other planning-related policies and programmes emerged during this period. These included The Breaking New Ground (BNG) housing policy, which had a direct impact on the urban spatial structure in that it provided for the construction of thousands of houses with the intention to (re)construct and integrate South Africa's urban areas (Republic of South Africa, 2004). The Accelerated and Shared Growth Initiative South Africa (Asgisa) identified land use management within planning as a critical instrument in realising institutional reform (Harrison, Todes & Watson, 2008).

The period from the 20s onwards introduced the NURP and the National Spatial Development Perspective, which emphasised the significance of integrating planning and

service delivery. The NUDF emphasises that “the term urban did not seek to reinforce a divide between urban and rural, but that the two concepts are rather viewed as part of a continuous regional, national, and international system interrelated through a web of economic, social, political and environmental linkages” (Republic of South Africa, 2009, p. 2; du Plessis, 2013).

The National Development Plan (NDP) introduced by the National Planning Commission, still South Africa's advisory body to the Cabinet as far as long-term development is concerned (National Planning Commission, 2012), focuses on the reconfiguration of both rural and urban areas in order to promote socio-economic and spatial equality and sustainability (du Plessis, 2013). More significant to the planning domain is the Spatial Planning and Land Use Management Act (SPLUMA) of 2013, which provides for a new set of principles, norms and standards, as well as creates uniform planning procedures and processes applicable to the entire country (van Wyk, 2012). Indeed, many more planning-related policies and legislations were not discussed but are very relevant in the post-1994 South African planning discourse. These include the Urban Development Framework of 1997; Rural Development Framework of 1997; White Paper on South African Land Reform of 1997; Municipal Structures Act of 1998; Municipal Demarcation Act of 1998; National Environmental Management Act of 1998; White Paper on an Environmental Management Policy for South Africa of 1998; White Paper on Local Government of 1998; Green Paper on Development and Planning of 1998; Municipal Systems Act of 2000; White Paper on Wise Land Use Management of 2001; Municipal Finance Management Act of 2003; and Provincial Employment, Growth and Development Plans of 2009.

Indeed, post-1994 planning in South Africa underwent a paradigm shift and is faced with a challenging but promising future (Mabin & Smit, 1997). As mentioned above, planning has seen many direct and indirect laws, policies and programmes, all aimed at reshaping South Africa into a better and more economically and spatially accessible country for all. However,

relevant critical questions that need to be asked are 28 years since democracy, what does planning in South Africa have to demonstrate for all its endeavours? What are the outcomes of this planning so far? And more important for the study, what other planning measures, tools and approaches have been put in place besides the Spatial Development Framework (SDF), Spatial Development Plan (SDP), Integrated Development Plan (IDP) and National Development Plan (NDP), which actively deal with the future? Regarding these questions, Myers and Kitsuse (2000) state that planning's strong focus on spatial analysis may have led to neglecting the aspect of time. As discussed subsequently, this intense focus on traditional urban and rural planning via spatial planning and land use management was and is witnessed through the master planning approach.

3.5 Master Planning to Strategic Planning

Currently, planning in South Africa tends to integrate socio-economic and spatial planning (Parnell & Pieterse, 1998; Todes et al., 2010). This goal is achieved through strategic planning of land use, spatial patterns, economic activities, transport networks, social structures, and the natural environment. To achieve the first objective, the strategic plan, unlike its predecessors, adopted a less rigid and more flexible approach to planning, which promotes master planning (van Wyk, 2012). Therefore, it can enhance mixed land use development by synchronously using industrial, residential, and commercial land, thus stimulating local economic development (LED).

Against the above, several arguments favour why the transition from master planning to strategic planning is necessary for the South African planning sector. First, the change allows planners to develop their conceptual planning knowledge. They can now plan South Africa's complex livelihood systems by providing the poor with opportunities in the formal and informal sectors, adequate housing, essential services, and good infrastructure (Rakodi, 1993). Secondly, it provides a perspective on how conventional planning tools, such as the master

plan approach, have undermined and overlooked the social aspects of planning (Rakodi, 1993). Third, change fosters participatory processes that allow for a bottom-up or decentralised approach to development and a heterogeneous understanding of power relationships among stakeholders such as community members, planners and investors (Beall, 1997; Chambers, 1997; Turner, 1997).

Finally, the change allows for power distribution among citizens, especially those previously marginalised. This has strengthened social movements regarding socio-economic, spatial, and political development (Friedmann, 1992; Abers, 2000; Beall, 2000). In summary, the above arguments by scholars such as Rakodi, Beall, Chambers and Friedman in favour of transforming the planning model from master planning to strategic planning can be summarised as follows: master planning is technical, spatial, rigid, systematic, non-participative and short-sighted (Todes et al., 2010), whereas strategic planning, which is a relatively diverse softcore application, socio-economic and political, flexible, strategic, participatory, and somewhat futuristic. Thus, the paradigm shift upgrades South Africa's old planning tools, such as master plans and structural planning, into Master Spatial Development Frameworks (SDFs) (du Plessis, 2013) and brings new urban and rural planning tools, such as integrated development plan (IDP).

3.5.1 Integrated Development Planning Process

Perhaps one of the most pivotal tasks of local government is the adoption of an Integrated Development Plan (IDP) (Constitution of South Africa, Act 108 of 1996; Municipal Systems Act, Act 32 of 2000; Municipal Structures Act, Act 117 of 1998; White Paper on Local Government, March 1998; Municipal Finance Management Act, Act 56 of 2003; van Wyk, 2012). In 1998, the integrated development planning process became South Africa's pioneering planning method and instrument for expressing the country's paradigm shift towards strategic planning (Pieterse, 2004). Reinforced by the promulgation of the Local Government's

Municipal Planning and Performance Management Regulation in 2001 (Republic of South Africa, 2001), it aims to interconnect the local government's statement of purpose with local plans, institutional design, and practices, programmes, monitoring mechanisms and financial flows (Pieterse, 2002).

The Local Government Transitional Act of 1996 defines an IDP as a short, medium, and long-term plan to integrate the development and management of an area within a municipal jurisdiction concerned (local municipality) in terms of its powers and duties. The intention is to achieve restitution objectives by redistributing and redeveloping socio-economic and spatial opportunities at a local level. Thus, the IDP also acts as a fundamental tool that ensures the integration and alignment of local, provincial, and national government plans, programmes, and activities (Parnell & Pieterse, 1998). Parnell and Pieterse (1998) add that the IDP is an institutional mechanism primarily designed to recognise the interconnectedness between development, political, socio-economic, environmental, and infrastructural dimensions in spatial relationships. In summary, the essential components of an IDP are a vision for long-term growth; assessment of the existing situation; priorities, goals and development strategies; a spatial development framework, operational strategies; a disaster management plan; financial planning; and finally, performance indicators and targets. Given these descriptions of the integrated development planning process, it is not surprising that it has become South Africa's most important mechanism to tackle poverty, promote local economic development (LED) and decentralise development planning power.

3.5.1.1 Scrutiny of the IDP and its Process in South Africa's Local Governments.

Theoretically, the advent of integrated development planning has raised the bar and spurred self-governing cities to perform well beyond simply providing services. It has forced self-governing cities to think about and aspire to excellence in socio-economic performance and infrastructure. In reality, however, many cities may never achieve excellence due to a simple lack of capacity, let alone the potential to create proactive and innovative planning solutions for the future.

Unfortunately, many centrally run cities cannot conduct and effectively implement integrated development planning. According to statistics, 28 percent of cities under central authority cannot prepare IDP even with additional support. About 37 percent are able to prepare IDPs independently, while the remaining 35 percent of municipalities are capable of preparing IDPs with additional support (Good Governance Learning Network, 2008, p. 51; de Visser, 2009, p. 23). Additionally, there is not only a lack of organisational capacity, limited powers, and undefined functions in most municipalities but “pervasive trends of corruption, mismanagement, immature politics and a skills deficit” (Good Governance Learning Network, 2008, p. 51; de Visser, 2009, p. 23).

Nonetheless, in most local municipalities, the problem is not only a matter of lack of organisational capacity, limited powers and undefined functions; it is the disconnection between planning and the future. Additionally, “there is no doubt that pervasive corruption, mismanagement, immature politics and a skills deficit are present in many” (de Visser, 2009, p. 23). Depressingly, the Department of Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs (CoGTA) (2009) goes as far as remarking that Local Government is failing the poor. It is not performing and is not accountable to its local community. The above deliberation is not intended to discredit or rule out the DP) and its process. It has contributed significantly and actively to the paradigm shift in planning. That said, what has been stated above only intends to

expose the shortcomings and weaknesses of the 1994 paradigm shift and to question whether land-use planning, the IDP process and NDP are sufficient to engage proactively in the future. However, other major planning events after 1994 besides the IDP are discussed in the next segment. These events include planning programmes, policies and legislative documents, including the Reconstruction and Development Programme and Development Facilitation Act.

3.6 Challenges Facing Rural Planning in South Africa

3.6.1 Attention to the Present

A mistake that planning has consistently perpetuated is exaggerating the present, thus treating it as an emergency and feeling the need to plan and implement along the way in a reactive way. This approach ignores the central function of planning – that it be future-oriented (Dalton, 2001). In other words, the urgency mentioned is a mere artificial product of not planning for the future, and, according to (Couclelis, 2005), because of the nature of planning practice to address immediate challenges. Visionaries, academics, and experts in the planning field are constantly pressured to formulate innovative approaches to solving and addressing current challenges rather than to formulate innovative approaches that enable planning to engage with the future actively; thus, the previous results in limited long-term planning resources, approaches, strategies, concepts, and theories. It is no wonder that scientists such as Mant (2011), Steele (2007) and Miller (2011) note that planners are not at the forefront of change; they are engaged in day-to-day procedural activities.

3.6.2 Short Election Cycles

This urgency of the present is primarily provoked by short election cycles. Chapter 1 (Political influence on the continuation of planning) discussed how these short electoral cycles impede long-term planning proposals, development and decision-making processes. Sandercock (2003), cited in Freestone (2012, p. 13), argues that thinking beyond the short-term is the most significant risk for politicians dealing with urban and rural governance, but this is

precisely what is needed when it comes to the sustainability of cities. Sandercock's statement above conveys the uneasiness about the uncertainty discussed below. The politicians in question are not confident that they will still be in power in the following election cycle. Therefore, they limit their participation and contribution to long-term development. Unfortunately, this affects a municipality's administrative management and development aspect, affecting socio-economic, spatial, and planning and development outcomes.

3.6.3 The Creeping Uncertainty and the Constant Reference to the Everyday

Unlike in the past, today, there are several unpredictable external forces such as globalisation, urbanisation and (re)worlding (Soja, 2000, p. 152, 218) and urbaning (Coetzee & Serfontein, 2002, p. 2) that must be constantly considered when planning for the future. Faced with this uncomfortable uncertainty, Abbott (2005) argues that there are two leading forms of uncertainty: (i) the contextual-social (social well-being), the economic (economic instability) and the physical environment (spatial resilience), and (ii) the complication and the process of proposed planning interventions and mitigations.

In comparison, it is no wonder that today's planners find solace and security in short-term development approaches. Unfortunately, this leads to a progressive loss of confidence in planning for the future while gaining confidence in planning for the present (Adam, 2010). However, Batty (2010) argues that even short-term interventions and developments have become volatile in their anticipation.

3.6.4 Limited Technical and Soft Skills Towards Rural Planning

Hambleton (2006, p. 108) claims that the demand for qualified planners will increase dramatically. Unfortunately, the skills mentioned are not limited to skills acquired through university studies. These skills are further honed through personal improvement. Grant, cited in Poxon (2001), argues that planners worldwide tend to misunderstand the core of universities, automatically assuming that upon completion of a planning programme, the graduate is

equipped with the necessary skills to do the daily work of planning. Grant says universities exist to improve students' intellectual and reflective skills to develop their analytical and critical skills and capacity for advancement.

That is, planning skills that can be sharpened through personal development, including communication skills, intellectual/analytical and problem-solving skills, interpersonal skills, negotiation skills, leadership skills, numeracy skills, presentation skills, research skills, teamwork, IT (Information Technology) skills, business awareness, professional awareness, understanding of space, time and management, and future orientation. In addition, sources such as Editorial (2005), Goldstein et al. (2006) and Faling (2011) argue that as space and the economy become increasingly politicised, planners need to improve their political knowledge and engagement.[vi]

Consequently, Coetzee (2010) adds that urban and rural planners need to reconsider the planning system's current focus to bring planning back into the development arena and strengthen its position as a development profession. Unfortunately, due to its roots in historical and trending data, the current focus is dominated by spatial mapping, assessment, and analysis tools that do little to improve forward-looking strategic planning (Myers & Kitsuse, 2000; Couclelis, 2005). This, therefore, maintains the uncertainty that planning seeks to minimise (Sieverts, 2003).

3.7 Modernism and Post-Modernism in Planning

In the modern and postmodern legacy of planning, there are perhaps as many understandings as there are planners. Modernism is an ideology that aims to formulate comprehensive and universal scientific methods to harness natural forces and thereby liberate people from irrational and arbitrary paths (Ellin, 1996). Therefore, it is the ordering of disorder or chaos. Modernity believes in linear progress, positivist, technocratic and rational planning of social and geographic space; it has standardised conditions for knowledge and production and a

firm belief in the rational ordering of urban space to achieve individual freedom and human well-being (Irving, 1993, p. 476).

In contrast, post-modernism is a philosophical shift in how the world is viewed, moving away from modernity, where socialism becomes the ultimate scientific law (Dear, 2000). Since the late 20th century, it can be said that the basis of post-modernism is modernism itself. Consequently, progress is an essential feature of all life. The preceding statement is intentionally directed at the continued practice of old, outdated approaches and methodologies in rural planning and other relevant professions.

The challenges rural planners face today have changed enormously. The simple and easy-to-do approach of solving multiple challenges by generalising a solution has become null and void. Today's rural planners face challenges such as social justice, environmental protection, economic instability and cultural heritage issues. In short, post-modernism considers rural planning approaches to social, economic, and environmental challenges. Thus, in the past, planners believed that their main goal was to formulate and implement a single correct way of planning (Irving, 1993). Similar to pre-1994 planning in South Africa, one of the significant problems of modernism in planning was the lack and rejection of public participation. This resulted in the planning being an overlay of the planners' ideas on the communities (Irving, 1993). Hence the advent of advocacy planning and public participation in the 1960s was introduced in response to and defence of interference with social justice.

Today, post-modernism aims to create places, diversity, opportunities and livable spaces through a sensitising awareness of social difference. Both modernism and post-modernism, however, rarely deal directly with the future. They, therefore, reinforce the need for a rural planning paradigm shift that directly (re)links planning and the future. To add insult to injury, planners must now find a way to reconstruct the future for a reluctant public (Connell, 2009).

3.8 Chapter Summary

The human resource and infrastructural capacity of local governments is not equal. Rural local municipalities are at the bottom end of the spectrum regarding planning, development and service delivery. This is against the IDP process that was introduced to streamline and plan formulation and implementation to foster development. Difficult challenges facing local government are magnified when dealing with rural local government, political interference is rife, and short-term planning and development plans and strategies perpetuate these challenges.

Planning is influenced by the future and helps shape it to a great extent. As far as the entire literature search is concerned, the current state of knowledge demonstrates that much has been written about (i) integrated development planning and the problems of planning within South Africa and (ii) the connection between planning and the future. However, the writings are primarily urban-orientated. Therefore, this demonstrates a gap in the relationship between planning for the future and rural South Africa's reality and experiences at the local authority level. The following chapter documents the research design, methodology and methods used in the study.

Chapter 4

Methodology

4.1 Introduction

The study assesses whether Moqhaka's planning systems, approaches and interventions are informed by a proactive engagement with the future and, if so, the nature of such engagement. The study's intended outcome is a better understanding of the current reality of local rural planning to confront its future. Ideally, (re)merging Futures Studies and planning will maximise the known and minimise the unknown (Connell, 2009). This study is qualitative. A phenomenological evaluation approach was chosen as the research approach. The approach was used to understand the personal experiences of urban and rural planners in Moqhaka. The data was collected using semi-structured interviews and content analysis. These approaches aimed to triangulate the study's findings to improve their reliability and validity. Data was collected from officials directly or indirectly involved in Moqhaka rural planning and development.

Against this background, this chapter documents the study's research design and methodology. It further elaborates on the value of the study and the usefulness of the methods used. The sample and its characteristics are then discussed to understand the nature of the findings. Finally, it explains the ethical concerns observed during the fieldwork.

4.2 Research Methodology

A qualitative research approach was employed for this study as a quantitative method would entail evaluating a testable hypothesis using measurable facts. The phenomenon in this study is qualitative and not measurable, which is why this methodology was chosen. More than one primary data source was used to enhance the study's validity (Cassell & Symon, 2006). The study's subject is the dynamics between planning instruments and strategies and their proactive engagement with the future. The two employed primary sources include (i) Moqhaka

planning instruments and strategies and (ii) semi-structured interviews with officials directly or indirectly involved in the planning and development of Moqhaka. Participants' viewpoints, living experiences, and opinions were evaluated through qualitative investigations (Tracy, 2019).

4.2.1 Research Approach

A case study is a research method used to investigate and describe a phenomenon that occurs in a specific context or geographical region to give data that is unique to that occurrence (Tracy, 2019). Thus, a case study was chosen as the research design with a phenomenological evaluation approach. This approach evaluated the participants' understanding based on their work experiences. Ethnographic and phenomenological studies were also explored but have yet to be chosen as research designs. Ethnographic design aspects were utilised to assess cultural values and conceptions; however, it was not chosen because it was not the goal of this study. Leedy and Ormrod (2005, p. 147) define a phenomenological study as an attempt to understand people's perceptions, perspectives and understandings of a particular situation. Directly speaking to one of the study's data collection methods (as discussed subsequently), phenomenological research relies mainly on lengthy interviews to derive data. The said interview sessions are usually semi-structured or unstructured with the aim of both the interviewer and interviewee understanding the crux of the phenomenon. It is the interviewer's responsibility to be able to interpret both verbal and non-verbal communications expressed by the respondent, as these are crucial contributing elements in truly and fully understanding the phenomenon. The case study was excellent for gathering data from various sources to assess participants' perspectives on planning tools and methodologies and their proactive approach to the future.

4.2.2 Research Paradigm

In the interpretation and practical experience, it is necessary to apply a research model to interpret practical experience. Kuhn (1970) defines a research paradigm as a shared understanding among researchers about how problems are viewed and approached. There are four general patterns: positivism, post-naturalism; interpretive theory; and critical theory. According to Guba (1990), precedent is approached from an ontological, epistemological and methodological perspective.

The research model identified for this study was interpretive because it allowed for subjectivity, essentially the basis for each participant to express their work experiences. Each participant's work experience concerning the study's attributes is in this study. Three attributes were identified to assess whether a proactive engagement with the future informs non-metropolitan rural local government planning. The attributes are (i) rural local governments and their approach to planning, (ii) rural local government planning instruments and strategies, and (iii) rural local government's approach to planning.

4.3 Data Collection Techniques

Data collection techniques are referred to by Leavy (2017, p. 12) as "devices/tools used to collect data, such as paper questionnaires or computer-aided interview systems. Mishra and Alok (2017, p. 12) state that "there are many different suitable data collection methods that vary considerably in terms of cost, time and other resources. Preliminary data can be collected experimentally or by survey". Data collection tools include surveys, case studies, checklists, questionnaires, observation schedules and, more relevant to this study, interview schedules (Mishra & Alok, 2017).

As mentioned, this study utilises a secondary literature review and semi-structured interviews as the primary data collection methods. The study was based mainly on information acquired through the review of literature derived from primary and secondary sources,

including policies, legislation and strategies. In particular, the documents that were examined included (i) the Integrated Development Plan (IDP) with its accompanying sector plans; (ii) strategies such as the Local Economic Development Strategy (LED); (iii) the Spatial Development Framework (SDF) and legislation such as the Spatial Planning and Land Use Management Act.

4.4 Sampling and Analysis

4.4.1 Sampling

A purposeful sampling strategy was adopted for the study – a homogeneous sampling strategy, to be specific. It is often also referred to as "judgemental sampling" because deliberate sampling strategies are not random and fall under what is known as "selection bias" (Tracy, 2019). Participants were selected from officials within Moqhaka Local Municipality, specifically the Development Planning Department. Thus, purposive sampling was ideal for individuals who could directly contribute information regarding the specific research questions.

The overall number of participants in this study was six. This was determined on the premise that qualitative research requires a minimum of five participants (Tracy, 2019). Saturation is established in a case study technique through recruiting and data gathering until no new themes emerge during data analysis (Tracy, 2019). Data gathering continued until no new topics emerged, ensuring data saturation. Participants from the Moqhaka Local Municipality were identified and recruited through an email requesting possible participants sent to the Planning Department. Following this, a meeting was held with each of the interested participants.

4.4.1.1 Sample Profile. Respondents were carefully identified for interviews based on their knowledge, familiarity and direct experience within the Moqhaka Local Municipality, specifically the Development Planning division. Below is a table that provides further information about the respondents to aid in understanding their relevance to the study better.

Table 2

Respondents and Their Relevant Divisions

Respondent	Division
Respondent 1	Local Economic Development and Planning
Respondent 2	Integrated Development Planning
Respondent 3	Tourism
Respondent 4	Housing and Properties
Respondent 5	Geographic Information System
Respondent 6	Building Control

4.4.2 Analysis

Data analysis is a process of constructing meaning from empirical data obtained using data collection techniques (interviewing key informants and observing participants and focus groups). The analysis method used in this study was thematic analysis, which is a qualitative data-coding technique.

The data analysis steps were as follows: recordings of semi-structured interviews were transcribed verbatim. Here the data was available in the form of voice recordings and typed or handwritten diaries. Second, coding was performed in which I marked essential information with the marker on the transcript to identify problems and goals. Third, derived categories and subcategories, topics and subtopics from the transcript were identified and grouped. Next, similarities were identified and summarised. Finally, throughout the process, I kept a reflection diary in which I recorded and evaluated the entire analysis process. The process consisted of reading and re-reading the data in its entirety, taking notes and writing summaries of each analysed transcript or data element. The aim was to condense all this information into central

topics and questions that could shed light on the research question. This process made raw data meaningful while keeping the purpose of the research in mind.

4.5 Ethical Considerations

Ethical considerations are one of the most critical aspects of research. I focused on four aspects during the research study: producing informed consent, voluntary participation, the confidentiality of information, anonymity of identity, prevention of harm, and research integrity (Sheppard, 2021).

Participants were given the option of anonymity and confidentiality. They were asked to provide consent for the provision of information during the research exercise, including online meeting platforms and oral discussions. The respondents were assured that this was a voluntary process. Confidentiality of information (notification of participants' right to remain anonymous and secure storage of collected data), mode of participation (voluntary and non-binding), retention of information (secure storage of hard and soft copy collections of data) and informed consent (orally and written, informing participants about data usage) and honesty (application of proper use of data, free from deception and non-discriminatory) were considered.

4.5.1 Positionality

Location is defined as "the position chosen by the researcher in a particular research endeavour" (Savin-Baden & Houell-Major, 2013, p. 71). This affects the research and the outputs and outcomes (Rowe, 2014). Mapitsa, Tirivanhu and Pophiwa (2019) consider the importance of positionality as status, power relations, social characteristics, and dynamics directly influence it. Thus, race, sex, and age influence a study (Holmes, 2021). Depending on where the researcher fits into these social traits, the researcher finds himself/herself resembling what Holmes (2021) calls an insider or an outsider. As a tool to influence the delivery of information, the background, beliefs and biases of the researcher also play a role in a study's outcome. In this study, my position is that of an African man who is also a registered

professional Town Planner with extensive experience in this field both in private and public sectors (local and urban-rural governments and provinces). This allowed me to reliably determine relevant data from unrelated data. On the other hand, my experience had the potential to lead to a research bias if not approached with caution. However, this was handled by incorporating a triangulation method.

4.6 Validity, Reliability and Dependability

Leavy (2017, p. 185) declares that "reliability and validity are concepts used to assess the quality of research". They indicate the extent to which a method, technique, or experiment measures something. Reality is about the consistency of measurement, and validity is about the accuracy of a measurement". Sheppard (2021, p. 79) agrees that the "reliability of a measurement is about validity". If a measurement is reliable, if the exact measurement is systematically applied to the same person, the findings will be the same each time; that is, they will be consistent. However, Bryman (2017, p. 16) argues that "… although reliability and validity are analytically distinct, they are related because validity is assumed before reliability. If your measurement is unreliable, it cannot be valid".

Denzin (2017) distinguishes four types of triangles in his book *Social Methods*: (i) data triangles (using multiple data sources); (ii) triangulation (using multiple researchers); (iii) theoretical triangles (using multiple points of view to explain research findings); and (iv) triangle method (using multiple methods to evaluate research findings). The data triangulation method was adopted to enhance the reliability and validity of this study. It was achieved by interacting with primary and secondary data. In addition, this study was compared to other similar studies conducted elsewhere, thus comparing research processes and outcomes to allow for generalisation. Finally, a summary of the research purpose and goals was compiled to put the questionnaire and subsequent interview questions into perspective. This approach allowed

participants to consent to or opt out of the interviews. With their consent, the participants had the opportunity to express their understanding of the questions orally or in writing.

4.7 Field Challenges

The field challenges that dominated the study included accessibility. Since the study utilised semi-structured questionnaires, some face-to-face and some by phone, it was not easy to agree and follow through with a set date as some respondents had to reschedule constantly – due to work or related commitments. Bureaucratic processes to access data were a long and tedious process that required authorisation – which was time-consuming. Other field challenges included administrative issues encountered during the study, such as the time and cost of conducting and scheduling interviews. The case study area was approximately 200 km from Johannesburg, my location.

4.8 Chapter Summary

In this chapter, the research methodology used in the study is discussed. During this research phase, the exploration required for the data extraction revealed relevant issues related to the participants. The experiences of the participants were crucial for the unveiling of the topic. Additionally, understanding the knowledge required to make the study comprehensive by looking at the participants' skills formed the basis for organising the data. This organisation was helpful in the audit and crucial in the thematic analysis – a delicate approach to data simulation. Field challenges, ethical considerations, and research limitations were critical components of the study, revealing the researcher’s positionality and understanding of bias in information gathering. These aspects were broken down into digestible chunks to highlight the crux of the matter. Taking Chapters 2 and 3 into account, the following chapter presents the findings obtained during the research study’s fieldwork.

Chapter 5

Presentation and Analysis of Findings

5.1 Introduction

This study's research problem is that development in rural local government has become overwhelmingly concerned with redressing past socio-economic and spatial injustices. Ngumbela (2021) notes

> (I)t may be argued that while, to some degree, municipalities share the responsibility for the poor state of their affairs, many of the socio-economic problems facing South Africa remain profoundly related to its infamous past. This is especially so concerning urban planning, which has consequences for the growth of local economies and, by extension, deprivation, inequality and unemployment. (2021, p. 87)

This does not rule out the current attempt toward forward-planning initiatives in Moqhaka witnessed through the IDP and relevant accompanying sector plans and strategies such as the LED, HSP, and SDF. However, it is intended to assess whether the preceding forward-planning initiatives suffice to engage with the future proactively. There is a need for development in rural local government to escape the urbanism race playing catchup with urban and metropolitan municipalities. Rural areas have a future, and thus this future needs to be proactively and appropriately engaged – from a rural locale of enunciation.

The first segment of Chapter 5 documents the study's findings through semi-structured interviews and content analysis and visually presents the findings through tables, graphs and charts, with interpretations where appropriate. The findings are presented in the following order: (i) involvement in the planning process; (ii) engagement with the future in municipal plans; (iii) future-engaging methods[vii]; and (iv) Moqhaka's development planning documents. With reference to the problem statement, the second segment of Chapter 5 provides an analysis and discussion of the findings presented. It begins by setting the fieldwork scene where the

central theme and categories of data analysis are discussed. Secondly, it discusses the obtained findings, focusing on the engagement and nature of the engagement Moqhaka has with the future. Third and last, the chapter discusses the consequences of the findings, focusing on the autonomy and administrative leadership of Moqhaka and the lack of capacity to effectively implement development planning policy, programmes, plans and strategies.

5.2 Presentation of Findings

This section focuses on visually presenting the findings using tables and charts. The segment is broken down into four sections. The first section discusses the respondents' participation and contribution to the planning process. The second presents the respondents' responses to Moqhaka's municipal plan's engagement with the future. The third presents the respondents' findings concerning the Future-Oriented Methods used. Finally, the fourth section presents findings from the content analysis of Moqhaka.

Please keep in mind that any dash (-) or N/A (not applicable) in the tables and charts below indicates that no relevant information was obtained from the respondent during the interview due to one of two possibilities: either the respondent was not present during the period in question, or the respondent was unable to provide relevant or credible information for that specific section or question of the interview due to a lack of involvement, contribution, participation or knowledge.

5.2.1 Involvement in the Planning Process

The tables and charts below present the respondent's involvement, contribution, experience, and causes of experience within the planning process.

Table 3

Involvement/Contribution in IDP, Sector Plans and Other Development Plans

Respondent	Division	Involvement/Contribution
Respondent 1	Local Economic Development and Planning	- Administration of Planning instruments IDP, RSDF, LSDF SDF - Spatially related input to the IDP - Vaal River Guide Plan (under review)
Respondent 2	Integrated Development Planning	- IDP Public participation - Mainly focuses on the IDP - Workshops with ward committee members on the IDP

Respondent 3	Tourism	- Ensures that the strategies below are aligned with the IDP and are reviewed annually:
		  - LED strategy
		  - Marketing strategy
		  - Tourism strategy

Respondent 4	Housing and Properties	- Administration of the MLM's Housing accreditation to level one to obtain housing functions - Administrates and manages the Housing Sector Plan, which forms part of the IDP - Review the Housing Sector Plan annually
Respondent 5	Geographic Information System	- Mapping of the Integrated Transport Plan - Involvement in the planning of the Marabastad township - Mapping IDP maps
Respondent 6	Building Control	- Oversees the circulation approval of building plan applications - Comments towards development applications - Building survey - Building control - Monitoring building compliance

The above table demonstrates each respondent's importance as a municipal official in Moqhaka Local Municipality. It also demonstrates each respondent's involvement in developing the municipality's IDP, Sector Plans, and overarching Development Plans.

Table 4

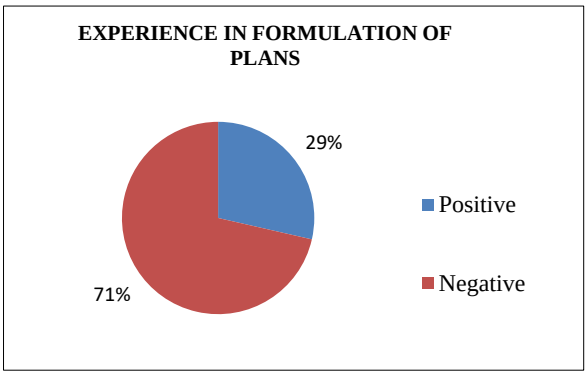
Plan Formulation Experience and Attribution

Respondent	Positive	Negative
Respondent 1		- The non-flexibility accommodates the younger generation's contribution to new approaches and ideas - Community uncooperativeness - Corruption
Respondent 2	- Community members learn about the MLMs and their responsibilities during public engagements - MLM has much potential for geographical centralisation.	- Insufficient budget - Political interference
Respondent 3	- MLM has much potential for geographical, agriculture and mining centralisation.	
Respondent 4		- Negative experience as there is much fragmentation within the municipality's administration - Poor intersectoral relation - Community uncooperativeness
Respondent 5		- Lack of funds to unlock and drive the potential of the MLM - Poor leadership with a lack of vision for the municipality - Corruption
Respondent 6		- Working under extreme circumstances – under the old guard or old government - Development is not for the masses but for a minority, specifically the private sector - No equal treatment of clients/residents - Policies and legislation are unjust when looking at the realities on the ground - New approaches that one proposes are met with resistance and seen as disrespect - I have been perceived as a problem because I voice my opinions and challenge conventional approaches that do not work - Public participation initiatives by the MLM are imposed as informative rather than consultative - Corruption

The table above demonstrates the respondents' positive and negative experiences and the cause of the experience during the formulation and continuity of the municipality's IDP, sector plans or overarching development plans. Refer to Graph 9 for a statistical presentation of the findings concerning experience in formulating plans.

Graph 9

Plan Formulation Experience



5.2.2 Municipal Plan's Engagement With the Future

The charts below present the participants' responses concerning Moqhaka's IDP, Sector Plans and overarching development plan's engagement with the future.

Figure 1

Municipal Plan's Engagement for the Future

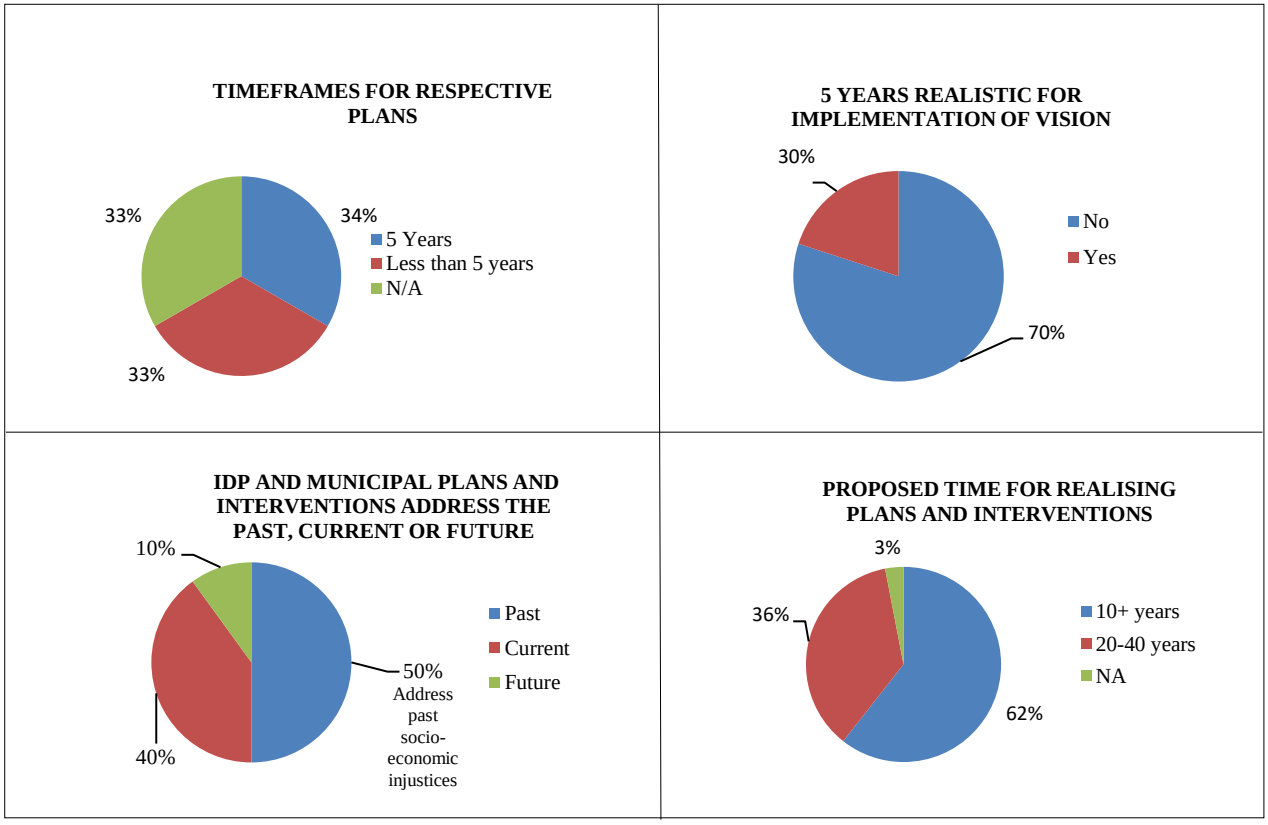


Figure 1 is divided into four frames. The first deals with the time frame of the municipality's plans. It reveals that 34 percent of the respondents stated that municipal plans are for five years, 33 percent for less than five years, and 33 percent were N/A. The second chart deals with whether five years is a realistic time frame for realising the municipal vision. It reveals that 30 percent of the respondents stated that five years is a realistic time frame, as it is enough; 70 percent stated that five years is not a realistic time frame due to poor management and lack of capacity. The third chart deals with whether IDP and municipal interventions address the present or long-term future. It reveals that 50 percent of the respondents stated that the IDP and municipal interventions address past socio-economic injustices, whereas 10 percent thought they address the future; 40 percent address the present. The fourth and last chart deals with the respondents' proposed additional time for achieving the municipality's vision/plan. It reveals that 62 percent of the respondents proposed an additional time of 10+ years due to limited infrastructure (dilapidation of roads and pipelines) and services (water and electricity), and 36 percent proposed an additional time of 20-40 years.

Table 5

Internal and External Challenges in Planning and Development

Respondent	Internal challenges	External challenges
Respondent 1	- The non-flexibility accommodates the younger generation's contribution to new approaches and ideas - Old planning instruments such as ordinances cause frustration to both the planners and developers - Limited resources and capacity - Lack of vertical growth limits horizontal growth – thus, poor organogram	- Limited planning and development instruments at a provincial and regional level to guide local development and planning, thus affecting the local level - Provincial level not having developmental guide plans - Lack of transparency and intergovernmental relations between local and provincial government - Top-down imposition - The centralisation of planning by Cogta
Respondent 2	- Technical services, inadequate infrastructure, high demand and low supply - Insufficient budget	- Provincial departments lack communication, transparency and involvement in development programmes and initiatives - Poor intergovernmental relations
Respondent 3	- Technical services, inadequate infrastructure, high demand and low supply - Poor political will - Insufficient budget - Lack of competent staff in strategic positions such as finance - Low revenue	
Respondent 4	- Poor intersectoral relations - Poor sectorial administrative alignment - There is a need for a standard operation procedure - Lack of capacity to provide services - Poor planning to generate revenue - Leadership instability as acting caretakers fill many director positions, and many strategic decisions cannot be taken	- A strong dependency on the Provincial Department of Human Settlement for funding and implementation of housing
Respondent 5	- The demand for housing is greater than the supply - Lack of funds to unlock and drive the potential of the MLM - Poor leadership with a lack of vision for the municipality	- Shortage of housing - housing backlog
Respondent 6	- Lack of transparency internally and towards the public	

Table 6

Political Interference

Respondent	Political interference
Respondent 1	- Yes, political interference is very much there and requires one to be thick-skinned
Respondent 2	- There is no political interference - Politicians are supportive - New political councils continue with previous political council plans
Respondent 3	- You cannot plan for the incoming Council; our plans run for five years - Whether advantageous or disadvantageous to continuous development, it is a democratic law that every five years, elections be held for sitting a council - Longer than that will be district initiatives - Poor political will
Respondent 4	- Council undermining expert advice from the administrative echelon - Politicians with a lack of understanding of municipal procedures, policies and legislation - No clear distinction between where the powers of politicians start and end - The five-year changing Council is short circuits continuity of plans, and we find politicians throwing javelins
Respondent 5	- This one is quite sensitive, but there is a lot of political interference - I will use examples: Politicians stifle development in that they sometimes want to benefit from developments, and if they don't benefit, the development will not take place
Respondent 6	Building control

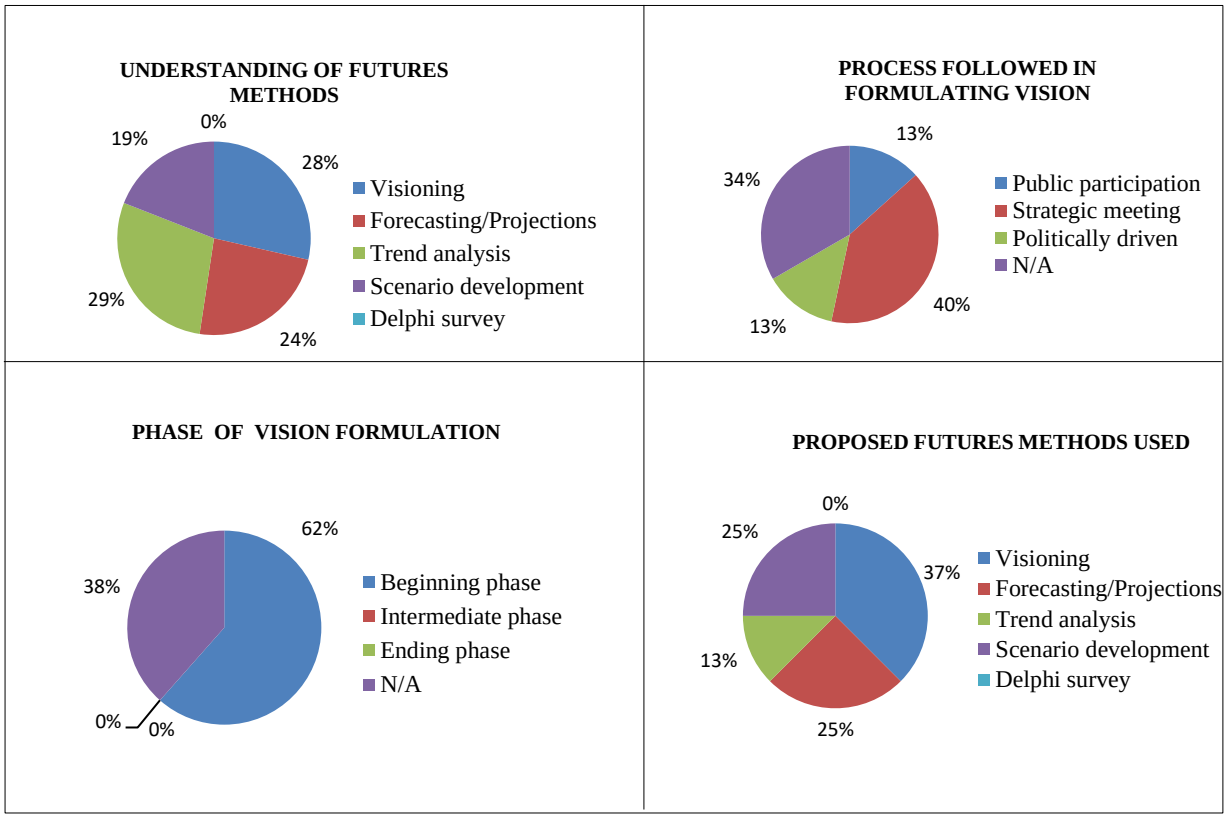
5.2.3 Future-Engaging Methods

The charts below show future methods for developing and implementing Moqhaka municipality's IDP, sector plans, and overarching development plans. Figure 2 is made up of four charts. The first chart is concerned with comprehending the methods used to formulate Moqhaka municipality's plans. It is revealed that 28 percent of respondents stated that Visioning was used in the plan formulation; 24 percent stated that Forecasting/Projection was used; 29 percent stated that Trend analysis was used; 19 percent stated Scenario development was used; none stated a Delphi survey was used. The second chart depicts the steps taken in developing the vision. According to the results, 40 percent of respondents stated that the vision is formed through strategic meetings, 13 percent through public participation, 13 percent

through political influence, and 34 percent were N/A. The third chart depicts the stage at which the vision statement was developed. It is revealed that 62 percent of respondents stated that the vision statement was formulated during the initial phase; none stated that it was formulated during the intermediate or final phases, and 38 percent stated that it was not formulated at all. The fourth and final chart discusses the proposed methods for municipal plans. It was found that 25 percent of respondents proposed Scenario development, 25 percent Forecasting/Projection, 13 percent Trend analysis, and none proposed a Delphi survey.

Figure 1

Futures Methods



5.2.4 Moqhaka's Development Planning Documents

The table in this section presents findings from content analysis of Moqhaka municipality's Integrated Development Plan (IDP) (2022/2027), Spatial Development Framework (SDF) (2019-2020), Local Economic Development Plan (2021-2022), Tourism Strategy (2019), Marketing Strategy (2020) and Housing Sector Plan (2020).

In arriving at these, the content was analysed based on the following: (i) the time frames that were set for the respective plans; (ii) how the plans address the future; (iii) alignment with provincial and national planning documents; (iv) keywords in the respective plans; (v) future-oriented methods that may have been used in the preparation of the plans; (vi) the phase in which one of the future-orientated methods was used during plan formulation/compilation; and (vii) the process followed when implementing the future-orientated method (refer to Table 7).

Table 7
Analysis of Moqhaka's Municipal Plans

Development planning Content: Plan/Strategy	Time frame	How the plan addresses the future	Reference to local/national/provincial documents	Keywords	Methods used	Phase where the method was used	Process followed to implement the method.
Moqhaka Municipality Integrated Development Plan (IDP) (2022-2027)	5 years	– Future economic growth in the agricultural sector exists, considering small-scale processing industries and intensive farming activities where possible	– Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (Act 108 of 1991) – Municipality Systems Act (Act 32 of 2000) – Municipal Finance Management Act (Act 56 of 2003) – White Paper on Local Government (1998) – National Development Plan (2011) – SDF (2009) – Moqhaka Spatial Development Framework – Back to Basics Programme for Municipalities (2014) – The Integrated Urban Development Framework (2016) – The District Development Model (2019) – National Land Transport Act No. 5 of 2009) – Department of Planning, Monitoring and Evaluation s Draft Planning Framework Bill	– Vision – Mission – Strategies – Priorities – Plan – Objectives – Budget	– Visioning "Moqhaka Local Municipality strives to be a Municipality that creates an enabling environment for socio-economic growth and sustainable development."	– Preparation of IDP – Strategic Phase	– Comparison of data from the past four annual IDP reviews
					– Trend analysis	– SWOT analysis	– Situational analysis of the existing trends and conditions in the Moqhaka Municipality
					– Projection	– Revenue	– Realistic projections of revenue and collection thereof, as well as strategies for debtor's management.
						– Borrowing	– The municipality has not obtained any new long-term borrowings in the current financial year. The table below indicates the balances as of 28 February 2022 and the projections for the current and the next MTREF
Moqhaka Local Municipality Spatial Development Framework (SDF) (2019-2020)	5 years	– Future directions for residential extension, predominantly in the high-density, low-cost residential areas, were identified for all urban areas and indicated on the Spatial Framework – Promotion of future agricultural growth must be endeavoured by value-added supplementary agricultural practices – New bulk water supply pipelines and pump stations will be required for future urban extensions	– 2000 Municipal Systems Act & Regulations for Amendment – IDP & Sector Plans (SDF is deemed a Sector Plan to the IDP) – CSIR IDP Guide Packs (Providing for SDF as a Sector Plan) – Municipal Systems Act, 2000 (Act 32 of 2000) & Regulations for Amendment – IDP & Sector Plans SDF is deemed a Sector Plan by the IDP) – Department of Rural Development and Land Reform: Guidelines for the development of SDFs (Introduction of GIS) (2011) – 2013 to 2017 Spatial Planning and Land Use Management Act – Municipal Systems Act – Preparation of SDFs – Preparation of IDPs – 2013 SALGA: Guidelines to assist municipalities with the formulation of Spatial Development Framework – 2014 DRDLR: Guidelines for the development of SDFs (not yet implemented) – 2019 Future reviews will be conducted according to the SPLUMA and the MSA and new SDF guidelines (2014) prepared by the DRDLR	– Future – Development – Strategies – Growth – Sustainability – Goal	– Visioning	– Preparation of IDP: Phase 2 – Strategic Phase – SWOT analysis: Phase two	– Phase 2 is a review of the public consultative process through which issues and a vision are obtained from the local Council, internal departments, the public, other municipalities and government departments. A summary of the issues and vision will be produced. This provides a broad perspective of the spatial issues of concern.
					– Trend analysis	– Monitoring and Evaluation	– All CBDs must be appropriately demarcated, providing for current development trends and inclusion in the Moqhaka LUS

Moqhaka Local Municipality Local Economic Development Plan (2021-2022)	1 year	– By investigating the options and opportunities available to broaden the local economic base of the area in order to address the creation of employment opportunities and the resultant spin-off effects throughout the local economy. – By encouraging Sustainable Employment Creation.	– Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (Act 108 of 1991) – White Paper on Local Government (1998) – Municipality Systems Act (Act 32 of 2000) – The RDP – Municipal Finance Management Act (Act 56 of 2003) – The MIG – National Strategy for the Development and Promotion of Small Businesses in South Africa – Integrated Sustainable Rural Development Strategy – Broad-Based Black Economic Empowerment – Intergovernmental Relations Framework Act (Act 13 of 2005) – New Growth Path (2010) – National LED Framework for LED: 2018-2028 – Free State Provincial Spatial Development Framework – Fezile Dabi Rural Development Plan (2016) – Moqhaka IDP 2021/2022	– Sustainable – Growth – Development – Employment – Facilitate	– Visioning	– Preparation of LED	– LED seeks to provide a vision, strategy, goals and targets that the municipalities LED directorate can work towards. It is envisioned that the recommendations emanating from this strategy will stimulate, promote and facilitate LED in the municipalities through the creation of an enabling environment
					– Trend analysis	– SWOT analysis: Phase two	This step dealt with undertaking an economic and socio-economic evaluation of the larger region to compile a development perspective and identify trends. A detailed analysis of trends, growth rates, the potential for development, SMMEs, issues, problems, etc., formed the basis of this step.
Moqhaka Local Municipality Tourism Strategy (2019)	5 years	– By identifying development opportunities. – By creating benefits for local communities and entrepreneurs – Through Investment incentives and support systems	– National Development Plan – Economic Transformation, Inclusive Growth and Competitiveness: Towards an Economic Strategy for South Africa – Tourism Act of 2014 – White Paper on Tourism Development and Promotion – The Free State Heritage Resources Authority Regulations of 2003 – The National Minimum Standards for Responsible Tourism (SANS 1162) – National Responsible Tourism Guidelines were developed in 2001 – The National Domestic Tourism Growth Strategy, 2017	– Recreation – Agriculture – History – Discovery – Nature – Adventure	– Visioning	– Strategic direction	– In 2030, Moqhaka Local Municipality is Free States' inland desired outdoor and events destination. It is known for its recreational variety centred on its natural heritage and scenic views, where a thriving tourism industry benefits everyone
					– Trend analysis	– SWOT analysis:	– International, national and provincial trends that will dictate the development of a Tourism Strategy for Moqhaka Local Municipality
					– Projection	– Budgeting	– Table 2.2 provides the budget projections to implement the priority strategic actions over the next 10 years
Moqhaka Local Municipality Marketing Strategy (2020)	5 years	– This work focused primarily on early marketing and branding strategies along a five-year time horizon ending in 2025	– Moqhaka Municipality Integrated Development Plan (IDP) (2022-2027) – Local Economic Development Plan (2021-2022) – Tourism Strategy (2019)	– Strategy – Branding – Access – Website	– Visioning	– Preparation	– It is hoped that by implementing these recommendations and committing to an ongoing and agile marketing and branding effort, Moqhaka will be well-positioned to realise its long-term vision

		– Moqhaka's brand identity and positioning will be explored in detail, and all branding recommendations should be examined further if necessary. However, successful implementation of this plan will lay a solid marketing foundation that can be applied to the Moqhaka brand and support its future growth			– Trend analysis	– SWOT analysis	– A brand and marketing audit was performed to understand the existing conditions, along with a situational and SWOT analysis – Case studies, research articles, and interviews with stakeholders were conducted in the Tourism Sector Plan, and more will be done in the Airport feasibility study that is already underway. For this purpose, the IDP and Tourism Plan will be used. Using the findings from these activities, a comprehensive marketing and communications plan was developed for Moqhaka to use as a guide for implementing marketing campaigns
Moqhaka Local Municipality Housing Sector Plan (2020)	5 years	– The MLM (HSP) is a five-year strategic plan that will guide the transformation of the existing settlements and the development of new sustainable human settlements per the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, national policy on human settlement and development agenda of the municipality	– Sustainable Development Goals – The New Urban Agenda (Habitat III) – The Constitution, 1996 – Housing legislation – Development Planning and Environmental Management legislation – Local Government legislation – National Development Plan, 2011 – Breaking New Ground, 2000 – Outcome 8: Sustainable Human Settlements and Improved Quality of Household Life – Integrated Urban Development Framework – Free State Provincial Growth and Development Strategy, 2007 – Free State Provincial Spatial Development Framework – Moqhaka Municipality Integrated Development Plan, 2017-2022 – Spatial Development Framework Draft, 2018 – Moqhaka Local Economic Development Strategy – Moqhaka Local Municipality Informal Settlements Upgrading Programme	– Housing demand – Human settlement – Housing need – Housing backlog	– Visioning – Trend analysis	– Preparation – SWOT analysis:	– The Moqhaka Housing Sector Plan affects the municipality's development vision outlined in the IDP. It indicates the potential contribution of the human settlement development programme towards attaining the development vision – The municipality will review the HSP annually in response to changes in government policy, development trends, progress in implementing the plan and emerging (new) human settlement needs

The above analysis of Moqhaka's development planning documents, with the exception of the (i) Moqhaka Transport Management Plan and (ii) Proposed Moqhaka Airport Plan, which are still in their formulation stage, reveals that almost all plans have/had a five-year time frame. This is because they are primarily aligned with the municipality's IDP. In addressing the future, the statements and keywords lean towards addressing the immediate and short-term future rather than the argued long-term future. As mentioned, five years is the average period or lifespan of the development plans. However, it is the plans for budgeting that refer to ten years into the future. For instance, the Moqhaka Tourism Strategy (2019) provides budget projections to implement the priority strategic actions over the next 10 years.

Moqhaka's development plans are aligned with relevant national, provincial, regional and district plans and strategies. This demonstrates the South African mantra that South Africa brags about having well-written legislation, policies and development plans and strategies but lacks in the implementation thereof.

The analysis reveals that Visioning and Trend analysis are two future-orientated methods generally employed in the formulation of these documents – usually in the first and second phases. Visioning is mainly aligned with the IDP's vision, while Trend analysis is applied during the SWOT analysis phase. One other future-orientated method is Projection; however, it is only used in monitory aspects of the documents such as budgeting, borrowing and revenue.

Against the discussion above, while analysing Moqhaka's development documents specifically considering the future-orientated methods employed, one cannot help but wonder who is applying these methods. This question is posed due to the process followed in many local municipalities in formulating these documents. The general procedure followed is a tendering process approach, where a service provider is appointed to formulate development

planning and other municipal documents. This approach is mainly adopted due to the limited human resources, technical capacity, and infrastructure.

Findings from the first segment of Chapter 5 demonstrate that there is a gap in the manner in which rural local municipalities engage with the future. The engagement is limited to the IDP's five-year period and thus does not address the long-term planning and development of the municipality. Planning challenges have evolved, and a one-size-fits-all solution that once worked has now become obsolete. Planning has evolved into a new era of uncertainty, requiring planners, as well as their strategies, approaches and interventions, to adapt to the effective use of future-oriented methods. Planners are more than passive observers; they must (re)claim their role as professionals shaping the future.

5.3 Fieldwork

As discussed in Chapter 4, the findings of the semi-structured interviews were analysed using data coding, which included Open Coding, Axial Coding, and Selective Coding, as a data reduction method. Relevant municipal documentation, such as the IDP, as well as pertinent accompanying sector plans and strategies, such as the LED, HSP, and SDF, were also analysed (Leavy, 2017). The reduction approach, which is covered in more detail below, included the central theme, three sub-themes, and ten categories.

With this in mind, this segment of Chapter 5 begins with the fieldwork, in which the central theme and categories of data analysis are discussed and then discusses the lessons learned, with a focus on engagement and the type of engagement Moqhaka has with the future. Lastly, the chapter discusses the implications of the outcomes, focusing on the autonomy and administrative leadership of Moqhaka and the lack of capacity to effectively implement development planning policies, programmes, plans and strategies.

5.3.1 Main Theme

The nature of Moqhaka's engagement with the future through its planning and development approaches, initiatives, and strategies is the central theme informing the findings.

5.3.2 Sub-Themes

5.3.2.1 Involvement. This sub-theme was shaped by the respondent's involvement or contribution to the formulation of IDPs, their accompanying sector plans, or other overarching development plans. Second, it was informed by the positive and/or negative experiences that the defendant had in formulating the above plans, and finally, how respondents believe the negative experiences can be improved.

5.3.2.2 Engagement. This sub-theme was influenced by the time frames set for the respective municipal plans. Second, it was informed by whether the five-year period for implementing IDPs, SDFs, sector plans or planning proposals is a realistic time frame to achieve the desired long-term vision. Third, it was influenced by whether IDPs are concerned with the municipality's present or long-term future. And finally, it has been influenced by whether Moqhaka planning interventions, in general, are influenced by the fixation on the past or whether the creation of new possibilities in the future drives them.

5.3.2.3 Methods. This sub-theme was guided by the strategies used to create the municipal plans for Moqhaka and whether they were future-focused. Second, it was based on how the municipality employed the abovementioned strategies, and finally, it was influenced by the respondents' understanding of future-orientated methodologies.

5.3.3 Categories

The categories comprised municipal divisions that the respondents interviewed work in. The categories were as follows:

Table 8

Municipal Divisions of Interviewed Respondents

MUNICIPAL DIVISIONS
Town Planning
Integrated Development Planning
Local Economic Development Tourism
Housing
Geographic Information System
Building Control

5.4 Discussion of Findings

As discussed in Chapter 1, planning in South Africa has become overwhelmingly concerned with correcting past socio-economic and spatial injustices. As a result, it has stifled and even abandoned its role as a future-shaping profession. The former is not intended to rule out the current future-engaging efforts as witnessed via the Integrated Development Planning Plans and Process. However, it is intended to question whether the said IDP and other strategies such as Tourism Strategies, LED, and other sector plans are sufficient to proactively engage with the future.

The desired outcome of the study is to better understand the contemporary reality of planning concerning its engagement with the future. As such, the findings presented above are discussed next. With the problem statement in mind, this segment is divided into two parts: the first part discusses whether Moqhaka Local Municipality's planning systems, approaches and interventions are informed by a proactive engagement with the future; the second part discusses the nature of that engagement.

5.4.1 Moqhaka's Engagement With the Future

Given the findings, Moqhaka's engagement with the future is short-term. The five-year IDP period appears to set a precedent for most of Moqhaka's municipal development plans, as they are more often than not implemented via the IDP's budget and time frame. An exception

is mostly when plans set for a particular IDP term are not completed in the required time because development plans exceed five years – and this is only if the sitting Council is still the same or if the new sitting council does, by chance, prioritise the plan.

Respondent 2 stated: “The IDP is for five years, but keep in mind that it can be extended. We are currently talking about ongoing projects. We're talking about the priorities left unfulfilled by the previous council". As discussed in Chapter 2, the phobia of engaging with the long-term future is reinforced by two interrelated phenomena, the urgency of the present and short election cycles.

With the preceding in mind, Sandercock (2003), cited in Freestone (2012, p. 13), contends “for politicians involved in urban governance, the greatest risk of all is to think beyond the short-term, yet that is precisely what is necessary when the sustainability of cities is at stake”.

Respondent 6 stated: "The problem arises with the change of Council every five years. Furthermore, other projects have been delayed and must be pushed to the following term of IDP. This becomes problematic when the elected Council has its priorities to achieve". Respondent 4 adds: "The five-year changing council is short as it breaks the continuity of plans, and we find politicians throwing javelins.”[viii] With the urgency of the present in mind, Meng (2009, p. 48) contends that “planning has been reduced to solving today's problems rather than creating a vision of the future”. Couclelis (2005) adds that the nature of planning practice has become to address immediate challenges.

With the above in mind, findings revealed that a five-year period to implement the IDP or realise any long-term vision is not enough to guide development and planning initiatives to achieve Moqhaka’s vision. Respondent 6 stated: "Five years is insufficient; I believe we also need medium and long-term plans. We don't even stick to our five-year plan. On the other

hand, having a long-term plan is fine – but if you can't keep up with the five-year plan, I'm not sure what you're going to do in the long run". Additionally, findings reveal that there is a need for an extension of time in the implementation of the IDP due to limited infrastructure and services. Respondent 1 stated: "If we can secure land for the future growth and development of the city as well as ensure that our infrastructure and services are in order, then we will have solved the problem and perhaps realise Moqhaka's vision". The preceding views indicate the respondents' uncertainty about the future of Moqhaka. In view of this uncomfortable uncertainty, Abbott (2005) argues that there are two leading forms of uncertainty: (i) the contextual-social (social well-being), economic (economic instability) and physical environment (spatial constraints), and (ii) the complication and process of the proposed planning intervention and mitigations. This remains true for Moqhaka.

Findings further reveal that the IDP and municipal interventions within Moqhaka tend to address past socio-economic injustices only. Tewdwr-Jones (1999) states, “planning sometimes conjures up an image of the abandonment of the past and not necessarily that of a pro-active future-seeking and future-shaping profession”. Respondent 6 stated: “We are always addressing the past”. Respondent 4 continued: “Because there is a backlog, they are fixing the past, and you can't go into the future”. Respondent 2 added: “To be frank, we are behind in planning; in other words, our plans are behind with what is happening on the ground. We are way behind. We react to things that have already been done. You see, this is through people taking the(ir) initiative of developing, and all we can do is formalise and regulate the development because they see our plans hesitating”. As such, planning has continued to perpetuate exaggerating the present, treating it as an emergency and feeling the need to plan and implement as you go. Unfortunately, in the process, the pivotal function of

planning, which is planning for the future, is ignored (Dalton, 2001). These responses directly communicate the urgency of the present.

Given these findings, it is evident that in the short term, there is indeed an engagement with the future as far as Moqhaka's development and planning systems, approaches and interventions are concerned. Respondent 3 indicated: “In terms of the future, it will be the five-year period, and now, it is in terms of a particular financial year. For example, we are currently in the 2021/2022 financial year, so it is addressing the now. We have projects in the pipeline to be implemented between July this year and June next year, so that is now”. Respondent 2 added: “We address the past and the present to address the future”.

Whether a proactive engagement with the future informs the above responses and understandings remains debatable. Serfontein and Oranje (2008, p. 28) attempt to elaborate on this by contending that “there is a deep disconnection between planning thought and the ‘real emerging' spatialities of the 21st century”. Below is the second part of this segment which discusses the nature of Moqhaka's engagement with the future.

5.4.2 Moqhaka’s Nature of Engagement With the Future

Given the findings of this research study, Moqhaka's nature of engagement with the future is more formative and theoretical than it is practical. In other words, the vision statement has been formulated together with its objectives. However, this is as far as long-term engagement with the future goes, especially from a time-conscious perspective, which can primarily be related to the experience that Moqhaka's officials have when facing socio-economic challenges and planning for the future. Consequently, 71 percent of respondents stated that their experience was negative due to insufficient budget, poor administration, community uncooperativeness, and political interference (refer to Figure 1 under Section 5). Respondents 1, 4, 5 and 6 stated that they had nothing positive to say. Given political

interference, Mabin and Smit (1997) argue that planning as a profession has become a disappointing substitute for the existing practices desired by politicians. Tewdwr-Jones (2003) adds that planning has been reduced to a harmless low-key activity. Respondent 1 contends that “when it comes to planning in a municipality, you need to understand that there will always be politics”. The findings of this research are that politics puts a lot of pressure on planning. Respondent 5 adds: "As officials, we propose that development is done as such, but politicians overrule our proposals for their politician agenda. For instance, when you tell them that the available services and infrastructure are not adequate for the proposed development in that area, they do not care – they force matters".

Concerning the application of futures methods, findings reveal that although they were employed in formulating some of Moqhaka's municipal planning systems, their true potential is incompletely understood. This is primarily due to planning and development's overall disengagement with the future. Consequently, Coetzee (2010) adds that urban planners will have to revisit the current focus of the planning system to bring planning not only back into the developmental arena but also to enhance its position as a developmental profession, let alone enhance its engagement with the future.

5.5 Consequence of Findings

Local government has long been subservient to provincial and national governments, unable to fully utilise its new and limited administrative powers in driving local development forward (Tsenoli, 2007). Indeed, all three levels of government have an immediate mandate to improve South Africa's socio-economic and spatial development; however, it is the local government's rightful place to not only facilitate a bottom-up approach but also to "deepen democratic development through community participation in order to find sustainable means to meet society's socio-economic and material needs, as well as improve their quality of life"

(Republic of South Africa, 1998). Unfortunately, as discussed below, there are inherent problems and challenges that prevent local governments from achieving developmental goals.

5.5.1 Autonomy and Administrative Leadership

To ensure the well-being of society, the Republic of South Africa adopted a decentralised government model with distinct powers and functions – "distinctive, interconnected, and interdependent" (Republic of South Africa, 1996: s. 40(1)). This solution of establishing a decentralised model became a "challenge of complexity" in terms of powers and functions, especially with local government. Because of the novelty of local government, establishing self-governance or autonomy has proven difficult. Poorly defined powers and functions between local and provincial governments have been the root cause of complications within local municipalities since the establishment of local government, leading to power confusion and duplication of duties. This has portrayed local government as ineffective, inefficient, and incapable of driving development. As a result, Pieterse and Van Donk (2008) and De Visser (2009) state that when considering local government's role in intergovernmental planning, it is understandable why municipalities will continue to have limited institutional capacity to encourage national or provincial governments to redefine development programmes and initiatives.

As discussed in Chapter 2, “exceptional and appropriate leadership” is a crucial component of a developing local state (Coetzee, 2010). Unfortunately, the lack of this leadership is precisely what many, if not most; local municipalities are experiencing. This is partly due to the side effects of the Municipal Structures Act of 1998, section 82, and Municipal Systems Act of 2000, section 56, which require the municipal manager to be appointed by the Municipal Council. Although enacted initially to appoint a municipal manager and management team familiar with the administrative and political aspects of the

municipality, these Acts are now fully translated. For example, municipal managers and the team reporting to him/her typically serve concurrent terms with the mayor (Wooldridge, 2008). When the mayor's term in office expires, the municipal manager and his/her team's term in office usually also expires. While this is not legal, it is motivated by political agendas.

Unfortunately, this political agenda has a negative impact on a municipality's administrative management. There is widespread concern that the political agenda has begun to impede the availability of skilled and qualified senior managers in municipalities (Atkinson, 2007).

5.5.2 Lack of Capacity to Effectively Implement Policy and Programmes

Adopting an Integrated Development Plan (IDP) is possibly the second most crucial task of local government (Republic of South Africa, 2000). An IDP is essentially the strategic planning process of a municipality in terms of urban planning. Its goal is to achieve the fulfilment of community needs and desires and the integration of municipal departments, all three levels of government, and private-public and state-owned enterprises (Republic of South Africa, 1996). However, many municipalities lack capacity in comparison to such ambitions. For example, approximately 28 percent of local municipalities lack the capacity to prepare an IDP even with additional support, leaving only one in three (about 37 percent) municipalities with the capacity to prepare an IDP independently. In contrast, the remaining 35 percent of municipalities do not have the capacity to prepare an IDP without additional support – let alone the capacity to implement it (Good Governance Learning Network, 2008, p. 51; de Visser, 2009, p. 23). Furthermore, "there is no doubt that widespread trends of corruption, mismanagement, immature politics and a skills deficit exist in many" (de Visser, 2009, p. 23). According to CoGTA (2009), local government is failing the poor, is not performing, and is not accountable to its local community.

5.6 Chapter Summary

Through the establishment of local government, South Africa's democratic dispensation has brought about a more decentralised and interactive approach to governance. To date, and despite its limitations, local government has made significant progress in terms of bottom-up development planning, public participation, and collaboration. It has provided an essential platform for ensuring socio-economic and spatial integration in South Africa. However, in isolation, this platform minimises the ability to realise the long-anticipated socio-economic and spatial paradigm shift outlined in the National Development Plan's 2030 vision (National Planning Commission, 2013). There is a need to incorporate Futures Studies into rural local government development planning and a developmental, mental state by society and rural local government/governance.

In analysing and discussing the finding, this chapter focused on the engagement and nature of engagement Moqhaka has with the future. Next, the chapter discussed the consequences of the findings, focusing on the autonomy and administrative leadership of Moqhaka and the lack of capacity to effectively implement development planning policy, programmes, plans and strategies. The following chapter concludes the research study.

Chapter 6

Conclusion

6.1 Introduction

The argument brought forth by this research and seconded by Isserman (1985), and Muoz-Erickson et al. (2021) is that urban and rural planning is in disarray and unsure of its principal mandate and goal – which is to provide people with hope for a brighter future. According to Meng (2009, p. 48), planning has been reduced to problem-solving for the present rather than developing an outlook for the future. This is clear from the post-apartheid planning and development consequences seen in South Africa, such as socio-economic disparity, geographic or spatial segregation, and distorted land tenure. Given the abundance of planning principles, legal frameworks, initiatives, and mechanisms that have been implemented to atone for the past, the success and effectiveness of planning in South Africa's (re)development since the start of the democratic regime have come under increased scrutiny.

Therefore, this research study researched future planning in Moqhaka. In doing so, it has considered planning initiatives and tools such as the IDP and relevant accompanying sector plans and strategies such as the LED, HSP and SDF. The study aimed to understand local governance and futures planning from a rural perspective. In concluding the study, this chapter summarises the overall study's main points. Secondly, the study's implications are discussed. Thirdly, it explicates the study's limitations. And lastly, it provides direction for further research.

6.2 Overall Summary

Unfortunately, planning is reluctant to give hope for a better future. Socio-economic and geographic segregation persists despite the plethora of laws and programmes introduced since 1994. Planning in South Africa has overwhelmingly engaged in correcting past socio-

economic and spatial injustices to the point where it has stifled and even neglected this future-shaping role. As discussed in Chapter 5, this hesitation is caused in part by (i) ongoing political interference, which is also not continuous when it comes to previously proposed interventions; (ii) laws, policies and programmes that are insufficient to produce future change, primarily because they are short-term, averaging five years; and (iii) reactive planning processes and systems, incapable of proactively shaping the future as the day-to-day mandate is mainly to address backlogs and past historical inequalities such as housing shortages and socio-economic opportunities.

Apartheid-led planning mainly realised socio-economic inequality, injustice, and spatial fragmentation. Fortunately, the post-1994 dispensation brought a decentralised, democratic, and interactive approach to management and planning in and around communities. Strategic planning, spatial planning and integrated development planning are some examples. Given the foregoing, there is a need to (re)merge Futures Studies with planning to make more informed planning decisions that proactively engage with the future. This will (i) improve planning's ability to systematically create, test and explore possible and desirable futures, leading to a more informed decision-making process; (ii) facilitate proactive planning through strategic anticipation rather than a strategic response to changes and challenges; and (iii) bring the realisation that planning is not only influenced by the future but also has a more significant influence on shaping it.

Much has been written about integrated development planning, the problems of planning in South Africa, and planning's relationship to the future. However, the writings primarily do not focus on South Africa. There is a gap in the planning relationship between the future and South Africa's experiences at the local level. In comparison, the study's findings demonstrate that (i) Moqhaka's commitment to the future is indeed short-term; (ii)

the five-year IDP period appears to set a precedent for most of Moqhaka's development plans; and (iii) the future of Moqhaka is uncertain according to the interviewed participants. But while the plans are short-term and narrow, they look to the future as far as Moqhaka's planning systems, approaches, and interventions are concerned. However, the engagement is not proactively forward-looking but rather more formative and theoretical than practical. Lastly, more critical findings reveal that the true potential of futures methods is incompletely understood.

6.3 Study's Implications

This study is about assessing whether planning at a municipal level, in this case, Moqhaka local municipality, engages with the future and, if so, how. As such, the assessment has revealed that Moqhaka municipality's planners and their plans rarely engage in the future. When they do, the engagement is short-term and narrow. As for the use of future-orientated methods, they are not used in any planning strategies. If or when they are used, it is only during the analysis phase. Moreover, the assessment also reveals that Moqhaka municipality's planners and other role players are, due to resources and limited political interference – unable to proactively engage with the future and, as a result, lack confidence in doing so. The preceding echoes Tewdwr-Jones and Meng's words: Planning has been reduced to a harmless low-key activity" (Tewdwr-Jones, 2003); Planning has been reduced to solving today's problems rather than creating a vision of the future (Meng, 2009).

6.4 Study's Limitations

The study sample comprised six participants; therefore, it was a very small proportion of Moqhaka local municipality's officials. Because of this, they may not represent the views of all of Moqhaka's officials. Additionally, the sample was selected out of convenience; as such, the findings may not be generally applicable to all rural municipalities in South Africa.

Therefore the study's findings and conclusion should be approached with caution. A similar research study applied in other rural municipalities in South Africa[ix] may ensure a more representative national generalisation of the findings of the study. For a more accurate representation, one may even take it a step further and conduct a similar study per district – and at the end, conduct a holistic comparative study of each province.

Most, if not all, of the participants, responded and communicated in Moqhaka's indigenous language, which is Southern Sotho. As such, both questions and answers were translated from English to Southern Sotho during the interviews for better understanding and also from Southern Sotho to English during recording transcription and data analysis. Additionally, the assumption was that the participants responded truthfully during the interview because their anonymity and confidentiality would be preserved, and they could withdraw from the interview at any time with no ramifications.

A few problems were also encountered during the use of the semi-structured interview. Open-ended questions may have encouraged participants to provide ambiguous or vague answers, as some future-oriented techniques were not generally understood. Moreover, participants may also not have understood the questions in the same way, therefore widening the scope of answers. Lastly, the study was limited to the participants' knowledge, familiarity and direct experience with Moqhaka local municipality.

6.5 Recommendations

6.5.1 (Re)Merging of Futures Studies and Planning

The study found that the question posed by Ngumbela (2021) highlights the need to restructure and redefine local government in order to achieve development-oriented local government. It also suggests bringing future studies and planning back together to maximise the known and minimise the unknown.

In essence, (re)merging Futures Studies and planning will maximise the known and minimise the unknown (Connell, 2009). In view of the above, Ratcliffe and Krawczyk (2011) argue that the purpose of linking or (re)linking future planning is to (i) expand thinking about planning beyond conventional understanding and limitations, to lead to stimulating conversations that encourage reflection on the future; (ii) help identify future assumptions that may require further study, testing or change, and encourage society to be optimistic about the future with its potential, threats and disasters; (iii) make smart choices today that will help shape better future policies, while inspiring society to innovate in all socio-economic and spatial developments and prepare for change by enhancing learning abilities; (iv) create faster response times and more relevant responses to future events and encourage active participation in strategic thinking and decision making.

6.5.2 Encouraging a More Proactive Approach to Rural Planning

To address the lack of future-oriented rural planning in South Africa, there needs to be a shift towards a more proactive and forward-thinking approach. This means looking beyond past and current socio-economic and spatial challenges and considering how planning can develop these spaces in a sustainable way.

Encouraging a more proactive approach to rural planning means promoting a mindset that prioritises long-term sustainability and growth over short-term solutions. This approach would involve engaging local communities and stakeholders to better understand their needs and aspirations and to ensure that the rural planning process takes into account their perspectives and priorities. It also means considering future trends and the potential impact national and international events and changes in the economy, environment, and demographics will have on rural communities. A proactive approach would seek to develop

plans and policies that are proactive and not responsive to these changing conditions – thus, supporting the sustainable development of rural areas.

6.5.3 Fostering Political Independence in Rural Planning and Governance

The influence of political agendas and interference in rural planning and governance processes needs to be addressed. This can be done by promoting greater independence in planning and administrative procedures through the establishment of legislation and policies that protect against political interference.

Fostering political independence in rural planning and governance involves addressing the influence of political agendas on planning processes and outcomes. In many cases, political interests and interference skew rural planning and governance in ways that are not in the best interest of local communities and the environment. This can lead to the implementation of policies that are not suitable and sustainable and that fail to meet the needs and aspirations of rural populations. To foster political independence, it is important to establish clear guidelines and regulations that protect against political interference and to ensure that rural planning processes are transparent and accountable. This can be achieved through the creation of independent planning authorities and the establishment of policies that prioritise the needs of local communities and the environment over political interests.

6.6 Directions for Further Research

Planning was and is a fundamental tool in implementing change within South Africa's socio-economic and spatial dimensions. However, post-1994 planning finds itself in the spotlight. It is proposed for further research that perhaps there is a need for a “third paradigm shift” in South Africa's planning fraternity, “a cognitive paradigm shift”. Such a shift will investigate and deliberate on the planner’s psychological and metaphysical aspect or ability, with the same intended outcome of further (re)merging Futures Studies and planning with a

cognitive approach. The former is to not only theoretically and practically (re)fuse planning with Futures Studies but to enable the planner to conceptually engage with the future. As a result, planning's sole purpose and mandate of providing hope for a better future might conceptually and practically be realised.

6.7 Conclusion

Challenges such as socio-economic inequality, injustice, and spatial fragmentation have arisen from apartheid-led planning. However, the post-1994 dispensation brought a decentralised, democratic, and interactive approach to governance and planning in local government. Strategic planning, spatial planning and an integrated development planning approach are evidence of this.

Nonetheless, after examining contemporary South African approaches to rural planning and their disconnection from the future, it is clear that there is a need to (re)merge Futures Studies with planning so as to make more informed planning decisions that proactively engage with the future. Consequently, given the disconnection of rural planning and the future, there is a gap or opportunity to (re)connect. On the other hand, the need for a third paradigm shift in South African planning is suggested as a space for further research. Concluding this research study, the relevance and utility of linking or (re)linking Futures Studies to rural planning is that it will improve planning's ability to systematically create, test, and explore possible and desirable futures, leading to a more informed decision-making process. It facilitates proactive planning through strategic anticipation rather than urgently responding to changes and challenges.

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Endnotes

[i] There are many definitions of urban planning; it is "also known as regional planning, town planning, city planning, or rural planning, is a technical and political process that is focused on the development and design of land use and the built environment, including air, water, and the infrastructure passing into and out of urban areas, such as transportation, communications, and distribution networks and their accessibility" (McGill University, 2008).

[ii] These are some of the main instruments, plans and strategies that guide development planning at a local municipality. Other such plans include Tourism and Marketing strategies.

[iii] Perhaps it is best to begin this segment by establishing common ground on the concept of Futures Studies. Futures Studies, also known as futurology and futurism, is defined by McHale (1978, p. 10) as an activity involving many elements of prediction, speculation, imaginative extrapolation, and normative projection.

[iv] The ANC was established in 1912. During the struggle against apartheid (1948–94), it contained both nationalist and socialist factions. The ANC won the 1994 general elections under the leadership of Nelson Mandela; in 1997 under the leadership of Thabo Mbeki; in 2007 under the leadership of Jacob Zuma; and in 2017 under the leadership of Cyril Ramaphosa. Du Toit (2013, p. 17) adds, the "ANC (stands) for mass collectivisation; an NGO Left built around the struggles of isolated rural communities; an urban-based union movement informed by an adversarial, industrial model of labour relations; truculent representatives of 'organised' – i.e. white – agriculture promising to let loose the dogs of war if their way of life was interfered with; and business opinion – also white – seeing white farming as a liability, but deeply worried about nationalisation and property rights".

[v] The Constitution and White Paper on Local Government define post-1994 local government as "developmental, involving integrated development planning.

[vi] Refer to (i) Political influence on the continuation of planning in Chapter 1 and (ii) Short election cycles in Chapter 2.

[vii] *Visioning*: Visioning is conceptualized as forming a mental image representing a future state of affairs in which the full potential of an entity, such as a local authority has been achieved. This mental construct is formally articulated through a vision statement, which employs textual and visual elements to depict the aspirational destination the local authority is striving toward.
*Forecasting/Projections: F*orecasting or projections entail using historical data as a foundation to discern the trajectory of future trends. Analysts aim to infer the likely direction of future developments by systematically examining past data points, thus contributing to an informed understanding of prospective developments.
Trend Analysis: Trend analysis is characterized as a systematic exploration of the external environment to gain comprehensive insights into the nature and pace of transformative changes occurring within that context. This analytical approach identifies potential opportunities, challenges, and plausible future scenarios pertinent to the local authority by discerning prevailing trends.
Scenario Development: Scenario development is recognized as a strategic planning methodology that involves the construction of hypothetical sequences of events. The primary purpose of this method is to draw attention to causal processes and critical decision points. By assessing the impact of uncertainties emanating from the external environment over a specific future time frame, scenario development enables stakeholders to make informed choices in the present, considering their potential outcomes in the future.
Delphi Survey: The Delphi survey constitutes a consensus-seeking technique deployed to elicit collective viewpoints from a group of individuals on a particular topic or event. It involves the distribution of questionnaires independently to participants, requesting their estimates and assessments. The collated responses are then analysed, and experts are apprised of the range of estimates and arguments presented by other participants, allowing them to revise their estimates. This iterative process may be repeated multiple times to converge towards a group consensus.

[viii] Throwing javelin is intentionally prolonging projects and interventions by politicians, particularly towards the end of the IDP, to be relevant or have a stake in the next IDP.

[ix] Preferably one rural municipality per province, amounting to eight or more similar studies.