RUSTENBURG
“A city with a high rate of influx of unskilled, homeless economic migrants instead of business investors”

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Table of Contents

List of Figures ........................................................................................................................................ iii
List of Tables ........................................................................................................................................ iv
List of Acronyms ................................................................................................................................... v
1. Introduction .......................................................................................................................................... 1
2. History of the City of Rustenburg .......................................................................................................... 3
3. Demographic and Population Change ..................................................................................................... 5
4. Employment and Economic Overview ...................................................................................................... 7
5. Municipal Finances ................................................................................................................................. 9
6. Post-Apartheid Rustenburg and Spatial Transformation ......................................................................... 10
7. Overview of the Rustenburg Spatial Development Framework and Integrated Development Plan ........................................................................................................................................ 13
8. Housing and Basic Services .................................................................................................................... 16
   8.1 Changes in the housing landscape ....................................................................................................... 16
   8.2 Level of access to basic services ......................................................................................................... 18
9. Assessment of the Spatial Development Framework and Integrated Development Plan in Rustenburg ........................................................................................................................................ 20
10. Conclusion ........................................................................................................................................... 24
References .................................................................................................................................................. 25
LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1: Rustenburg Local Municipality ................................................................. 2
Figure 2: Changing population trends in Rustenburg: 1996, 2001, 2011 and 2016 ..... 6
Figure 3: Relative contribution of the various economic sectors in Rustenburg: 1996,
2001, 2011 and 2015 .................................................................................................. 7
Figure 4: The changing housing landscape of informal dwelling units in Rustenburg:
Table 1: Access to basic services in Rustenburg: 1996, 2001, 2011 and 2016 ....... 19
## List of Acronyms

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Acronym</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CSIR</td>
<td>Council for Scientific and Industrial Research</td>
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<tr>
<td>GDP</td>
<td>Gross Domestic Product</td>
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<td>GVA</td>
<td>Gross Value Added</td>
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<td>IDP</td>
<td>Integrated Development Plan</td>
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<td>IUDF</td>
<td>Integrated Urban Development Framework</td>
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<td>RDP</td>
<td>Reconstruction and Development Programme</td>
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<td>RPA</td>
<td>Rustenburg−Pilanesberg Area</td>
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<td>RLM</td>
<td>Rustenburg Local Municipality</td>
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<td>SACN</td>
<td>South African Cities Network</td>
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<td>SDF</td>
<td>Spatial Development Framework</td>
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<td>SPLUMA</td>
<td>Spatial Planning and Land Use Management Act</td>
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<td>Stats SA</td>
<td>Statistics South Africa</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
1. **INTRODUCTION**

Rustenburg city is geographically situated in the eastern part of the North West Province. The city serves as economic hub for the entire province of North West and is the administrative capital of the Rustenburg local municipality (RLM). As a local municipality, Rustenburg area currently consists of 38 wards covering a total area of about 3,430 km² (RLM, 2016a). The area has a population density of 174 people per square kilometre. Furthermore, RLM is the largest of the five local municipalities within the Bojanala District Municipality (RLM, 2016a). Research studies refer to Rustenburg as the most populous local municipality in the North West Province and the sixth most populous local municipality in South Africa (Council for Scientific and Industrial Research [CSIR], 2015). Boosting its status as economic hub and administrative capital could be Rustenburg’s strategic location along the N4 freeway – or Platinum Corridor – and the R24, which respectively makes the City of Tshwane (the national administrative capital) and the City of Johannesburg (the national economic hub) easily accessible (Rustenburg Local Government, 2010).

Further complementing the strategic location of Rustenburg is a booming platinum mining industry over the past two decades – making the city one of the fastest growing cities in South Africa. It is estimated that about 97% of the total platinum in South Africa is produced in Rustenburg. Other than platinum mining companies, what also makes Rustenburg unique is the prevalence of development initiatives owned and driven separately on the tribal land by the Royal Bafokeng Traditional Authority (RLM, 2016a).

Like many cities in South Africa, the current socio-economic and spatial development in Rustenburg must be understood within a threefold historical development. First, the colonial discourse, followed by an apartheid era (both periods combined to broadly represent a pre-1994 era) and then the post-1994 democratic era.

Figure 1 shows a geographical location of Rustenburg and Box 1 explains the research methodology.
This research report on Rustenburg is one of eleven reports that emanated from a national study commissioned to the Centre for Development Support at the University of the Free State by the South African Cities Network (SACN). Although independent of one other, the study comprises eleven case studies across eight provinces of South Africa. Both secondary data sources and qualitative in-depth interviews were utilised to compile the Rustenburg report. The qualitative in-depth interviews were conducted with respondents representing the following categories of people:

- A senior municipal official (manager) in the Finance Directorate.
- Two senior municipal town planners in the Planning and Human Settlements Directorate.
- Two senior municipal officials in the Infrastructure and Technical Services Directorate.
- A senior municipal official (manager) in the Strategy and Planning Directorate, office of the Municipal Manager.
- Two senior independent local town planners.

Furthermore, statistics on Rustenburg was obtained from Statistics South Africa (Stats SA). Throughout the report a conscious effort is made to make the voice of the Rustenburg respondents heard.
2. **History of the City of Rustenburg**

While the primary focus of the report shall be on the post-1994 period, it is worth reflecting briefly on the main socio-economic and political events or activities that dominated the history of the city prior to 1994. The city of Rustenburg is the third oldest town of the former Transvaal Province and was established on 22 January 1850 (Geldenhuys, 2015). Historically, Rustenburg formed part of a broader geographical cluster called the Rustenburg–Pilanesberg Area (RPA) in the nineteenth century and most probably much earlier than that (Morton, 2008). The town was granted municipal status in 1918. As part of a broader RPA, it is worth noting that the desire by Andries Pretorius (who was one of the prominent Voortrekkers leaders) to find not only a place to settle but also to rest in the mid-1800s, has led him to name the area Rustenburg (A place of Rest) (Bezuidenhout and Buhlungu, 2015). Other than resting, which subsequently became a desire to acquire a permanent settlement next to African settlements, the Voortrekker settlers later used the RPA as their principal base for expansion into other parts of the former Transvaal region. Thus, a small refreshment and resting station, Rustenburg, was used by travel-weary prospectors on their way to the rich diamond and gold diggings in the Witwatersrand region (Molefe, 2005).

Some of the historic symbols in Rustenburg include the Anglican Church and the Dutch Reformed Church that were established in 1871 and 1898, respectively (Molefe, 2005). About five kilometres outside the town of Rustenburg is a historic place called Kroondal, which was founded in 1885 as a Lutheran Mission station on the farm previously called Kroondal (Bezuidenhout and Buhlungu, 2015). Furthermore, it would seem that one of the long-standing and inherent characters of Rustenburg is its ability to play a key administrative and economic role. For many years, Rustenburg was popular for being a small regional administrative and church centre, serving the needs of a conservative Dutch farming community (Geldenhuys, 2015).

Consequently, shortly after the permanent settlement of the Voortrekkers, but prior to the *Mfecane*¹, the area assumed the status of being the administrative hub for production of various agricultural products, particularly the production of tobacco, groundnuts, maize and wheat as well as cattle herding (Morton, 2008). Thus, other than the Dutch farming community, the town of Rustenburg became a trading centre both for the agricultural community and prominent Indian traders (Bezuidenhout and Buhlungu, 2015). Apart from attracting white farmers or boer settlers, the predominantly fertile agricultural soil, coupled with the thick winter dew that covers the foot of the Magaliesberg mountains and valleys (Mbenga and Manson, 2010), also attracted one of the largest African tribes called Bafokeng (which means ‘People of the Dew’). Although, the area comprises several groups of African tribes, only three groups seem to have dominated the written history of Rustenburg – these being the BaFokeng, BaKgatla and BaTlokwa.

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¹ A period of widespread chaos and warfare amongst indigenous ethnic communities in Southern Africa during the period between 1815 and about 1840.
The dawn of apartheid and promulgation of its discriminative policies further played a role in influencing not only social relations, but the spatial planning and development among the different racial groups in Rustenburg. In its quest to promote separate development, while keeping Rustenburg an exclusive white area, the apartheid government made provision for the establishment of Tlhabane as the first black township to accommodate blacks who had to be resettled following forced removals in the 1920s (Bezuidenhout and Buhlungu, 2015). Two more black townships, namely Boitekong and Phokeng, were established in 1960s. Like many blacks, residents of Tlhabane formed a reservoir for a migrant labour force that was used to sustain Rustenburg economically. Through further reinforcement of the separate development policy of the apartheid government, Tlhabane township was permanently incorporated into the former homeland of Bophuthatswana in 1977. As part of the homeland system, only Tlhabane and Phokeng (which in the main comprised traditional rural villages) were incorporated into Bophuthatswana, while Boitekong remained under the administration of the South African apartheid government. As also associated with the apartheid system and its policy on the Group Areas Act, Act 41 of 1950, Rustenburg saw the promulgation of Ziniaville and Karlien Park in the 1960s for Indians and Coloureds, respectively (Bezuidenhout and Buhlungu, 2015).

With Rustenburg being at the centre of the development hub that was associated with the RPA in the nineteenth century, it would seem appropriate to argue that the current prominent economic and administrative role that Rustenburg continues to play is part of a long-standing history. From an administrative perspective, Rustenburg continues to enjoy a post-1994 status of being the administrative capital of the current RLM that was established in 1999 through the local government demarcation process (Rajak, 2012). Through demarcation of local governments, the new RLM incorporated two former Bophuthatswana nations – the Royal Bafokeng nation and the BaKwena nation. However, contrary to the historic role played by agriculturally-related activities such as crop farming, hunting and cattle rearing in making Rustenburg a hub of development in the nineteenth century, the post-1994 era saw agriculture being gradually replaced by the mining economy. The post-1994 era, particularly the past three decades, have seen Rustenburg’s economic, social and physical landscape being dominated by mining-related activities (Bezuidenhout and Buhlungu, 2015).

The boom of platinum mining in Rustenburg owe its origin to the historical establishment of the Amandelbult and Waterval platinum mines in the early 1970s – a period that did not only brought a dramatic shift in Rustenburg’s fortunes but also made the town a flourishing mining centre (Geldenhuys, 2015). Owing to the recent historic booming of platinum in Rustenburg, three points are worth noting: First, the recent booming of platinum mining in Rustenburg has made the city the second fastest growing city in Africa, after Cairo in Egypt (Bezuidenhout and Buhlungu, 2015). Second, Rustenburg is not only the place where half of the world’s platinum is currently being produced, but it is the platinum hub of South Africa as well. Third, the platinum booming in Rustenburg has made the Royal Bafokeng nation the richest tribe in Africa.
However, this historic performance by the post-1994 mining industry in the Rustenburg platinum belt is not without controversy – with the Marikana massacre of 34 mineworkers by the South African Police Services in 2012 being one incident that shocked the global community.

Overall, the research report makes the following key points in respect of Rustenburg as an intermediate city:

- Despite being an agricultural hub in the nineteenth century, the post-1994 era saw a significant decline of agriculture as economic driver in Rustenburg.

- Driving the current fast growing economy and population growth in Rustenburg is the booming platinum mining industry – although lack of clear plans on diversification of the economy and shrinking land for agricultural activities due to urban sprawling, or what some municipal officials refers to as ‘frog jump’ development, remains a potential future threat to the local economy.

- Despite Rustenburg’s strategic location along the N4 freeway, or Platinum Corridor in particular, the municipality’s plans on inclusive economy and integrated spatial development as envisaged in the Spatial Development Framework (SDF) and Integrated Development Plan (IDP), seems to have failed to tap into this potential growth point for inclusive economic growth and spatial transformation.

- At the centre of the slow pace of spatial integration and development in the RLM, is the contest between municipal interest and those of traditional authority and mining companies.

3. **DEMOGRAPHIC AND POPULATION CHANGE**

The focus of the report now shifts to the analysis of the population distribution and migration in and around the RLM between 1996 and 2016. Figure 2 below, provides a more detailed overview of the population numbers in this respect.

![Figure 2: Population Distribution and Migration](source: Stats SA (2016))
From Figure 2 it is possible to make the following comments:

Given the platinum booming and the subsequent rapid urbanisation in Rustenburg over the past two decades, it does not come as a surprise to have a significant growth in the total population from 311,787 in 1996 to 626,522 in 2016. The city experienced an annual population growth rate of 3.6% between 2001 and 2011. Worth noting is a significant number (65.7%) of the total population residing in the urban Rustenburg in 2016. Linked with an increase in the total population, is an increase in the number of households from 75,793 to 262,576 over the same period. This increase could, to a large extent, be ascribed to the influx of economic migrants seeking job opportunities rather than permanent residence in the Rustenburg platinum belt. Confirming this could be due to a number of factors: First, it could probably be the rapid mushrooming of informal settlements close to mineshafts in comparison to any established formal settlement in Rustenburg. Second, it could probably be the disjuncture between the growth in the number of households and the sudden decline in household size. According to the available statistics (Stats SA, 2016), the household size in Rustenburg declined from 3.3 in 2004 to 2.8 in 2014. Furthermore, the increase in the number of households, and the subsequent decline in household size, could probably be due to the many extended households who have possibly lived in single dwellings and have since established themselves as separate households over this period. Lastly, it could be as a result of single males being employed by the mining industry who have possibly been joined by their families.

A significant decline in the number of people residing on rural commercial farms (from 11,168 in 2011 to 4,063 in 2016) is indicative of an agricultural sector that is gradually phasing out, unless appropriate intervention measures are urgently sought. The significant increase in the number of people residing in rural areas, particularly on traditional land, could to a large extent be ascribed to some major housing and infrastructural developments that are undertaken by the Royal Bafokeng Traditional Authority. Making this possible, could probably be both the existing partnership between the mining companies operating in the traditional land and the traditional authority and the quasi-government status that the Royal Bafokeng Traditional Authority continues to enjoy. Their partial independence is also acknowledged in the SDF where it is stated that, apart from being capable of owning land, contracting, incurring debts and obligations, the Royal Bafokeng Traditional Authority are also capable of fulfilling certain local government functions. The SDF also made special reference to all residents residing on the Bafokeng tribal land as ‘Bafokeng citizens’. It is argued that payment of royalties by platinum mines to the Royal Bafokeng Traditional Authority has resulted into significant investment and improvement in infrastructure, basic services and social amenities such as schools and clinics, which in turn led to the influx of not only the Bafokeng tribe, but other ethnic groups to the Bafokeng area as well (Ojakorotu, Kamidza and Oduaran, 2015).
Apart from influencing the rate of urbanisation and migration in Rustenburg, the platinum booming has to some extent created a gender imbalance in the city. For instance, indicative of perpetuation of the legacy of apartheid, the migrant labour system in the 2014 statistics showed a population comprising 327 000 (54.87%) males compared to 269 000 (45.13%) females residing in the RLM (RLM, 2016a). However, these 2014 statistics should be seen as improvement from 57% males and 43% females in 2007 (RLM, 2016a). This slight improvement could probably be ascribed to decisions by many of the single male population employed by the mining industry to be joined by their families.

**4. EMPLOYMENT AND ECONOMIC OVERVIEW**

The focus of the report now shifts to the analysis and discussion on the state of the economy and the extent to which the local economy is able to generate employment opportunities. The discussion and Figure 3 below provides a detailed account of the situation in Rustenburg.

![Relative contribution of the various economic sectors in Rustenburg: 1996, 2001, 2011 and 2015](image)

*Source: Author’s own (2017)*

**Figure 3:** Relative contribution of the various economic sectors in Rustenburg: 1996, 2001, 2011 and 2015

The following key notes could be made in respect of Figure 3:

Evidence from research studies indicates that Rustenburg’s economy is the seventh largest city economy in South Africa. Despite not being one of the metropolitan areas, the city’s economy is found to be larger than that of two metropolitan areas, namely...
Buffalo City and the Mangaung Metropolitan Municipality (SACN, 2012). Between 2001 and 2015 the city experienced an annual economic growth rate of 1.7%. The economy of Rustenburg is mainly driven by the mining industry. This being despite a decline in the contribution of the mining industry from 68.2% in 1996 to 59.5% in 2015. Following the mining sector is both finance and trade with their current contribution of 8.8% and 8.1% in 2015, respectively. A slight growth from 6.8% in 1996 to 8.8% in 2015 for finance and 6.4% to 8.1% for trade over the same period could be ascribed to the recent increase in business-related developments such as the Waterfall Mall, banks and insurance companies. Contrary to the historical performance of agriculture in the pre-1994 era, it would seem that the sector continued to decline – with statistics showing a decline in contribution from 0.7% in 1996 to 0.6% in 2015. To some extent, the continued decline in agriculture could be ascribed to contestation of land for business- and residential-related development and agricultural production. For the poor performance of the electricity sector, one major possible contributing factor could be the widespread culture of non-payment of municipal services by residents, including the tendency for illegal connections, particularly among residents in the growing informal settlements. Furthermore, the dominance of the mining sector is evident in its 2014 contribution of 75% to GVA, while finance and agriculture contributed 6% and 1% of GVA, respectively.

Related to the economic contributions by various sectors in Figure 3, is the ability of the local economy in Rustenburg to create employment opportunities for unemployed residents. There is evidence that with its significant economic contribution, the mining industry accounts for about 50% of the total employment in the formal sector (RLM, 2016a). With regard to total employment in the Bojanala District Municipality, RLM contributes about 51.6%, while for the province and national employment, the municipality contributed 28.31% and 1.53%, respectively in 2014 (RLM, 2016a). Furthermore, the significance of the mining industry in RLM is evident, enabling the municipality to make a 46.93% contribution to the gross domestic product (GDP) in the Bojanala District Municipality and a further 25.56% and 1.53% for provincial and national GDP in 2014, respectively. Consequently, through its annual average growth rate of 3.08% in employment, the RLM has managed to decrease the unemployment rate from 20.70% in 2004 to 18.47% in 2014. With the largest number of employment being in the mining sector with its 36.9% of total employment in the local municipality, it is followed by the trade sector with 16.3% of employment rate, community services with 14%, finance with 8% and construction with 7% in 2014. Yet, contrary to mining, municipal reports indicates that the manufacturing sector seemed to have shed jobs – with the sector experiencing a decline from 12 000 jobs in 1995 to 7 000 jobs in 2009 (RLM, 2016a).

However, while mining remains the key economic and employment contributor in the Rustenburg area, the gains made by the local mining economy in reducing the unemployment rate may in near future be reversed. Thus, like many other mining towns, the likelihood of Rustenburg going down in history as another ghost town is not
unconceivable, there are some troublesome signs already. According to the current IDP document (RLM, 2016a), several mining companies in the Rustenburg platinum belt are already threatening future retrenchments, with the Lonmin mining company estimating about 6 000 future retrenchments, while Anglo American Platinum intends to reduce its workforce from 24 000 to 16 500 workers. Even if this happens, retrenchments in the platinum mines around Rustenburg is not a new phenomenon – between 2007 and 2012, Anglo American Platinum reduced its workforce from 88 300 to 5 100, while in 2009 and 2011, Lonmin retrenched about 7 000 and 9 000, respectively (Ojakorotu et al., 2015). Furthermore, unless the RLM formulates and implements concrete plans to set in motion their 2025 diversification vision, the current overreliance of the local economy on the mining economy will continue to pose threats to the notion of sustainable local economic development. It is also important to note that the current 2025 diversification vision is not the first one as there was a Vision 2014 that aimed at creating a single, integrated economy to benefit all communities which was already adopted by the Council as early as 2005 (Molefe, 2005). Furthermore, making the possibility unconceivable could be the socio-economic aftermath of the prolonged (almost five months) wildcat industrial action mostly in 2014 by rock drillers across the three mining companies – Lonmin, Impala Platinum and Anglo American Platinum – with estimates showing a daily loss of R100 000 (Tau, 2014). Another reason for an urgent need to diversify could be the possibility of a platinum industry boom spreading eastwards in the foreseeable future to replicate itself in the Steelpoort and Burgersfort areas, where a high level of exploration and platinum mine development is taking place (Jackson, 2007).

5. MUNICIPAL FINANCES

The focus now shifts to municipal revenue and the discussion will provide a twofold analysis – first, a brief reflection on various sources of revenue (both internal and external) and then expenditure by the municipality. However, it is important to understand the current municipal finances within the broader local economic landscape which, among others, is characterised by a growing culture of non-payment of municipal services. According Interviewee 7, the current figure for total debt incurred by the municipality due to non-payment is about R3 billion.

The RLM appears to have two main sources of revenue – this being internal revenue sources and government grants. In terms of internal revenue sources, the contribution by user charges and property rates is worth noting. For instance, similarly to the 2009/2010 financial year, the financial contribution of property rates in 2016 remains at 7.2% of the total budget (Calfucoy et al., 2009; RLM, 2016b). Furthermore, Calfucoy et al. (2009) indicated that in 2009, about 51% and 34% of municipal income came from user charges and national grants, respectively, with a minimal contribution of 2% that came from interest on investments made by the municipality. In terms of expenditure, the 2015/2016 annual report indicates a 3.2% of the total budget as an expenditure on maintenance and repairs. With regard to municipal expenditure on
employee salaries, there was an increase from 10.6% in the 2011/2012 financial year to 21.3% in the 2015/2016 financial year (RLM, 2016b).

6. POST-APARTHEID RUSTENBURG AND SPATIAL TRANSFORMATION

With the widespread limited impact of a post-apartheid South African model on town planning in facilitating the much anticipated socio-economic and spatial inclusion, literature makes a caution for overreliance on spatial planning to redress past wrongs and current inefficiencies (Rajak, 2012). Thus, it is widely acknowledged in the literature that uncontained urban sprawl that most South African cities continues to experience, is a consequence of the limited effect of SDFs in restricting developments to within the urban edge. To some extent, Rustenburg is no exception. To understand the dynamics behind spatial planning and transformation in the Rustenburg city, the role of three key stakeholders is crucial, namely the RLM, the Royal Bafokeng Traditional Administration, and platinum mining companies such as Lonmin, Impala Platinum and Anglo American Platinum. Notwithstanding strides made by RLM in improving the lives of ordinary citizens residing within its jurisdiction, the city of Rustenburg (like most post-apartheid cities) still faces a range of inherent socio-economic and spatial disparities. For example, one of the issues raised by the community during the Mayoral Imbizo in 2011 and 2015, was related to spatial planning in terms of land use management and town planning (RLM, 2016a). Thus, a threefold manifestation of the apartheid legacy on spatial inequality remains evident in and around Rustenburg city: First, through uncontrolled development within and outside the urban edge – a phenomenon encouraged mainly by economic activities of the private and mining sectors. Second, through spatially fragmented development – a phenomenon referred to as ‘frog jump development’ during in-depth interviews (see discussion in Section 9). Third, through lack of densification and mixed land use development (see discussion in Section 9).

Following spatially fragmented development, a concern was expressed in the IDP document regarding a lack of spatial transformation and inclusive development (RLM, 2016a). To a large extent, this was confined to former townships where residents were still faced with issues of lack or absence of basic services and infrastructure, while residents in more affluent former white suburbs were concerned about maintenance rather than absence of the services and infrastructure. Lack of racial integration, coupled with a lack of urban planning, seemed to have further perpetuated both past racial and class-driven spatial inequalities and uncontrolled development within as well as outside the urban edge – with one end of the city characterised by gated communities for the rich, while the other end saw mushrooming of informal settlements by economic migrants seeking job opportunities at mining companies (Bezuidenhout and Buhlungu, 2015). About 31.5% of the total population in Rustenburg resided in uncontrolled development that manifested itself through informal settlements outside the urban edge. Furthermore, due to a lack of racial integration in most of the previously
white suburbs, about 72% and 76% of the residents in Oos-Einde and Safari Tuine, respectively, were white, while the gated community in the Cashan suburb represented the most extreme form of elite enclaving in Rustenburg (Bezuidenhout and Buhlungu, 2015). Lack of racial integration in Rustenburg was not limited only to the former white suburbs, but to some of the former black areas as well. For example, according to the 2011 census, about 69% of the residents in the former Indian suburb of Ziniaville remained Indian (Stats SA, 2012). Only in the former coloured suburb called Karlien there was evidence of racial integration with about 39% and 58% of residents being coloureds and Africans (mostly Tswana speakers), respectively.

Bezuidenhout and Buhlungu (2015) stated that suburbs in Rustenburg are today more broadly segmented on the basis of race and class than in the past. More than anything, the post-1994 urban landscape of Rustenburg which is characterised by enclaving, confirms the extent to which South Africa remains one of the most unequal societies in the world. The perpetuation of inequality can further be seen in the modes of transport and travelling times between residents of different social and economic classes in Rustenburg. Such disparities are shown through shocking statistics revealed in the SDF of residents using private cars and those forced to use more than two taxis before reaching their daily destinations. For instance, about 26% daily commuters in Rustenburg were forced to make use of two taxis before reaching their destinations, probably due to spatial disintegration between poor residential areas (Boitekong and Phokeng) and areas of job opportunities in the Rustenburg sprawling urban spaces. On the other hand, in the former upmarket suburbs, about 88% of commuters in the southern suburbs were using their private cars instead of public transport to work, thereby contributing to the traffic jams identified in the SDF. The travelling time for Boitekong and Phokeng commuters was between 46 and 60 minutes, while in the northern and southern suburbs it was between 16 and 30 minutes to their work places (RLM, 2010).

Perpetuation of past spatial inequality in and around the RLM as discussed above, must be understood within a threefold context:

**First, the lack of land ownership, particularly in key strategic nodal points by the local municipality – promoting spatial fragmentation, or what was referred to as ‘frog jump development’** (CSIR, 2015; Interviewee 4). There was disproportional land ownership between local government and other local entities such as mining companies and traditional authority in the RLM. Currently, a bulk of land in and around Rustenburg is owned either by three mining companies or the Royal Bafokeng Traditional Authority, while the local municipality owns far less than required in order to leverage opportunities as envisaged in the IDP and SDFP (Hendler and Wolfson, 2013). Consequently, the delays in the implementation and spatial restructuring of projects as envisaged in the IDP and SDF, could be ascribed to the municipality’s inability to have full control over land use management and spatial development – in simple terms, lack of land acquisition makes it difficult if not impossible for the municipality to release the much-needed land for development (CSIR, 2015; Rajak,
To some extent, land ownership, particularly by mining companies and the Royal Bafokeng Traditional Authority, seemed to have affected their relations with the municipality. For instance, the difference in opinion between the mining companies and local municipality led to non-participation of five local mining companies during the IDP public hearings in 2005. This being the case, despite claims made by the city mayor in 2014 that “the two parties have always had an extremely sound relationship” (Mudzuli, 2014:5). This incident (difference in opinion between mines and local municipality) probably prompted the municipality to take initiative through the office of the mayor to establish and adopt both the Stakeholder Engagement Strategy and the Mayoral Stakeholder Engagement Committee in the 2011/2012 financial year (Khonou, 2012).

To avoid similar incidents, it did not come as a surprise (two years later) to see local municipality reaching out to one of the key local stakeholders – The Royal Bafokeng Traditional Authority – through the signing of a memorandum of understanding in 2014 (Mudzuli, 2014). The overall aim of the memorandum of understanding was to commit the traditional authority to integrate its efforts to improve the socio-economic conditions in the Rustenburg region with those of the local municipality. The negative impact of the mining industry was also acknowledged in the SDF document, which mentioned the extent to which close proximity of some of mining operations to the Rustenburg city severely constrained spatial development, while at the same time restricted and limited the alternatives available for the expansion of the town.

Second, the failure by the local municipality to anticipate the scale of population growth and accommodation needs that normally comes with a booming in mining industry (Hendler and Wolfson, 2013).

Third, the lack of enforcement of bylaws by the local municipality (Bezuidenhout and Buhlungu, 2015). For instance, the lack of implementation of bylaws resulted into widespread illegal dumping in the city, thereby posing both health and environmental threats (Khonou, 2012).

The weaknesses discussed above do not mean that no intervention measures were put in place either by local government or the other two upper spheres of government (provincial and national) to redress the legacy of past spatial inequalities in Rustenburg. Worth noting is the continuation of these spatial disparities despite the promulgation of some of the most progressive legislative frameworks such as the Integrated Urban Development Framework (IUDF) and in 2015 the Spatial Planning and Land Use Management Act, Act 16 of 2013 (SPLUMA). Guided mainly by the principles of the IUDF regarding spatial transformation in a post-1994 South African city, the RLM also adopted two key strategic documents – the IDP and the SDF over a number of years. The latest versions being the 2016–2017 IDP (RLM, 2016a) and the revised 2010 SDF (RLM, 2010). Furthermore, some of the official documents by the municipality claimed that both the IDP and budget processes were people-driven and informed by the needs and priorities as identified by residents in their respective wards.
In a nutshell, it is appropriate for the report to conclude that as a platinum hub with its platinum booming and one of the fastest growing cities in South Africa, Rustenburg has (particularly from a spatial point of view) become a victim of its own economic success. Confirming this view to a large extent could be the rapid growth of informal settlements, although such mushrooming of informal settlements could to some extent be ascribed to a local municipality that was unable to anticipate the scale of population growth and accommodation needs that normally comes with a boom in the mining industry (Hendler and Wolfson, 2013).

7. **OVERVIEW OF THE RUSTENBURG SPATIAL DEVELOPMENT FRAMEWORK AND INTEGRATED DEVELOPMENT PLAN**

Driving the spatial transformation and related projects and programmes in the RLM are two key strategic planning documents – the SDF and IDP. For the purpose of the report, the focus was on the SDF document. Since its establishment in 1999, the first SDF document by the RLM was prepared in 2005. Since then, the municipality has embarked on a series of reviews, with the first one being undertaken in 2010 followed by the latest one in 2016/2017. To a large extent, the 2010 review process did not include the preparation of a completely new SDF, but rather a revision and update aimed at accommodating new trends, information and policies. Due to the lack of internal capacity, the compilation of the SDF in 2005 and the subsequent review process in 2010 were done through outsourcing of the services to a consultant firm named K2M Technologies (Pty) Ltd. Following increased internal capacity in the planning directorate over the years, the latest review process is now being done internally.

At the centre of SDF 2010 review document are several development priorities and objectives which include the following:

- Integrated spatial development supported by the required bulk infrastructure development.
- Accelerated and shared economic growth supported by creation of spatial economic opportunities.
- Sustainable use and management of natural resources.
- Integration of land use and transport development.
- Creation of sustainable settlements through access to appropriate housing and social amenities.
- Creation of opportunities for sustainable rural development.
- To develop a clear argument or approach for spatial development in the area of jurisdiction of the municipality.
- To develop a spatial logic which guides private sector investments.
- Ensure the social, economic and environmental sustainability of the area.
Establish priorities for public sector development and investment.

Closely linked with the development priorities and objectives mentioned above could be some of the key concepts contained in the SDF 2010 document. The SDF mentioned the following concepts: addressing spatial imbalances; promoting corridor development as part of the city’s hierarchy; promoting diversification of the local economy; land use management principles; densification, combating urban sprawl; and promoting infill development. Yet, there were threats that could negatively affect the realisation of these concepts such as shortage of land for new developments, particularly close to economic and social opportunities; insufficient quality and quantity of water and electricity (bulk infrastructure); a declining agricultural sector; and a lack of interest by the private sector to develop an inclusive local economy. For instance, to mitigate future risks associated with mining as a single dominant economy, both the SDF and IDP referred to the need for diversification of the local economy into sectors such as agriculture, manufacturing, tourism, information and communication technology, arts and culture, and energy.

The evidence shows that the 2010 SDF review does not exist in a vacuum and in isolation, but is instead anchored in various other local, provincial and national strategic planning documentation. Thus, the alignment of the SDF with other local, provincial and national strategic planning documents is clearly stated in the document. Through its four phases and six discrete tasks, the SDF document mentioned the following strategic planning documents: The National Spatial Development Perspective, the North West SDF, the Municipal Environmental Management Framework and the Municipal IDP.

However, despite a claim by the SDF 2010 review that informing its aims is the IDP’s development priorities and objectives, there is disjuncture between the two. This was also acknowledged, to some extent, by several interviewees. While both documents acknowledge the urgent need to diversify the local economy, the envisaged periods differ, with the SDF referring to 2020, while the IDP refers to the 2040 vision. Furthermore, unlike in the SDF, such commitment of making Rustenburg a vibrant, diversified and resilient post-industrialised economy probably in 2040, is guided and linked to what the IDP refers to as an ‘Integrated Master Plan’ which advocates for future land use and physical developments that create sustainable growth. While both documents acknowledge land shortage as one of the key threats to attainment of spatial transformation and integrated development, the difference is in terms of how this should be addressed – with the IDP making reference to two municipal strategic planning documents, namely: The Rustenburg Local Municipality Vacant Public Land Audit (2012) and The Rustenburg Local Municipality Land Requirements and Acquisition Framework (2012).

In both the SDF and IDP, the need to increase internal capacity is acknowledged as one of the key requirements for the attainment of the goals and objectives the municipality has set for itself. However, in mitigating backlogs in the provision of bulk
infrastructure and related capacity and skills issues, only the IDP clearly mentioned the Provincial Shared Services Model Approach that was announced by the Premier of the North West Province in one of his state of the province addresses (Reference). At the centre of this provincial strategic planning document was the intention to address issues of municipal capacity and required skills regarding delivery of quality services, good governance and clean administration through sound intergovernmental relations.

Other concepts used in the IDP document, but not included in the SDF, is the reference to commitment by the RLM to make Rustenburg a ‘World Class City’. Subsequent to the concept of ‘World Class City’, the IDP document further emphasises the quest by local municipality to become a ‘Smart City’, equipped with all the infrastructure of a modern city. To attain the above, the IDP emphasises concepts such as ‘redevelopment of city centre to ensure a global identity’. While the IDP refers to Rustenburg Rapid Transport and concepts such as ‘YaRona’, no such reference or mention is made in the SDF; this was also confirmed by interviewee (number). There is no mention or reference by the SDF to concepts such as ‘Smart City’ or ‘World Class City’ as is the case in the IDP. Other than the IDP, the SDF is also not aligned to the IUDF and SPLUMA principles. The non-compliance, particularly with SPLUMA, by the current SDF could be due to the formulation date (2005) and date for last review (2011) that both predate the promulgation of SPLUMA in 2015.

Apart from the disjuncture discussed above, particularly between the current SDF and IDP in the RLM, there are, however, common areas of weaknesses shared between the two. For instance, despite the economic significance of the N4 Platinum Corridor being acknowledged and emphasised in both the SDF, IDP and the in-depth interviews, there seems to be no evidence of concrete and tangible plans (both in the short and long term) on how exactly the local municipality intend to tap into the economic potential of this corridor. Confirming this further, could be both the researcher’s personal observations and the remarks by Interviewee 6 that “I must admit that, currently we do not have a clear plan about the N4 Platinum Corridor … at the moment, what you see along N4 freeway is only provision of housing (mainly) for mineworkers by the Royal Bafokeng Traditional Authority”.

Other than internal local strategic areas, further criticism of the SDF and IDP could be on the basis of their reference to external strategic areas such as the Gauteng cities – Tshwane and Johannesburg – and the foreign neighbouring countries of Botswana and Namibia. Similar to internal strategic areas, there seems to be no concrete plans in either of the two planning documents on how to tap into the economic potential of Gauteng and neighbouring countries of Botswana and Namibia as presented by the N4 Platinum Corridor. Further criticism of the SDF regarding the N4 Platinum Corridor, is that it made reference to its profound physical impact on the shape of urban development, including the creation of physical north–south barriers within the Rustenburg area and the flow of traffic, while no mention of how the municipality plans to utilise its economic or business potential to boost the local economy, is made in the document. Neither is such reference to the economic significance of the N4 being
mentioned anywhere in the current IDP. This being the case, despite the SDF setting one of its objectives as “improved connectivity with Gauteng City Region and surrounding municipalities and focus urban development along major public transportation routes to establish transport corridors”. Thus, other than being denied an opportunity to tap into the economic potential of the N4 Platinum Corridor, there are two further spatial implications of the housing development along this corridor for the local municipality, namely: First, the perpetuation of strategic direction of spatial development that is driven exclusively by entities other than the local municipality itself – in this case the entity being the Royal Bafokeng Traditional Authority as land owners (CSIR, 2015). Second, the perpetuation of housing development instead of integrated human settlement development as envisaged in the 2004 Breaking New Ground Policy.

8. HOUSING AND BASIC SERVICES

This section considers two main issues: First, changes in the housing landscape and second, the level of access to basic services in the RLM.

8.1 Changes in the housing landscape

Figure 4 shows the changing housing landscape of informal dwelling units in Rustenburg.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>% of informal structures (2016)</th>
<th>31.5</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>% of informal structures (2011)</td>
<td>29.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% of informal structures (2001)</td>
<td>40.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% of informal structures (1996)</td>
<td>37.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Stats SA (2016)

Figure 4: The changing housing landscape of informal dwelling units in Rustenburg: 1996, 2001, 2011 and 2016

From this figure, it is possible to make the following comments:

From a spatial perspective, the housing landscape in Rustenburg provides an interesting trend. Notwithstanding the strides made through state-funded low-income housing projects, it would seem appropriate to argue that the current housing landscape in the RLM continues to perpetuate spatial inequality and disintegration. Such spatial inequality and disintegration continues to manifest itself through the growing number of informal settlements. According to Stats SA (2016), about 31.5%
of households in Rustenburg are currently (2016) residing in informal structures. This was an increase from 29.8% in 2011. In real terms, Rustenburg has an estimated housing need of about 100 000 units and a backlog of about 60 000 houses (Stone, 2014). The majority of households living in informal settlements are currently in 39 informal settlements in and around the Rustenburg platinum mining belt (Interviewee 6).

There are three possible factors contributing to the growing number of households currently residing in informal structures, particularly informal settlements, namely the huge housing demand created by the influx of economic migrants seeking job opportunities in platinum mines; the lack of state-owned land and state resources to meet the growing needs for housing and services; and the tendency among the three main platinum mining companies to ignore or disregard the obligatory social labour plans and mining charter (Ojakorotu et al., 2015; Stone, 2014).

With the bulk of these informal settlements mushrooming in close proximity to platinum mines, it would seem appropriate to suggest that implementation of the IDPs and SDFs as municipal strategic planning documents continue to have little impact in addressing or correcting the long-standing challenge by the RLM to develop real urban planning around the platinum belt. Furthermore, rapid growth of uncontrolled informal settlements on the city’s outskirts have, to some extent, gone against one of the key SDF priorities which is to ensure that new residential developments are located within the urban edge and are guided by the availability of bulk services, social amenities, economic opportunities and public transport systems (Laldaparsad, Geyer and Du Plessis, 2013). It is probably not a coincidence to have a large concentration of informal settlements in close proximity to various local platinum mines than any area in Rustenburg. Thus, other than failure by government to curb the growing shortage of housing among unemployed and low-earning workers, the growing rate of informal settlements in the Rustenburg platinum mine belt should mainly be understood against the failure by mining companies to execute their social corporate responsibility of ensuring homeownership for mineworkers. While for some mining companies there is no evidence of any coordinated effort to complementing such decision with the provision of affordable low-income housing, especially for low-paid rock drillers, only one mining company (Impala Platinum) seem to have made a significant contribution towards the provision of affordable housing to its employees. Though its housing investment exceeding R2 billion, it contributed about 9 450 housing units for different categories of beneficiaries, ranging from dedensification of hostels, single quarters, homeownership, rental stock and upgrading projects (Khonou, 2012).

Unlike Impala Platinum, both Anglo American Platinum and Lonmin were to a large extent, criticised for their failure to properly and adequately invest in homeownership schemes. Subsequently, widespread scepticism of these homeownership schemes led most mineworkers to instead opt for living-out allowances, which in turn was not enough to afford either outright homeownership or decent rental, except to afford cheap rental in squalor conditions. One of the unintended consequences of the living-
out allowances was the increase in the number of low-earning mineworkers taking refuges in informal settlements surrounding their respective working places (Ojakorotu et al., 2015).

In a nutshell, platinum mining companies did not only fail to fulfil their promises and honour their social labour plans (Stone, 2014), but contributed to unplanned sprawl of informal settlements through paying living-out allowances, while building and transferring very few houses through their mineworkers’ homeownership schemes (Stone, 2014; Ojakorotu et al., 2015).

Although not enough, there were some efforts, both by mining companies and the state, to address the housing shortage in the city. For instance, in an attempt to address the housing shortage while redressing spatial inequality through housing provision, the local municipality used a relocation process of the informal settlers into a pilot project in the Seraleng area which is located about 15 km outside Rustenburg’s central business district to promote mixed housing development. Through such programme, the municipality planned to build 5 000 mixed housing units, catering for 3 200 low-income housing, 1 000 social housing and 800 medium to high-cost housing units in 2006 (Tshikotshi, 2009). It would seem that widespread lack of state-owned land is a historical phenomenon that continues to perpetuate relocation rather than in-situ upgrading in and around the Rustenburg area. Evidence of this are relocations of informal settlers from privately-owned land in Mbeki Sun, Plot 14 and Sunrise Park into Seraleng in 2006. Further evidence of a growing shortage of housing to accommodate the rapidly growing population of Rustenburg is violence associated with allocation of state subsidised low-income housing, especially among residents of informal settlements. Despite recent incidents of violence allegedly caused by forceful occupation of completed houses in the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) by non-qualifying residents in one of the Marikana informal settlements, such incidents date back to 2007 when a certain section of the Sondela community illegally occupied about 326 completed houses in Seraleng (Tshikotshi, 2009). Furthermore, there are few more settlement upgrading projects in the pipeline already. These would include the Bokamoso housing project with a target of 4 000 housing units, while the Boitekong 16 integrated housing development targets about 3 000 housing units (Moerane, 2016).

Despite failure by the local municipality to significantly impact on the growing number of informal settlements, particularly in and around Rustenburg, there has been a decrease in the number of poverty-stricken people from 49.03% in 2004 to 28.59% in 2014 (RLM, 2017:164).

### 8.2 Level of access to basic services

Following on the housing assessment in the previous section, the emphasis now shifts to an assessment of provision of three basic services: sanitation, water and electricity (see Table 1). It is important to note that, in terms of supply, RLM purchases bulk water from two main suppliers, namely Rand Water and Magalies Water Board (Calfucoy et al., 2009). For electricity supply, the municipality is in partnership with Eskom.

<table>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of households with flush toilet access</td>
<td>43.8</td>
<td>42.1</td>
<td>57.5</td>
<td>58.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of households with electricity access</td>
<td>50.5</td>
<td>71.6</td>
<td>83.0</td>
<td>83.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of households with indoor water access</td>
<td>35.7</td>
<td>21.2</td>
<td>35.8</td>
<td>28.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The following remarks could be made from Table 1:

Access to basic services should be understood within the context of the growing population and its demand for basic services and housing. With a growing population, as one of the direct results of the booming platinum industry in Rustenburg, it does not come as a surprise to have backlogs in almost all the three basic services shown in Table 1 above. Currently very few residents (28.5%) have access to indoor water provision. Another backlog is in the provision of flush toilets with only 58.7% of the residents having access, while access to electricity stands at 83.8%. With regard to access to toilets or sanitation, evidence from the 2014 figures show that about 23.2% households use pit toilets; 12% are using ventilation improved pit latrines, while about 6% is without any means of sanitation or toilet facility. Contributing to the current backlogs could be a number of factors. Other than the growing population and related demand for services, internal capacity – both in terms of finances and human resources – remains a challenge.

Evidence from literature and municipality’s reports indicates that between 2013 and 2014 in particular, the local municipality had a high rate of vacant positions in the department responsible for provision of water and wastewater services as well as the department responsible for solid waste services, with about 155 and 74 posts remaining vacant over the same period, respectively (Cilliers, 2015). Furthermore, the problem might have been compounded by the absence of a water services delivery plan for the RLM between 2010 and 2014. These factors, coupled by a possible challenge of a growing culture of non-payment of municipal services and poor infrastructure, may to a large extent be held responsible for the more than 30% unaccounted for water loss between the 2007/2008 and 2011/2012 financial years (Calfucoy et al., 2009; Khonou, 2012) and the subsequent increase of 46% water losses in 2015 (Mutema, 2015). Evidence indicates that due to the growing culture of non-payment, the municipal debt in uncollected rates and taxes increased from R346 million in 2004 (Thompson, 2004), R1.3 billion in 2011 (Star, 2011), R2.4 billion in 2015 (Mutema, 2015) and almost R3 billion in 2017 (Interviewee 6). To some extent, contributing to non-payment of services is more of a culture than a real problem of affordability. Confirming this, could be the amount of R6.3 million that was owed by municipal employees (including councillors and officials) in 2015 (Mutema, 2015). Making such culture to thrive could be a lack of internal capacity of the municipal finance department to institute strict financial control measures. This is confirmed by the comments of the provincial member of the Executive Council, Phene Vilakazi:
“Credit committees in municipalities do not meet any more or simply do not exist any longer” (Thompson, 2004).

Another area where the local municipality still needs to do some hard work is the provision of flush toilets, with the current figure showing an access rate of only 58.7%. Although not adequate, there seems to be a slight improvement from the previous figure of 35 854 households who were forced to use pit latrine toilets in 2010 (IMIESA, 2010). While the growing backlogs could mainly be attributed to rapid urbanisation and population growth that put pressure on the limited financial and infrastructure resources, it would seem that the lack of internal capacity on financial management has contributed as well. For instance, in the 2014/15 financial year, the local municipality failed to spend about R434 million of conditional grant money allocated for capital expenditure (Sithole, 2016). In a nutshell, the backlogs in services provision across sectors in the municipality could in the main be attributed to high vacancy rate, with the 2015/2016 annual report showing a total figure of 2 120 vacancies which translates into a 53.5% vacancy rate for the municipality (RLM, 2016b).

9. **Assessment of the Spatial Development Framework and Integrated Development Plan in Rustenburg**

The focus now shifts to the analysis of views expressed by different senior municipal officials and independent local town planners during in-depth interviews.

Before an analysis of the various views of interviewees can be done, it is appropriate to first provide a brief background on the current organisational structure in the municipality’s planning directorate. For projects and programmes related in one way or the other to spatial issues, there are two main key strategic planning documents – the SDF and the IDP. The close relationship between these two strategic planning documents is confirmed both by the interviews with senior officials responsible for planning and implementation of the SDF (Interviewees 3 and 4) and the IDP (Interviewee 6) and a claim in the current SDF 2010 Review informing its aims is the IDPs development priorities and objectives (RLM, 2010). However, despite being complementary to each other, there is currently two separate directorates responsible for the implementation of these two planning tools. For the SDF and its implementation, the municipality has established a directorate called Planning and Human Settlements, while the directorate for the IDP and its implementation is Strategy and Planning in the office of the municipal manager. In terms of internal capacity, there are currently five personnel responsible for the implementation of the IDP and other related programmes. For the implementation of the SDF and other related programmes, there are five professional town planners. Although currently not operational, there is a geographic information system component attached to the Planning and Human Settlements Directorate.

With the focus of the report being mainly on the formulation and implementation of the SDF for the municipality, it is also appropriate to make the following observations
regarding its formulation and status. As widely acknowledged by most of the interviewees, the lack of internal capacity led to the compilation of the SDF in 2005 and the subsequent review process in 2010 being done through outsourcing of the services to a consultant firm named K2M Technologies (Pty) Ltd (Interviewees 3 and 8). Following the increased internal capacity in the Planning Directorate over the years, the current review process is now being done internally (Interviewee 4). To a large extent, the interviews with both municipal officials and independent local town planners seemed to have affirmed spatial challenges expressed both in the municipal official documents/reports and the academic writings discussed above. The following are some of the key spatial transformation issues raised as part of the diagnosis by the interviewees during interviews:

While acknowledging commitment by the municipality to spatially transform the city, there was a general consensus among all interviewees that more still needs to be done to redress past spatial inequalities. Among common issues through which spatial inequalities continue to manifest in the city, the following were raised by most interviewees: lack of densification and mixed land use; lack of integrated human settlements; long distance travelled daily by commuters, due to the lack of an integrated public transport system; and spatially fragmented development.

Perpetuating these spatial challenges are a number of socio-economic and administrative factors. Some of the possible factors responsible for the continuation of spatial disintegration in the Rustenburg city include the following:

First, the widespread lack of state-owned land, especially in key strategic areas that are close to economic opportunities. Despite reference to the concept of ‘enforcing urban edge’ with the intent to prevent uncontrolled urban sprawl and protecting valuable agricultural land by the IDP, the interviews with some informants revealed otherwise. Expressing their views on the extent to which land availability remains a hindrance towards realisation of a spatially and economically integrated city, one official said: “A bulk of land in most of strategic locations and growth points in the city is owned either by mines or traditional authority … and example be the land along N4 Corridor which is owned by the traditional authority” (Interviewees 1 and 7). Consequently, lack of state-owned land has made it difficult for the municipality to maintain full control over some of development initiatives taking place within and outside the urban edge. For example, due to private ownership of land, particularly by the business community within the urban edge, there were instances where some developments were imposed and dictated upon municipality by private developers. This is confirmed by the following remarks: “There are instances where a business will establish itself without prior approval by the municipality and then later approach us with a request for provision of bulk infrastructure … because we need money, we usually end up giving post-development approval” (Interviewees 1 and 2).

With regard to uncontrolled development happening on private land outside the urban edge, various interviewees gave mushrooming of informal settlements on land owned
by mining companies as one of such challenges. According to several interviewees, growth of informal settlements is not only a social ill but a phenomenon that further perpetuates spatial disintegration where the poor masses continue to live and reside on the periphery far from economic opportunities. Expressing some of the limitations faced by the municipality when it comes to such development, one interviewee mentioned that “[f]or most of the current 19 informal settlements in the city, municipality is unable to provide any basic services infrastructure since they are on the land owned by mines … if we were to do anything, we will first have to engage the mines about the land” (Interviewee 2).

As a contributing factor towards current spatial disintegration, lack of state-owned land has also been blamed for the continuation of uncoordinated and unintegrated development, which in turn promotes what some municipal officials referred to as ‘frog jump development’ in and around the city (Interviewee 3).

Second, a twofold lack of collaborative planning among key stakeholders. On the one hand, there is widespread acknowledgement by most municipal officials that there is a tendency among various municipal directorates to work in silos. This was even evident when both the current IDP and SDF documents were formulated. Confirming the lack of a collaborative approach towards planning in the municipality, Interviewee 1 mentioned that instead of collaborative and collective planning, “We most of the time work in silos as different departments in the municipality … is like we are in competition with each other, planning pushing their own programme here while infrastructure pushes their own there” (Interviewee 2). Lack of collaborative planning is also evident between the municipality and external stakeholders such as mining companies and the Royal Bafokeng Traditional Authority. This was confirmed by Interviewee 6: “Here and there we do sometimes experience some misunderstanding between ourselves (municipality) and our local mines and traditional authorities on where and how certain development planning and projects must unfold.”

Third, the responsibility for the current state of spatial disintegration could be the lack of enforcement of by-laws and internal capacity. Both municipal officials and independent local town planners are of the view that lack of internal capacity could have been responsible both for the outsourcing of the first version of the SDF in 2005 and the current non-operation of the municipal geographic information system sub-directorate (Interviewee 4). Lack of internal capacity has also been cited as a possible reason why the provision of bulk infrastructure, in particular, remained one of the threats to expansion of development initiatives both by the public and private sectors in the city. It was the view of several interviewees that the current system of five-year political administration which encourages administrative instability due to high staff turnover every five years, affects not only the internal capacity, but also retaining skilled personnel and continuity of projects.

Other than the lack of internal capacity, compounding provision of bulk infrastructure for new developments is the current state of municipal cash flow. According to
Interviewee 7: "It is difficult for the municipality to implement strategic planning tools such as IDP and SDF that are intended to respond to socio-economic and spatial needs of city residents when there is no sound cash flow … we are now owed about R3 billion in rates and services.” Furthermore, Interviewee 1 also confirmed that other than lack of state-owned land, responsible for some of uncontrolled development especially within the urban edge, could be the lack of enforcement of by-laws by the municipality.

Fourth, imposition of projects with little or no regard for local SDF and IDP plans, particularly by some of the national departments, remaine one of the key challenges and possible contributors to lack of integrated spatial development in the city. For instance, the reason why residents of a national flagship housing project by the National Department of Human Settlements in the Marikana area were still living in housing units without basic infrastructure such as sanitation and water, is because “[t]here was no proper consultation of the local municipality by the National Department of Human Settlements during project planning and implementation … the whole project was just parachuted into our area” (Interviewee 2).

Fifth, lack of a concrete plan of action in implementing strategic objectives, both of the SDF and IDP. While almost all interviewees acknowledged the urgent need for diversification of the local economy and densification and mixed land use in the city, there was little evidence to show in terms of an action plan and current development initiatives. Some municipal officials conceded that, despite being emphasised both in the SDF and IDP as one of the key strategic areas for future densification, mixed land use and diversification of the local economy, almost nothing has been done by the municipality to tap into the economic potential of the N4 Platinum Corridor. Currently there are no concrete plans both for the short to medium-term and long-term future use of the corridor by the local municipality. Consequently, failure by the municipality to develop feasible action plans for the corridor has led to the private sector (particularly mining) in partnership with the Royal Bafokeng Traditional Authority initiating housing, instead of integrated human settlements development along the N4 Platinum Corridor to mostly accommodate mineworkers. With only housing development taking place along the N4 Corridor, that has, to some extent, exposed the failure by the municipality to work in partnership both with the Royal Bafokeng Traditional Authority and the mining industry to attract business investment for the much-needed diversification of local economy and mixed land use and densification in strategic locations. Conceding to such a failure by the municipality, Interviewee 1 mentioned: “I do not think we have a clear plan on how to incentivise business investment in areas such as N4 Corridor … consequently, we now have a mining town which attract unskilled and homeless economic migrants instead of business investors.” (Interview Number One, 2017; Interview Number Seven, 2017). However, there is a process currently under way to finalise what officials referred to as the municipality’s Development Incentive Policy. As for lack of progress in promoting densification as one of the objectives of the SDF, Interviewee 7 indicated that “despite widespread lack of state-owned land, the city and
municipality are busy going wide instead of high rise buildings … with the tallest building in the whole city being our municipal building with its eight floors”.

10. CONCLUSION

From the discussion and analysis above, it is possible for the report to make the following concluding remarks:

Both an analysis of existing literature, official reports and documentation of the municipality (including the SDF and IDP) and the views expressed by interviewees, provided a conclusive diagnosis of the persistence of several spatial inequalities in the city of Rustenburg. Despite disjuncture between the IDP and SDF, and evidence of misdiagnosis coupled with shallow details on certain spatial transformation issues identified in the SDF, most of the interviewees seemed to have demonstrated an adequate understanding of spatial transformation issues currently facing the city. In their diagnosis, interviewees confirmed how spatial disintegration manifested itself through a growing number of informal settlements, especially on the platinum mine belt; lack of racial integration perpetuated particularly by the growing development of gated communities or enclaves in former white suburbs; lack of densification and mixed land use, especially in key strategic areas such as the N4 Platinum Corridor; lack of an integrated public transport system to reduce both travelling cost and distance between places of work and residence, particularly for residents in former black township areas.

Some of the key contributing factors to the current spatial disintegration include the following:

- Lack of sound collaborative project planning by the municipality and other key external stakeholders such as mining companies and the Royal Bafokeng Traditional Authority.
- Lack of sound internal collaborative planning among various municipal directorates/departments.
- Lack of sound intergovernmental relations across the three spheres of government.
- Lack of internal capacity in the municipality.
- Wide spread lack of state-owned land.
- Failure by the municipality to formulate and implement a concrete plan of action to tap into the socio-economic potential of the N4 Platinum Corridor.
- Failure by the municipality to formulate and implement a plan of action to incentivise business investment in strategic areas such as the N4 Corridor.


Cilliers, C. 2015. *A critical analysis of local municipal capacity towards fulfilling their basic municipal services mandate*. Unpublished mini-dissertation for Master’s degree, North-West University, Potchefstroom. [http://hdl.handle.net/10394/17991](http://hdl.handle.net/10394/17991)


Other reports put this in a table in the report and not in the reference list


Interviewee 5. 2017. In-depth interview with municipal official.


