Use of orthophotos and GIS in spatio-temporal assessment of land use change: a case of Pietermaritzburg city, KwaZulu-Natal

by

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Submitted in partial fulfilment of the academic requirements for the degree of Master of Environment and Development (Land Information Management) in the Centre of Environment, Agriculture and Development School of Environmental Sciences University of KwaZulu-Natal Pietermaritzburg 2012
Declaration

This document describes work undertaken as part of a programme of study at the Centre of Environment, Agriculture and Development (CEAD), University of KwaZulu-Natal, Pietermaritzburg, KwaZulu-Natal. It represents the original work of the author and any work taken from other authors is duly acknowledged within the text and references list.

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ABSTRACT

Land use and land cover (LULC) is important in understanding the interactions of human activities with the environment. In order to manage the often highly dynamic urban landscapes, it is important to map different themes from time to time. This study made use of Geographical Information System and aerial photographs to determine LULC transformation in the eastern suburbs of Pietermaritzburg in KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa. Land use land cover maps for the eastern suburbs (Copesville, Eastwood, Raisethorpe and Willowton) for the years 1989 to 2009 were generated and transformations based on twelve LULCs determined. Results in this study showed that the most significant increase were in residential (formal and informal) and industrial LULCs while the most significant decrease were recorded in the cultivated and open LULC. Generally, results in this study further show that urban LULC attributed to human influx has been at the expense of internal open green spaces and peripheral cultivated and uncultivated lands. The study concludes that aerial photographs in concert with GIS are valuable tools in mapping rapidly changing urban landscapes.
Acknowledgements

This research would not have been possible without the help and support of the following people:

My foremost complements in this dissertation go to my supervisor Dr John Odindi for the supervision and guidance. Your understanding and encouragement have brought me this far.

My friend Victor Bangamwabo for the technical support and encouragement rendered throughout the study period, without him this work would not have been possible.

To my family and brother Jairos, thank you for challenging and encouraging me to finish this dissertation.

To Hilde Hsjoset, your sacrificial effort was not a waste. Thank you very much for your immense support.
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Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1 Background

Prediction of urban growth is often based on the dynamic land use/cover (LULC) pattern vis-avis selected socio-economic and environmental factors. Typically, land use change in urban landscapes is a reflection of population growth and socio-economic development. Consequently, the analysis of spatial-temporal patterns for LULC provides an objective basis for understanding the relationships between urban growth and related economic, population and environmental factors (Irwin and Geoghegan, 2001).

The term “Land cover” was originally restricted to surface vegetation types like forests and grass cover (Meyer 1995). However, usage of this term has been subsequently broadened to include among others physical structures, soil types, biodiversity, surface and ground water (Meyer, 1995: 25). Meyer and Turner (1996) further note that land cover includes the quality and type of surface vegetation, water and earth materials (Meyer and Turner, 1996:5). According to Moser (1996:247) “the term originally referred to the type of vegetation that covered the land surface, but has been broadened subsequently to include human structures, such as buildings or pavement, and other physical and environmental aspects like soils, biodiversity and ground water”. The term “Land use” on the other hand is described by Turner et al (1995:20) as the manner in which the biophysical attributes of the land is manipulated and the intent underlying that manipulation. Meyer (1995:25) states that land use refers to “the use of the land by humans, usually with emphasis on the functional role of land in economic activities”. Whereas economics is a major factor in defining land use Campbell (2007) and Mather (1986) note that physical, social, legal and political factors may determine the definition of a given land use type.

According to (Opeyemi, 2008), land use affects land cover and changes in land cover affects land use. Generally, a change in either does not necessarily mean degradation (Opeyemi, 2008).
However, Riebsame et al (1994) note that generation of reliable LULC maps is critical in managing urban landscape as shifting land use patterns are commonly driven by a variety of social causes result in land cover changes that affects biodiversity, water and many environmental variables.

In the old political dispensation, the city of Pietermaritzburg, like any other city in South Africa was structured on apartheid racial segregation and restricted movement into urban areas. However after the end of the previous political dispensation in 1994 and the new regime that allowed free movement into urban areas, the city witnessed unprecedented growth of settlement (Wood, 2000). An audit done in February 1997 by the city’s planning unit for instance showed that informal settlements within the city grew by a 7% monthly average in the early years of South Africa’s democratisation (Wood, 2000). Consequently, the city of Pietermaritzburg offer an ideal setting to test the feasibility of multi-temporal aerial photographs in LULC mapping.

Traditionally, combinations of cartographic techniques, GIS, remote Sensing and aerial photographs have been extensively used to assess LULC changes in urban landscapes (Ghaffar, 2005, Wentz et al, 2006; Hara et al, 2005). Whereas aerial photographs have previously been used as ancillary data to validate the accuracy of land cover maps generated from remotely sensed satellite imagery (Mas, 2003; Rembold et al, 2000; Wentz et al, 2006; Deguchi and Sugio, 1994). Deguchi and Sugio (1994) and Wentz et al (2006) note that aerial photographs alone can be used to generate reliable LULC maps in urban environments.

Urban LULC is commonly attributed to an increase in population (Wood, 2000). Such increase often lead to pressure on non-urban lands surrounding the city and may lead to among others, decrease in peripheral agricultural productivity, reduction in urban environmental quality and pressure on existing social and physical services (Wood, 2000). According to Ramesh (1989), these concerns have increased the relevance of LULC maps and data formats that can be used to generate such LULCs.
As has been previously mentioned, previous studies seem to be biased towards the use of Remote Sensing and GIS. However, due to their relative low cost, widespread availability and high spatial resolution, multi-temporal aerial photographs have great potential in mapping urban landscapes often characterised by a complex mosaic of LULC types (Ramesh 1989). Aerial photographs are particularly useful in determining historical LULC changes as they pre-date other LULC data sources like satellite imagery (Ramesh 1989; Rembold, 2000). In third world countries, aerial photographs can be an ideal data source for generating LULC maps as the availability and cost of satellite data are often prohibitive (Ramesh, 1989).

1.2 Research Problem

Pursuit of this research is based on two main problems; firstly, existing literature and land cover maps are often based on a combination of aerial photographs, GIS and remote sensing. Very few studies on existing LULC maps for urban landscapes are solely based on aerial photographs. Secondly, the new political dispensation in South Africa has seen significant changes in urban landscapes that have led to socio-economic challenges. Dealing with these challenges requires cheap and up to date LULC maps for planning and optimisation of urban spaces. Based on post 1994 eastern Pietermaritzburg settlement trends, up to date LULC will form a valuable basis for the management of the city’s LULC and associated challenges

1.3 Research objectives

1.3.1 The objective of the study

The main objective of this research was to demonstrate the potential of aerial photographs and GIS in mapping LULC trends of the eastern suburbs of the city of Pietermaritzburg 1989 and 2009.
1.3.2 Specific research objectives

1. To use aerial photographs to map and analyse spatio-temporal extents within the study area from 1989 to 2009.

2. To determine the reasons for LULC in the eastern suburbs of Pietermaritzburg city between 1989 and 2009.

3. Determine how the growth in the eastern parts of the city of Pietermaritzburg has affected the different land cover types in the study area.

1.3.3 Significance of the research

It is hoped that this study will augment to the existing literature on mapping LULCs and prediction using GIS and aerial photographs. Such study is also critical for the city’s landscape planning and mitigation of un-desired urban trends.

1.4 Research delimitation

Firstly, whereas it is acknowledged that there was LULCs prior to 1989; this research was restricted to the formal zoning of Pietermaritzburg after 1989. Secondly, whereas post 2009 aerial could have been valuable in the analysis of LULC, challenges in accessing post 2009 limited the study to the mentioned time span.

1.5 Summary

In this chapter, the background of the study, the research problem and the objectives have been highlighted. Furthermore research significance has also been mentioned. The next chapter provides a detailed review of literature on the issues under investigation.
Chapter 2

Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

Before an analysis of spatial temporal dynamics, it is important to review a historical background, concepts and related literature on land use land cover changes (LULC) using Geographical Information Technologies. Consequently, this chapter reviews literature on existing relevant literature on LULC changes using Geographic Information Systems (GIS) and aerial photographs. The chapter also highlights the implication of LULC within urban landscapes.

2.2 Urbanisation; the concept

There are multiple definitions of term “urbanisation”. Pacione (2001: 67) defines urbanisation as an “increase in the proportion of the total population that lives in urban areas”. According to Pacione (2001), urbanisation is a contemporary and ongoing process. To further understand the ‘urban’ concept, Pacione (2005:28) distinguishes between “what is an urban place” and “what is urban”. The definition is based on an urban area as a physical entity and an urban area as a place with a unique physical and social quality of life. Based on entity, four methods are used to define urban places. These are population size, economic base, administrative criteria and functional definitions. Since urban places are generally larger than rural places, it is often common to define a transition between rural to urban along the population size continuums. Urban areas can also be identified by their economic base. In some countries population size is combined with other subjective criteria to define an urban place. In India for instance, the definition of an urban area is based on over a 75% of the adult male that is employed in non-agricultural work. On the other hand, Pacione (2005) notes that an urban area can be defined based on lifestyle lead by people in a community. According to Pacione (2005), whereas urban areas exist as physical objects, they are often not perceived by inhabitants as structured by objects, consequently, Pacione (2005)
notes that it is reasonable to think of a city as having both an objective physical structure and a subjective or cognitive structure. Whereas the origin of urban centres may be for defence, trade, political or religious reasons (Harvey, 1996); economic forces often reinforce the original impetus. Commonly, urban growth is associated with industrialisation which induces intensive use of buildings and changes in their use which in turn influence outward expansion and outward LULC.

2.3 Geographic Information Systems

Currently, there is a wide array of definitions for Geographic Information Systems (GIS). However, depending on its application; the existing definitions revolve around technology, application or organizational aspects (Chou, 1996). Whereas dynamic technology makes defining GIS challenging, most current definitions describe GIS as an organised collection of computer hardware, software, geographic data and personnel designed to efficiently capture, store update, manipulate, analyse and display all forms of geographically referenced information (Chou, 1996; Goodchild, 1992; Green et al (1994). In virtually all definitions, two common features emerge; GIS is a system which deals with geographical information linked to the earth’s surface and people are a critical component in a GIS system (Walford, 1999).

2.4 Land Use Land Cover (LULC)

The term land cover refers to the “physical and biological cover of the surface of the earth, including water, vegetation, bare soil or artificial structure” (Dimitrakopoulos et al, 2010:1). These include natural and man-made features that cover the earth’s immediate surface (Thompson, 1996, Yesserie, 2006). Land use on the other hand can be defined in terms of order of human activities on the natural environment such as agriculture, forestry and physical constructions. It refers to the human activities that are associated with a specific land unit that include utilisation, impacts or management practices (Thompson, 1996). According to Thompson (1996) these two concepts are closely related but are not the same (Thompson 1996).
2.5 Aerial photography and interpretation

Aerial photographs are described by Lo (1976) as descriptive models of reality that can be used to deduct geographic themes. Historically, aerial photography interpretation (API) has been the basis for mapping LULC (Wentz et al, 2006). Interpretation of aerial photos focuses on extraction of spatial qualitative and to a limited extent quantitative data (Estes, 2001). The major advantage of using aerial photography in urban LULC mapping is the high interpretation accuracy that can be achieved in complex landscapes (Cowen and Jensen, 1998). Typically, effective uses of aerial photographs for LULC are restricted to those taken at nadir (Bretts et al, 2006). There are a number of shortcoming in using aerial photographs, the further an object is from nadir, the more distorted the feature is on the ground. Interpreting aerial photographs is often costly, time consuming and subject to interpretation errors (Mumby et al 1999 cited in Wentz et al, 2006). Furthermore, aerial photographs are often not generated frequently, consequently, generating up to date LULC maps might be difficult.

According to Lo (1976) and Estes (2001), there are three distinct stages of photo-interpretation. Generation and examination aims at gaining a general impression of what is shown on the aerial photograph. This stage involves selectively picking out objects or elements from the image to get a holistic view of the landscape. Identification stage aims at picking out landscape geographic features using characteristics like pattern, shape, tone, texture, shadow, associated features, and size (Lo, 1976; Heyde, 1998). Classification involves assigning geographic features and objects that have been recognised and identified into their appropriate classes as defined by the author (Cann, 1997). Like other types of remotely sensed data sets, aerial photographs taken from two or more dates are useful in determining gains and expected change (Wentz et al, 2006).
2.6 Use of aerial photographs; global examples

A number of studies have made use of aerial photographs in landscape delineation. Due to shortage of relevant satellite imagery of the study area, often common in developing countries, Reimbold et al (2000) used aerial photographs and field survey to determine LULC in Ziwa-shala lake basin in Ethiopia. Wentz et al (2006) on the other hand compared methods used to map LULC in an arid urban environment of Phoenix metropolitan area in USA using aerial photography interpretation (API), satellite imagery and on the ground observations (OTG) (Wentz et al, 2006). They concluded that the quality of classes based on API match those obtained from the other two methods. They further noted that differences in levels of accuracy using the three methods arise from positional errors, incorrect ground observations, or discrepancies between the sizes of sampling unit in the ground versus classes generated.

Hara et al (2005) used aerial photographs to determine transformation on the urban fringe of Bangkok, Thailand, while Deguchi and Sugio (1994) cited by Wentz et al (2006) compared aerial photography and a variety of satellite datasets for impervious areas and the density of urbanized area of Wake County in the state of North Carolina, USA. The two studies concluded that both aerial photography and satellite data returned results of similar accuracy. Ventura and Harris (1994) compared the performance of standard classification techniques using manual interpretation for both aerial photography and satellite data for Beaverdam, Wisconsin, USA and concluded that aerial photographs provide the higher classification accuracy in a number of LULC categories.

Robbins (1997) investigated temporal change in sea grass in Tampa Bay on Gulf coast of Florida, USA. The verification of polygon categories used in this study was conducted by sampling and ground truthing LULC types. The maps were geo-referenced and overlaid on a base map of the Tampa Bay shoreline. Comparison of total sea grass cover was made between dates by constructing a difference map using ARC/INFO GIS software.
Whereas some of the examples given above may not have been specifically carried out in urban areas, approaches and techniques used in these studies are commonly adopted and applied in urban LULC analysis.

2.7 Land use and land cover change analysis techniques

A number of studies have attempted to define change detection. According to Singh (1998) change detection is a process of identifying differences in the state of an object or phenomenon by observing it at different time periods. Huang and Hsiao (2000) define change detection as the comparison and contrast of multi temporal images of the same geographical area. This is achieved by using image-handling techniques to analyse the changed areas of the landscape over different time periods. Change detection is essential for the monitoring of the earth’s natural resources through the analysis of the spatial distribution of the associated population. Aspects of change detection important for monitoring natural or man-mad resources are: detecting changes that have happened, identifying the nature of the change, measuring the magnitude of the change, and assessing the spatial pattern of the change (Macleod and Congalton, 1998). Change detection is useful for a wide range of applications, it is used in among others land use analysis, monitoring cultivation patterns, urban growth, natural disaster, environmental monitoring (Bottomely, 1998; Inglis-Smith, 2006).

Until recently, the collection and compilation of spatial data was restricted to hard copy maps. As aforementioned, techniques based on hard copy maps is costly and time-consuming. The use of aerial photos in concert with GIS has made it easier to undertake LULC mapping. Large sets of data can be processed into digital forms to provide rapid and consistent measurement of change and trends. Integration of aerial photographs into GIS to monitor and analyse LULC has proved a popular and efficient method in urban landscapes (Iwao, 1998; Read et al, 2002; Saipothog et al, 2000). This has mainly been possible because GIS provides an array of spatial tools and techniques that can be used to continuously monitor and analyse LULC trends quickly, accurately and cost effectively.
A range of change detection techniques have been developed over the years. Most of the existing detection techniques are restricted to satellite multispectral satellite imagery characterised by representative object pixels. These techniques include among others Normalized Difference Vegetation Index (NDVI), Principal Component Analysis (PCA), Image Rationing, Maximum Posterior Probability (MAP), and Post Classification Comparison (PCC), Direct Multi-date Classification (DMC) (Mohamed, 2003; Ernani and Gabriels, 2006). Whereas these classification techniques are mainly applicable to satellite imagery characterised by bands and pixels, techniques based on post classification comparisons for instance are applicable in analysing aerial photographs and have been widely adopted in aerial photograph LULC mapping (Asubonteng, 2007). Typically, Post Classification Comparison technique classifies two dates separately and compares two post classes (Ernani and Gabriels, 2006). The technique provides detailed “from-to” change class information that is essential for landscape monitoring (Ernani and Gabriels, 2006). Whereas use of the technique makes use of multi-date imagery characterised by image bands and pixels, analysis of aerial photographs using this technique requires that LULC types are classified by digitizing and changes determined by comparing different dates. To generate reliable urban LULC types, this technique requires knowledge, expertise and time (Lu et al, 2004).

2.8  Spatial referencing and validation in LULC analysis

Geographic location is the element that distinguishes geographic information from all other types of studies, consequently, methods for specifying location on the earth’s surface are important in creating useful geographic information (Longley et al, 2005). Location is the basis for many of the advantages of GIS i.e. the ability to map and integrate multiple information that belong to the same place. Without location, data of an area is regarded to be non-spatial and would have no value within GIS (Longley et al, 2005).

Ground referencing, also referred to as geo-referencing are a prerequisite to LULC. Geo-referencing or geo-rectification is the process where images are rectified to fit into world map coordinates and related to known spatial points (ER Mapper, 1998). This process distinguishes
geographic information from all other types of information (Longley et al, 2005). Rochinia and Di Rita (2005) describe geo-rectification as a process which gives a precise geographical location to ground objects. Georectification methods vary from complex ortho-rectification methods to polynomial methods. Generally, ortho-rectification methods are compatible with GIS and are therefore ideal for referencing data to use for map production and geographical analysis in GIS (Okeke and Karniel, 2006; Cots-Folch et al, 2007). However, despite its ability to yield high accuracy, this method is not widely used because it is costly and highly technical (Hughes et al, 2006).

Polynomial techniques on the other hand are widely used. The method makes use of matching control points on the target image to identify locations on reference data. Polynomial transformation algorithms that are commonly used range from the simpler first, second and third-order polynomials to the more curvilinear mathematical transformation algorithms such as the spline transformation commonly known as ‘rubbersheeting’ (ESRI 2007, Hughes et al, 2006). In the geo-rectification process, it is critical to take cognisance of the various factors that influence the overall geo-rectification accuracy. These include among others the number of Ground Control Points (GCPs) used, topography of the environment in focus, the map scale (i.e. global and local scales) used and the complexity of mathematical transformation algorithms (Hughes et al, 2006; Yanalak et al, 2005). Validation of the LULC types is often considered a final critical process in any mapping process. A common method employed to assess errors is by carrying out field work and verifying points on the ground using a Global Positioning System (GPS) and other ancillary data (Wentz et al, 2006; Misakova, 2006).

2.9 Land use and land cover change: a social and environmental perspective

Whereas LULC maps form a critical basis for decision making, their full value can be realised if related to physical, social and environmental perspectives (Erle and Pontius, 2007). Humans have modified land to obtain food and other essentials for thousands of years. Currently, the extent and intensities of LULC is greater than ever in human history (Yesserie, 2006). This has caused unprecedented change in ecosystems and environmental processes at local, regional and
global scales (Yesserie, 2006). Currently, LULC encompasses the greatest environmental concerns of the human population, including climate change, biodiversity depletion and pollution of water, soil and air. Consequently, monitoring and mitigating unsustainable land use practices has become a major priority of researchers and policy makers. (Erle and Pontuis, 2007; Verburg et al, 1999).

2.10 Urbanization and LULC: a South African context

Before determining existing LULC, it is important to contextualise LULC. Typically, population data as timelines of historical events (and related information) can be used to explain the mapped changes (USGS, 2004). For instance population increase suggest economic growth and the availability of jobs in an area while population declines suggest a decline in local economy (USGS, 2004), these can be determined by event time lines.

In South African ‘apartheid city’, was established by the Group Areas Act of 1950 (Tony et al, 2002). Urban structures and life during this period was controlled by legislation segregating racial groups. During this era land zoning in urban areas was divided according to race. The introduction of the Group Areas Act of 1950 and 1966 and the 1953 Reservation of Separate Amenities Act extended the principle of racial segregation to produce the urban structure of the apartheid city designed to minimise interracial contact (Pacione, 2005). The apartheid city was characterised by racially divided areas and a lack of services, infrastructure and development in the poor “black” townships. Local governance was minimal and imposed without democratic representation. Access to adequate housing, land, water, electricity, transportation and other urban services was limited for the majority of the population. In 1991 two legislative pillars of apartheid, the Group Areas Act (1950) and the Natives Land Act (1913) were repealed as part of a reform strategy in the face of intensifying “struggle”. This, among others, was a key aspect of negotiations between the apartheid government and the African National Congress (ANC). During the negotiation process the local Government Transition Act was passed in 1993 and approved by multiparty negotiating forum. This set out the phases of a transition process for local government and became a significant milestone in South African urban development (Wood, 1999).
Despite the collapse of the apartheid regime in 1994, the legacy of almost half a century of apartheid urban policy remains a strong influence on urban form and zoning in South Africa. Prior to 1994 the role of local authorities was limited to controlling technical processes and land use by regulations and restrictions. Municipal planning benefited privileged groups and areas and environmental sustainability and meaningful public participation were neglected. As such, the form of the future post-apartheid city in South Africa is constrained by the social and physical structure created under apartheid. Although some signs of change is evident in the emergence of inner-city ‘grey areas’, white areas of the apartheid city in which some non-whites have taken up residence still reflect the old system (Pacione, 2005).

2.11 The Legislation governing land use planning in South Africa

A number of legislations govern land use planning in South Africa and directly influence LULC. This legislation can be found at local, regional and national. They include among others:

-Townships and Town Planning Ordinance Act (TTPOA)
-The Planning and Development Programme Act (PDA)
-The Development Facilitation Act (DFA)
-The Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP), and
-Land Agenda 21 (LA21).

2.11.1 The Townships and Town Planning Ordinance (Act 15 of 1986)

This Act is the key piece of provincial legislation providing for land use control. It provides for the drawing up, extending and amendment of town planning schemes and the approval of applications for the establishment of new schemes. The town planning schemes are the instruments that control the practical implementation of the Ordinance. It regulates the use of land in urban areas. In an application for approval of a new township, the applicant will apply for the zoning of the properties within the new township (Drake, 2004). The local authorities use the
zoning of a property to determine its development potential and thus the value at which a property will be rated (McConnachie, 1999). It also gives the local authorities power to control development within their areas of jurisdiction.

2.11.2 Development Facilitation Act (Act 67 of 1995) (DFA)

Physical planning was introduced in South Africa for among other reasons to mitigate increasing pressure on non-renewable resources. The legislation was required to ensure that both the provincial and local authorities took cognisance of economic, social, health and other administrative issues. These concerns herald the introduction of the Physical Planning Act of 1991 (Act no. 125 of 1991). The act provided for a system of policy plans at national, regional and local levels. Due to the political transition in South Africa, the preparation of the new plans according to the provisions of the Act was not implemented. Key focus areas were to: introduce extraordinary measures to facilitate and speed up the implementation of reconstruction and development programmes and projects in relation to land, provide for the establishment in the provinces of development tribunals which to facilitate the formulation and implementation of land development objectives and provide for nationally uniform procedures for the subdivision and development of land in urban and rural areas.

This Act was the first coherent attempt to bring about uniformity in township establishment, land registration and planning systems (McConnachie, 1999). Its aims were:

- To speed up reconstruction and development programmes and projects and set out principles for land development
- To provide for a Development and Planning Commission to advise government and to provide for development tribunals in the provinces
- To implement land development objectives and measure local government performance
- To provide nationally uniform procedures for the subdivision and development of land in urban and rural areas and
- To promote security of tenure and the early provision of subsidies and loans in
the land development process.

### 2.11.3 Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP)

The Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) was introduced in 1994. It aimed at improving the quality of life and standard of living of all South Africans. The RDP was an integrated growth and development policy that aimed to address poverty and inequality and generate sustainable economic growth. The introduction of RDP heralded the construction of new houses in most urban areas. It emerged as the key strategy to address the social and economic inequalities of apartheid and the facilitation of the transition to non-racial democracy. The RDP through the Urban Development Strategy (UDS) aimed to integrate the segregated city by concentrating on rebuilding the townships, creating employment opportunities, providing housing and urban amenities, reducing community distances, “facilitating better use of underutilised or vacant land” and introducing urban management (Cilliers, 2010: 38). Specifically, the intention was to ensure that the resources of the built environment were used efficiently by integrating the needs of the urban poor and urban areas economic productivity (Maharaj, 1997).

According to Maharaj (1997), Urban Development Strategy (UDS) identifies five priorities namely:

- Integrating the cities and managing urban growth
- Investing in urban development
- Building habitable and safe environments
- Promoting urban economic development
- Creating Institutions for delivery.

The introduction of RDP and its strategic plans such as UDS caused spatial urban changes in most metropolitans, cities and towns of South Africa. A lot of houses and other amenities were built in most urban areas in South Africa. Many open/vacant lands were transformed into formal and informal residential areas as more people flock to urban areas. Consequently,
urban expansion has been tremendous for the past eighteen years and this has resulted in shortage of accommodation in many cities.

2.11.4 Impacts of urbanisation on people and the environment

The city of Pietermaritzburg is growing at unprecedented rate. This has resulted to a reduction in the city’s space (Sutton, 2008). Many of the farmlands, wetlands and forests that were part of the city have in the past 20 years been transformed into human settlements. This expansion threatens green space (Mahmoodzabeh, 2006).

2.12 Pietermaritzburg: the city

The city of Pietermaritzburg is located in the KwaZulu Natal midlands, Umgungundlovu District’s Msunduzi Municipality (Figure 2.1). The history of the city of Pietermaritzburg dates back to the defeat of the Zulu people in the Blood River battle of 1838. The city was named after a former leader Pieter Mauritz Retief. In 1843, the town was annexed by the British; however, the name Pietermaritzburg was retained. Due to its relative central location in the province (Figure 2.1) and favourable climate, Pietermaritzburg has been an important urban node in the province (Msunduzi IDP, 2008-2012).

Temperatures in the city are moderately warm. The average daily maximum temperature is 26 degrees Celsius. While temperatures of over 35 degrees are often recorded between the months of December to May, the coldest temperatures of around 11 degrees are experienced between May and August. The city receives an average of 844mm of rain distributed across the year. Over 138 days receive at least 1mm of rain. The wettest months are January to March and September to December. Generally, the city’s capital status, mildly warm climate and relatively high rainfall have made it attractive for settlement. The eastern suburbs in particular are expanding at a very high rate, especially after 1994. Consequently, areas like Copesville and Eastwood (Figure 2.1) are characterised by high density urban sprawl moving outwards into the surrounding agricultural land.
2.13 The study areas

Pietermaritzburg was declared the administration capital city of the province in the year 2000. Consequently, there was significant socio-economic growth and spatial transformation. The political transformation around this time (1989 to 2009) also acted as inertia to the city’s spatial transformation (Msunduzi IDP 2003-2010).

The study area is made up of four suburbs, namely Copesville, Raisethorpe, Willowton and Eastwood. Copesville and Eastwood, which border farming areas, were included to investigate how much farming land was lost to the expanding city. Raisethope is partly surrounded by other suburbs and is a relatively old. It was included in the study to find out whether there is any land use or cover changes in old suburbs areas. Willowton is an industrial area. It was included in the study to investigate the growth of industries in the area studied.

Figure 2.1: The study area.
2.14 Summary

The chapter has broadly outlined the nature and use of GIS and how it can be used to analyse and assess LULC using aerial photographs. The chapter has also described the study area and how the policies and legislations which were introduced after 1994 have a bearing on its development and consequent LULC.
Chapter 3

Material and Methods

3.1 Introduction

This chapter describes the methods and the materials used and the approaches adopted in achieving the aims set in chapter one. The research focuses on how GIS and aerial photographs can be used to analyse LULC change patterns in the study area. To achieve this, digital aerial photographs taken between 1989 and 2009, topographic maps produced in 1971, 1980, 1982, 2000 and the Zoning map obtained from the Department of Town Planning in the GIS department, in Pietermaritzburg city were used. A methodology illustrated in Figure 2.2 provides a summary of how the aforementioned objectives of the study were achieved.

Figure 2.2: Procedure for mapping LULC in the study area (1989 to 2009).
3.2 Data collection, processing and analysis

3.2.1 Data Collection

The aerial photos (Table 3.1), topographic maps, zoning schemes and city suburb maps used in this study were obtained from the Pietermaritzburg Surveyor General’s Office, Department of Town Planning in Pietermaritzburg, the Chief Directorate, Survey and Mapping, the GIS Department in Msunduzi Municipality and Geography Department at the University of KwaZulu-Natal.

Table 3.1: Aerial photographs of Pietermaritzburg used in the study.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>Type</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>1989</td>
<td>1:50 000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>1998</td>
<td>1:20 000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>2004</td>
<td>1:20 000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>2009</td>
<td>1:25 000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.2.2 Data Processing

The processing of data used in this research consisted of two important procedures: Geo-rectification of the aerial photographs and On-screen digitization of the LULC classes. Geo-rectification was done to eliminate positional errors that could affect change detection accuracy, while digitization was used to create various land use maps required for analysis. The Spline geo-rectification technique was used to geo-rectify the aerial photographs taken in 1989 and 1998. Since the 2004 and 2009 photographs were acquired when already georectified, the 2009 photograph was used for the geo-rectification process to accommodate any new features in existence. The geo-rectification procedures determine the accuracy of the final LULC analysis whose accuracy is dependent on the positional accuracy of individual pixels on the aerial photographs used. According to Boone et al (2007), a good positional accuracy of individual
pixels that make up the entire aerial photograph implies that on any two multi-temporal photographs, pixels of a feature in the image from an earlier date correspond specifically to the location of pixels of the same feature in the image taken in a subsequent date.

### 3.2.3 Geo-rectification process used

Aerial photography is an efficient surveying tool for inventory and mapping. It can be used to collect spatial, temporal and spectral data (Congalton and Green, 1999). Before land use information could be extracted from the aerial photographs, the data was cleaned, rectified and converted to an accurate representation of the area. The Gauss Conformal map projection was used throughout the LULC classification process. Roblin (1969) recommends conformal projections as suitable option as accurate distance; shape and azimuth (direction) can be produced. Transverse Mercator was used to project the maps used in the study. To accurately determine where and what LULC exists in the photographs, the images had to be geo-referenced. Geo-referencing helps to tag or locate records with geographic locations. The primary requirement in the geo-rectification process is that a location must be unique and only a single location should be associated with a point. The geo-referencing process should also be persistent through time as it would be expensive and confusing if geo-referencing changed frequently (Longley et al, 2005).

### 3.2.4 Land use land cover classification

Since there are different kinds of land cover types and possible land uses, it is necessary to identify and classify land according to characteristics and use potential (Rhind 1993). Land use and land cover maps typically enumerate the types of land usages and vegetation covering the earth. The difference between land use and land cover must be stressed. Land use is understood as a function between humans and nature, and it can be economical, social or political (Baudot, 2001). Land cover, on the other hand is the physical material that covers the earth surface (Baudot 2001). For the purpose of this study, detailed observations of LULC had to be classified into defined groups or categories in order to characterise the land use features with some level of
consistency and accuracy over time and space. Classification as defined by FAO (2005:209) “is an abstract representation of the situation in the field using well-defined diagnostic criteria”. It is a means of organising spatial information in an orderly and logical way and it’s fundamental to any mapping project as it creates order in the total number of classes (Congalton and Green 1999). In order to determine the number of LULC mapping classes on a multi-temporal data set, standardised classification schemes need to be followed (FAO 1977). To achieve this scheme the following had to be reviewed:

- The anticipated use of the land
- The relationship between features and the study area, and
- The level of detail required by the user

To differentiate the boundaries between the LULC types, the major LULC types were manually digitized from the geo-rectified aerial photographs using shape, pattern, tone, texture and association (Lillesand et al, 2004; Campbell, 2007; Harvey and Hill, 2001).

### 3.2.5 Proposed LULC and description of classes

The classification scheme in this study was adopted from the guidelines by Thompson et al (2001). In this study a 2000 (4th edition) topographical map was used as a base map to identify and classify LULC on 2009 aerial photograph. As aforementioned the interpretation was done using urban air photo feature characteristics such as shape, size, tone, pattern and association. First, the 2000 topographic map was interpreted for LULC details and the same details were transferred to 2009 aerial photograph. Second, aerial photographs from 1998 were interpreted for the same LULC classification as those from 2009 and details transferred into the base map by the method of matching the details. Topographic map for 1982 (4th edition) was used to classify LULC for 1989 and 1998 aerial photographs. Whereas topographic maps acquired in tandem with aerial photographs could have been ideal, they were not available and the closest possible set had to be used instead.
3.2.6 Description of classes

Typically a classification scheme has two critical components; a set of labels and a set of rules or classifications. Without a clear set of rules, the assignment of labels of LULC types can be arbitrary and with no consistency (Congalton and Green, 1999). If a rigorous set of rules and labels are not developed prior to mapping, the accuracy of mapping is compromised and individual allocation of classes becomes difficult. Table 3.2 provides a description of different classes and rules selected for the study.

Table 3.2: Description of LULC classes (adopted from Thompson et. al. 2001).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Land use/cover classes</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Urban Build–up (residential)</td>
<td>Formal build-up area; permanent or near permanent residences, identifiable by the high density residence and associated infrastructure. Includes high density, medium and low density areas.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urban Build-up residential I (informal settlements)</td>
<td>Non-permanent informal type dwellings (i.e. in tin, cardboard, wood etc.) typically established on an informal adhoc basis on non-served sites. Typically high building densities. Refers to all unplanned residential areas without proper planning. Houses mainly built of corrugated iron sheets.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urban Build-up (residential informal township undeveloped planned residential area)</td>
<td>Permanent (i.e. bricks) structure (predominately single level) located on serviced sites in a pre-planned manner. Includes both low and high building densities. Also includes stands which are at foundation level with developed roads and demarcation for residential areas.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urban Build-up, industrial/transport, heavy and light business.</td>
<td>Non-residential areas with major industries (i.e. manufacture and/or processing of goods, manufacturing or transport related infrastructure. Examples, light manufacture units, warehouses and business development centres. Also includes land which has been designated for light and heavy industries.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business</td>
<td>Incorporated all legal commercial land use such as retail shops and garages.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>All the schools and tertiary institutions in the area.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recreation</td>
<td>Public and recreational places. Include areas such as playing grounds, parks etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultivation</td>
<td>Land that are under subsistence agriculture within the study area.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Municipal</td>
<td>Includes land which is controlled and owned by the municipal such as sewage works and power stations.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trees and bushes</td>
<td>Incorporate all land that is covered by a maximum of 60% natural vegetation of indigenous trees and bushes or 60% commercial forest.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Degraded shrubland and low fynbos</td>
<td>Permanent or near permanent, man-induced areas of very low vegetation cover (i.e. removal of trees, bushes, or herbaceous cover)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
in comparison to surrounding natural vegetation cover. Typically associated with subsistence level agriculture and rural population centres, where overgrazing of livestock and/or wood resources has been locally excessive often associated with severe soil erosion problems

3.2.7 Methods of Aerial photograph- interpretation

According to Lo (1976) and Estes (2001), there are three distinct stages of photo-interpretation and adopted in this study; General examination: This aims at gaining a general impression of what is shown on the aerial photograph. This involves selectively picking out objects or elements from the image so as to get a holistic view of the image that is being interpreted. Identification: In identifying geographic features represented in aerial photos, several image characteristics may be used; these include patterns, shapes, tone, texture, shadow, associated features and size (Lo, 1976; Heyde, 1998). Classification: As pointed out earlier, classification involves assigning geographical features and objects that have been recognised and identified into their appropriate class as defined by the author.

3.2.8 Accuracy of photo- interpretation

Aerial photograph- interpretation is subjective and dependent on the interpreter. Lo (1996:252) states that, “aerial photograph–interpretation involves deductive and inductive evaluation of various elements detected on the photographs based on common sense, field experiences as well as interpreters’ skills”. In urban areas the complexity of landscapes makes interpretation difficult. Consequently, ancillary data and supporting documents are often useful. In this research a zoning map which shows different LULC in the study area were overlaid on the aerial photographs. Different LULC areas were then digitized based on these overlays. To reduce human error when interpreting an aerial photo; Estes (2001) suggest that the interpretation should:

- Be conducted logically one step at a time
- Begin with the general and proceed to specific, and
- Should proceed from the known to the unknown.
These principles were adopted and followed whilst conducting the photo-interpretations process. This process was followed to eliminate any interpretation error and to provide consistency in LULC delineation.

### 3.2.9 Creating land use maps

To create choropleth maps and graphically illustrate temporal aerial divisions of different LULC classes between 1989 and 2009, common boundaries of the suburbs were achieved by overlaying suburbs grids obtained from the Town Planning Department in Pietermaritzburg. The grid covering the study area was extracted from the grid that covers the whole city by selection and clipping. The grid map which was created was overlaid on the aerial photographs taken from the aforementioned multi-temporal periods. The different classified LULC were saved as shape files.

### 3.2.10 Digitising

Digitising is the process of converting hard copy geographic information into digital vector images. Traditionally, digitising is done on a digitising tablet - a large board with an attached mouse or ‘puck’. The digitising table has a fine grid of wires embedded in it that acts as a Cartesian coordinate system. This underlying circuitry converts points where you dictate the puck into x and y coordinates (Weng, 1990; Haddock, 2001). Due to improvement in computer technology, high-resolution digital imagery and aerial photographs can be linked into a GIS software package that can allow for capture, edits and delineation of features directly on the computer screen. This method of digitising is often referred to as ‘on-screen’ or ‘head-up’ digitising (Gillings et al, 1998).

In this study an ‘on screen’ digitising was employed. After the classification of the different LULCs, different LULCs in the study area were digitised. To reduce errors arising from fatigue, Gillings et al, (1998) recommends that the digitising process should be undertaken in smaller time-periods. The corrected digital orthophotos of the study area were imported and displayed in
ArcCatalog making it was possible to zoom in to identify locations of the boundaries between LULC types. These boundaries were digitised directly on the screen in ArcMap at an area threshold determined by the resolution of the aerial imagery.

### 3.2.11 Editing, creating polygons and attribute data

Once all the relevant data in the orthophotos had been digitised it was necessary to edit the shapefiles to eliminate errors. This process involved manually moving nodes at the beginning or end of arcs. These nodes either overshot or fell short of other lines. Accidentally digitized slivers were also removed. As the polygon did not contain attribute data, corresponding attribute tables were manually populated with data associated with each individual polygon.

### 3.2.12 Error and accuracy assessment

Maps that are created using GIS are powerful spatial analysis tools. However, GIS products may possess significant amounts of error (Walsh et al, 1987). Generally, there is usually more information on aerial photographs than can be accurately presented on the map. Thus the interpreter of a LULC map is often seeing a “filtered” version of what is actually on the ground (Campbell, 1983). The process of transcribing information from aerial photographs to a LULC map is “essentially a process of segmenting the image into mosaic of parcels, with each parcel assigned to a land use class” (Weng, 1990). This process inevitably leads to error. According to Dunn et al, (1991) there are broad ways in which this operational error can occur. Errors can occur in interpretation of photographs and omission of parcels on the ground. Errors of commission may occur when the location of boundaries between lands parcels are not clear. Errors may also occur during the digitizing process. Digitizing is essentially a sampling process where a limited number of straight lines represent the true line, which is often a smooth curve (Moore, 1997). Thus a discrepancy often exists between the positions of the original line on the map and the digitized line (Dunn et al, 1991). All the above mentioned errors were considered in the final evaluation of the generated LULC maps.
3.2.13 Accuracy assessment of Land use maps

On the ground observation (OTG) (Wentz et al, 2006) was employed in this study to verify certain sites and LULCs. Ten sets of co-ordinates of features common to all aerial photographs interpreted were chosen for accuracy assessment. These points were then located in the field, first by locating these points on the aerial photographs. The LULC types and objects which corresponded to these co-ordinates on 2006 LULC map were identified. The same positions were then located in the field using a Global Positioning System (GPS). The OTG exercise produced eight sites out of ten which were correct and two sites which were slightly incorrect (Table 3.3).

Table 3.3: Actual versus interpreted sites for the study area.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Site</th>
<th>Longitudes</th>
<th>Latitudes</th>
<th>Actual LULC</th>
<th>Interpreted LULC</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>30.42709</td>
<td>-29.55356</td>
<td>Education (in Copesville suburb)</td>
<td>Education (in Copesville suburb)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>30.42998</td>
<td>-29.60068</td>
<td>Municipal works/sewages (in Willowton suburb)</td>
<td>Municipal works/sewage (in willowton suburb)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>30.42397</td>
<td>-29.59618</td>
<td>Education (in Willowton suburb)</td>
<td>Education (Willowton suburb)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
<td>30.41754</td>
<td>-29.55515</td>
<td>Education (in Raisethorpe suburb)</td>
<td>Education (Raisethorpe)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6</td>
<td>30.41424</td>
<td>-29.57227</td>
<td>Formal residential (Raisethorpe suburb)</td>
<td>Formal residential (in Raisethoe suburb)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7</td>
<td>30.42244</td>
<td>-29.57438</td>
<td>Formal residential (in Eastwood suburb)</td>
<td>Planned undeveloped residential Area (in Eastwood)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>8</td>
<td>30.42244</td>
<td>-29.58978</td>
<td>Formal residential (in Eastwood suburb)</td>
<td>Planned undeveloped residential Area (in Eastwood)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9</td>
<td>30.42213</td>
<td>-29.54351</td>
<td>Informal settlement residential (in Copesville)</td>
<td>Informal settlement (in Copesville)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10</td>
<td>30.40955</td>
<td>-29.56923</td>
<td>Business (Raisethorpe suburb)</td>
<td>Business (Raisethorpe suburb)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3.3 Summary

In this chapter, procedures taken to create LULC classification system for the data obtained from aerial photographs have been described. The techniques used in aerial photographs interpretations are outlined and the methodologies used to reduce errors have been described. The methods, steps and tools used to create the LULC datasets have been discussed and measures taken to assess the accuracy of the final datasets explained. In the ensuing chapter, the results obtained using the methods already described are presented and discussed.
Chapter 4

Results and discussion

4.1 Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to describe LULC changes that took place from 1989 to 2009 within the study area. The chapter further identifies and describes the changes that occurred between each of the temporal datasets, the relationship between different changes over time and possible future LULC in the study area.

4.2 Land use and land cover

The LULC datasets produced from the aerial photographs show the location and distribution of LULC processes at specific time periods from 1989 to 2009. In total, eleven classes were evaluated. Topographic maps and orthophoto taken from the previous years were used as basis to classify the LULC in the study area. For instance, the 1982 topographical map was used to identify and classify the LULC on the aerial photographs for 1989 and 1998 while the topographic map of 2000 was used as a base map to identify and classify the LULC for 2004 and 2009. As earlier mentioned, whereas topographic maps for the actual years of analysis could have been ideal, earlier topographic maps were used as maps coinciding with years of analysis were not available. Visual interpretation and manual classification using aforementioned techniques were used to distinguish between classes. The interpretation and the digitizing process were then used to generate choropleth LULC map datasets from which respective LULC areas were calculated.

4.2.1 General LULC changes in the study area

The land uses for 1989 to 2009 are given in Figure 4.1. The LULC datasets produced from the aerial photographs data show spatial location, distribution and surface area of the LULC classes in the four suburbs studied (Copesville, Raisethorpe, Eastwood and Wilowton).
Figure 4.1: Digitized LULC maps of the study area (1989 to 2009).

Table 4.1 and Figure 4.2 show changes in hectares in the study area. Cultivated LULC class decreased from 571.5 hectares in 1989 to 11.01 hectares in 2009 while residential areas doubled
from 406 hectares in 1989 (formal and informal combined) to 921.144 hectares in 2009.
Industrial and education LULC steadily increased over the study period Table 4.1.

Table 4.1: Areas (hectares) for 1989 to 2009 LULC.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Business</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>18.5</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultivated land</td>
<td>571.5</td>
<td>180</td>
<td>66.8</td>
<td>11.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>16.9</td>
<td>26.8</td>
<td>38.1</td>
<td>33.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Formal residential area</td>
<td>380</td>
<td>448</td>
<td>623.2</td>
<td>656.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hospital</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2.95</td>
<td>2.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industries</td>
<td>219.5</td>
<td>312</td>
<td>317.6</td>
<td>374.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Informal residential area</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>174</td>
<td>210</td>
<td>264.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Municipal land</td>
<td>100.5</td>
<td>140</td>
<td>140.1</td>
<td>140.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recreation</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>180</td>
<td>44.1</td>
<td>57.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trees and bushes</td>
<td>756.1</td>
<td>572</td>
<td>627.2</td>
<td>583.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Planned undeveloped residential</td>
<td>25.1</td>
<td>85.4</td>
<td>69.4</td>
<td>5.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Water reservoir</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.2.2 Percentage changes between 1989 to 1998 (9-year period)

The 1998 maps (Figure 4.3) show that formal residential area increased from 17.8% in 1989 to 20.96% in 1998 (3.16%). Cultivated land decreased from 26.7% in 1989 to 8.4% in 1998, a decrease of 18.3%. Industries increased by 4.3% over this period. Informal residential and planned undeveloped residential LULC increased by 7.2% and 2.79% respectively (figure 4.3).

4.2.3 Percentage changes between 1998 to 2009 (11years period)

Cultivated LULC decreased from 8.4% in 1998 to 0.5% in 2009, residential LULC increased by 9.7%, informal residential LULC increased by 4.3% while industrial LULC increased by 2.9% over this period (Figure 4.4).

4.3 Land use land cover changes in Copesville, Eastwood, Raisethorpe and Willowton.

4.3.1 Land use changes in 1989

Cultivation was the most dominant LULC in Copesville with 89.8% of the total area under cultivation in 1989. In this area, only 5% of the land was used for informal residential while 27.6% of the land was covered by trees and bushes (Appendix 1). In Eastwood, the main LULC was trees and bushes (149.3 hectare of the total area of 361.8) which translated to 41.3%. This was followed by cultivated LULC (27.5%) and formal residential (27.7%). In Raisethorpe, the major LULC was formal residential which constituted 65.5% of the total area, followed by trees and bushes which constituted about 13.6% of the total area. In Willowton the main LULC was
trees and bushes which constitute about 59.2% of the total area of the suburb followed by industrial (20.6%) and municipal land (11.2%).

4.3.2 Land use changes in 1998

The results obtained from 1998 from the entire study area shows that the formal residential area increased from 0% in 1989 to 10.9%. Land under cultivation decreased by 64.5%. In Eastwood the main LULC was formal residential area (43.8%), trees and bushes (19.2), undeveloped planned residential area (13.6) and cultivated land (13.4). In Willowton trees and bushes increased by about 1.6% from 1995. (13.4). In Eastwood, undeveloped planned residential stands increased from 5.4% to 13.6%. Cultivated land also decreased from 31.6% to 13.4%. This means that most of the land used for farming was lost to residential or built up areas.

4.3.3 Land use changes in 2004

The Copesville results obtained in 2004 show that the informal residential class increased by 3.3% and the undeveloped residential class decreased by 1.1% from the previous data set (1998). In Eastwood, the formal residential class increased by 17.8% and undeveloped planned residential plots dropped by 4.8%. This means that a lot of undeveloped planned plots were developed into formal residential areas. Furthermore, formal residential class increased in Raisethorpe while undeveloped planned residential areas decreased from the previous temporal dataset by 2.5% and 2.5% respectively. Results also show that the industrial LULC class in Willowton increased by 5.8% and formal residential class increased by 2.6% between 1998 and 2004.

4.3.4 Land use changes in 2009

There was a significant change in cultivated LULC in 2009. In Copesville, this LULC class decreased from 8% in 2004 to 1.6% in 2009. Formal and informal residential areas increased by
3.5% and 5.2% respectively (see Appendix 1). Industrial LULC in Raisethorpe and Willowton increased by 2.3% and 3.9% respectively from 2004 to 2009 (Appendix 1).

4.4 General LULC changes in the city’s eastern suburbs between the temporal datasets

To analyse LULCs in the study area, variables which showed much change were identified and compared. The study periods were also grouped into two time series (from 1989 to 1998 and from 1998 to 2009). The land uses for 1989 and 1998 are shown in the aforementioned Figures 4.1 and 4.2. The total areas and percentage of the total suburb area for each LULC, as well as changes in area, are given in Table 4.2 and Figure 4.5 below.

4.4.1 Change between 1989 and 1998 Land use land cover maps

The area under formal residential area in 1989 was 380 hectares, this increased to 448.2 hectares in 1998. This was an over 68.2 hectares (18%) growth of formal residential land use between 1989 and 1998. On the other hand the informal residential and industrial land use classes also increased by 148 and 92.9 hectares respectively (Figure 4.2).

Table 4.2: Areas (hectares) and change for 1989 to 1998 LULC.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Land cover type</th>
<th>Area 1989 (ha)</th>
<th>Area 1998 (ha)</th>
<th>Change (ha)</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Business</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>18.5</td>
<td>8.5</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultivate land</td>
<td>571.5</td>
<td>179.6</td>
<td>-391.9</td>
<td>-24.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>16.9</td>
<td>26.8</td>
<td>9.9</td>
<td>58.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industry</td>
<td>219.5</td>
<td>312.3</td>
<td>92.8</td>
<td>42.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Form Residential area</td>
<td>380</td>
<td>448.2</td>
<td>68.2</td>
<td>17.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inform Residential area</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>174</td>
<td>148</td>
<td>569.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Municipal land</td>
<td>100.5</td>
<td>140</td>
<td>39.5</td>
<td>39.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recreation</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>179.6</td>
<td>147.6</td>
<td>461.2</td>
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<tr>
<td>Trees&amp; bushes</td>
<td>756.1</td>
<td>572.2</td>
<td>-183.9</td>
<td>-24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>25.1</td>
<td>85.4</td>
<td>60.3</td>
<td>240.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Water</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Whereas the figures above show LULC in the entire study area, the highest LULC transformation was in Copesville and Eastwood (Appendix 1) while the lowest LULC was in Raisethorpe. In 1989 land under cultivation was 571.6 hectares (26.7% of the total area), while in 1998 the cultivated LULC decreased to 179.6 hectares. There was a net decrease of 391.9 hectares (24.4%) of agricultural land which was converted to residential area. Significant change of LULC was also noticed in land covered by trees and bushes. In 1989 trees and bushes covered about 756.1 hectares (35.4%) and in 1998 it decreased to 572.2 hectares (26.8%). There was net loss of 183.9 hectares (24%) in the study area. Industrial LULC class increased from 219.5 hectares (10.3%) in 1989 to 312.3 hectares (42.3%) in 1998.
4.4.2 Change between 1998 and 2009

As shown in Table 4.3 and Figure 4.6, an area of 442.8 hectares was under formal residential LULC category in 1998 and 656.47 hectares in 2009. There was an increase of 43.8% over a period of eleven years. Informal residential area also increased by 52.2%. Cultivated LULC experienced a significant decrease of 168.99 hectares (Figure 4.6).

Table 4.3: Areas (hectares) and change for 1989 to 2009 LULC.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Land use/land cover type</th>
<th>Area 1998 (ha)</th>
<th>Area 2009(he)</th>
<th>Change</th>
<th>% change</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<tr>
<td>Business</td>
<td>18.5</td>
<td>21</td>
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<td>13.5</td>
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<tr>
<td>Cultivated land</td>
<td>180</td>
<td>11.01</td>
<td>-168.99</td>
<td>-93.8</td>
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<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>26.8</td>
<td>33.52</td>
<td>6.72</td>
<td>25</td>
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<td>Hospital</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2.95</td>
<td>2.95</td>
<td>100</td>
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<tr>
<td>Industry</td>
<td>312.3</td>
<td>374.26</td>
<td>61.96</td>
<td>19.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>448.2</td>
<td>644.7</td>
<td>196.5</td>
<td>43.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inform residential area</td>
<td>174</td>
<td>264.97</td>
<td>90.97</td>
<td>52.2</td>
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<td>Municipal</td>
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<td>140.1</td>
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<td>0</td>
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<tr>
<td>Recreation</td>
<td>180</td>
<td>57.08</td>
<td>-122.92</td>
<td>-68.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trees &amp; bushes</td>
<td>572.2</td>
<td>583.65</td>
<td>11.45</td>
<td>1.9</td>
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<tr>
<td>Planned undeveloped residential area</td>
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<td>5.68</td>
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<tr>
<td>Water</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
To analyse LULC extents in the study area, variables which showed much change were identified and compared. Formal residential, Informal settlement, Planned undeveloped residential, Industrial and cultivated areas were identified as areas with the highest transformation.

4.5 Spatial extents per suburb over the study period

4.5.1 Land use land cover changes in Copesville

Figure 4.7 shows the spatial extents of major LULC types that had the most significant changes followed by a breakdown of suburb by suburb.
Figure 4.7: The extent of the formal, informal and planned undeveloped residential areas from 1989 to 2009.
Results show that a major part of the area in Copesville suburb was under cultivation. This LULC constituted 472.1 hectares (89.8%) (Appendix 1). There was no formal residential area, school and nor recreational area in the area in 1989. There were few scattered homesteads, about 5% of the total area of the suburb (Appendix 1).

In 1998 to 2004 cultivated LULC decreased while residential area (formal and informal combined) increased. Planned undeveloped residential plots increased from 3.3% in 1998 to 4.1% in 2004, however there was a decrease from 2004 to 2009. The increase followed by a slight decrease of planned undeveloped residential plots can be attributed to government intervention in 1994. According to (Cronje 2009) these changes can be attributed to a number of factors; firstly, the influx of rural-urban migration and secondly, the collapse of apartheid. The increase of planned undeveloped residential plots between 1989 and 1998, and then a gradual decrease between 1998 to 2009, was due to the RDP programme adopted by the democratic government in 1994. A lot of undeveloped plots were planned under this programme to provide decent accommodation for the previously disadvantaged residents in the area.

4.5.2  Land use land cover changes in Eastwood

In Eastwood, Trees and bushes, cultivated land and Formal residential areas were the dominant LULC in 1989. Trees and bushes constituted 41.3% of the total area while cultivated area and formal residential area constituted 27.7% and 27.7% respectively. Cultivation decreased from 13.7% in 1998 to 6.7% in 2004 and land covered by trees and bushes increased. This change can be attributed to the fact that as a farm is acquired for residential development for the first time it may be left fallow (unused) before development takes place. The planned undeveloped residential stands increased from 0% in 1989 to 5.4% to 13.6% in 1998. This was due to government interventions in 1994. The introduction of Reconstruction Development Programme (RDP) heralded a massive increase in planned accommodation, hence this increase. The planned undeveloped residential stands gradually decreased from 13.7% in 1998 to 7.1% in 2004 to 2.4% in 2009. On the other hand formal residential class increased. As planned undeveloped residential areas decreased, formal residential area class land increased. The LULC lost to the
planned undeveloped residential stand and informal residential classes were gained by the formal residential class.

4.5.3  Land use land cover changes in Raisethorpe

The LULCs changes in the Raisethorpe were not significant. Formal residential class did not change much. There was a gradual increase, 230 hectares in 1989, 235 hectares in 1998, 236 hectares in 2004 and 259 hectares in 2009. The slight fluctuation may have been due to inconsistency of orthophotos maps used to make the thematic maps.

In general, Raisethorpe did not experience significant changes over the study period; this suburb does not border farming areas. Furthermore, this observation can be attributed to the nature and status of the suburb. The suburb is more affluent than the other suburbs under study. It is a common fact that suburbs of a low income experience a larger influx of rural-urban migration than the high income areas. Poor rural-urban migrant people often first settle in low income residential areas before moving into high income areas (Harvey, 1996; Pacione 2005).

4.5.4  Land use land cover changes in Willowton suburb

The dominant LULC in Willowton was industrial. The multi-temporal analysis shows that the industrial LULC steadily increased over the study period. The highest increase occurred between 1989 and 1998 (6%). The decrease noticed between 2004 and 2009 was attributed to inconsistency in digitisation by the researcher. It can therefore be concluded that many industries increased between 1989 and 1998 while the 1998 and 2009 period saw minimal growth. This can be attributed to the opening of new industrial areas within the city such as Mkondeni at around the same time.
4.6 Possible causes of urban growth in the study area

4.6.1 Economic theory

The expansion of the study area over the years was a result of a number of factors. Pietermaritzburg city, which falls under Msunduzi municipality, is surrounded by six municipalities. These municipalities play a critical role in “importing” goods, services and human capital to the city. As a result the city is bound to expand both in space and services. Based on spatial trends already discussed, it can be concluded that the city has expanded due to economic factors which further attracts people into the area of study. The transformation of LULC in the study area can be explained by the economic base theory. The theory hypothesise that the size of an urban area depends on the amount of goods and services that is supplied to “outsiders”. The income derived from “out-supply” generate purchasing power which sustains internal demand. The increased internal demand driven by higher purchasing power will increase population inflow to the urban centre (Harvey, 1996).

This might be true as more and more people migrate to urban areas, in this case into Pietermaritzburg, more goods and services will be consumed and the income generated from these activities are used to expand the business in the study area and attracts more people.

4.6.2 Laws, politics and the past history

The pass law during the apartheid regime made it illegal for black people to live in white areas. Black people were not allowed to rent formal houses and were restricted to informal dwellings. When these restrictions and other racial restrictions were lifted up in 1994, as in the case of many other urban settlements in South Africa, there was unprecedented rural urban migration (Cronje, 2009). The shifting of provincial capital status from Ulundi to Pietermaritzburg in 2004 triggered the cities’ urban expansion. This had a spiral demand on residential and associated services. It can be assumed that there was an influx of people who wanted to exploit opportunities offered by the city’s new status.
4.7 Summary

In this chapter, results from the four suburbs have been identified and discussed. The chapter further provided a detailed explanation of the results obtained from tables and change maps for a change pattern analysis. Possible reasons for LULC changes have also been highlighted.
Chapter 5

Conclusion

5.1 Conclusion

The main objective of this research was to establish spatio-temporal change patterns that took place in the study area using GIS and aerial photograph maps. It went on to investigate the capability of GIS in effectively and accurately analysing LULC and, LULC trends using maps generated from aerial photograph. It was assumed from the outset that the spatial approach using aerial photographs and GIS would provide better insight and understanding of the LULC dynamics in the eastern suburbs of Pietermaritzburg.

Research questions that met the main objective are:

- How has land use land cover changed between 1989, 1998, 2004 and 2009 of the selected area?
- What are the present land use types of the study area?
- What was the previous land uses land covers?

These questions under the set objectives were achieved by a multi-temporal LULC change analysis using a series of aerial photographs of Pietermaritzburg of 1989, 1998, 2004 and 2009.

The processes to achieve the objectives followed a multi-temporal change detection process outlined. These processes were to;

1. Create maps that show how the study area has been growing over the years
2. Use aerial photographs to map and analyse the extent of spatio-temporal of the study area from 1989 to 2009.
3. Explain the changes in LULC patterns within the study area.
4. Produce maps of the study area which indicates different temporal periods (i.e. 2009).
The information generated in this project can assist in answering the following questions: why is LULC in its current state? Has it changed and why? How do these changes occur and what factors contributed to these changes? Furthermore the information generated has potential for use by the municipality for spatial planning and mitigation of urban sprawl. The following conclusions can be drawn from this study. During the study period (1989 to 2009), there was a significant LULC change, particularly in Copesville. The land which was mainly used for agriculture in 1989 changed into residential in subsequent years. Cultivated land decreased while formal residential and informal residential LULC increased. Undeveloped planned areas increased from 1989 to 1998 but decreased from 2004 and 2009. Industrial areas increased by 4.4% in 1989 to 1998 and 1.7% from 1998 to 2009. Informal residential areas increased in 1989, 1998, 2004 and 2009.

The significant increase in residential area (formal and informal) is attributed to the influx of rural-urban migration from the surrounding areas. Understanding the changes in the use and cover of land resources is critical for land management and planning. This study validates aerial photographs and GIS techniques as effective tools for mapping heterogeneous and dynamic urban landscapes. Such a process is valuable for assessing, monitoring and planning urban physical, social and natural resources.


Inglis-Smith, C., 2006: Satellite imagery based classification mapping for spatially analyzing West Virginia Corridor H Urban development. Published MSc Thesis. The College of Graduate Marshall University, South Charleston.


Misakova, L., 2006: *Mapping of Urban Green Cover using different image processing techniques on VHR Satellite data*, University of agriculture and Forestry, Mendel.


Rochinia, D. and Di Rita, A., 2005: Relief effects on aerial photos geometric correction, Applied Geography, 25, (2) 159-168.


APPENDIX 1: Area and percentage of each land use class in the eastern suburb over the time series.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LULC</th>
<th>1989</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Area (ha)</td>
<td>Area (%)</td>
<td>Area (ha)</td>
<td>Area (%)</td>
<td>Area (ha)</td>
<td>Area (%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td><strong>361.8</strong></td>
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<td><strong>352.6</strong></td>
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<tr>
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<tr>
<td></td>
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<td>Eastwood</td>
<td>Raisethorpe</td>
<td>Willowton</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>Area (ha)</td>
<td>Area (%)</td>
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</tr>
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<td>0</td>
</tr>
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<td><strong>522.1</strong></td>
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<td><strong>332.6</strong></td>
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<td>Raisethorpe</td>
<td>Willowton</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
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<td>------------</td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>6.2 (1.2%)</td>
<td>9.4 (2.6%)</td>
<td>17.0 (4.6582%)</td>
<td>8.0 (0.9%)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Formal residential area</td>
<td>125.2 (24.0%)</td>
<td>171.2 (47.5%)</td>
<td>259.0 (70.815%)</td>
<td>101.0 (11.4%)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hospital</td>
<td>0.0 (0.0%)</td>
<td>2.9 (0.8%)</td>
<td>0.0 (0.0%)</td>
<td>0.0 (0.0%)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industries</td>
<td>0.0 (0.0%)</td>
<td>0.0 (0.0%)</td>
<td>48.5 (13.254%)</td>
<td>325.8 (36.7%)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Informal residential area</td>
<td>218.4 (41.8%)</td>
<td>42.9 (11.9%)</td>
<td>0.0 (0.0%)</td>
<td>3.7 (0.4%)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Municipal land</td>
<td>0.0 (0.0%)</td>
<td>0.0 (0.0%)</td>
<td>0.0 (0.0%)</td>
<td>140.0 (15.8%)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recreation</td>
<td>5.6 (1.1%)</td>
<td>19.4 (5.4%)</td>
<td>0.0 (0.0%)</td>
<td>6.6 (0.7%)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trees and bushes</td>
<td>152.0 (29.1%)</td>
<td>115.3 (32.0%)</td>
<td>25.5 (6.9653%)</td>
<td>298.9 (33.7%)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Planned undeveloped residential area</td>
<td>3.2 (0.6%)</td>
<td>0.0 (0.0%)</td>
<td>0.0 (0.0%)</td>
<td>2.4 (0.3%)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Water reservoir</td>
<td>1.5 (0.3%)</td>
<td>0.0 (0.0%)</td>
<td>0.0 (0.0%)</td>
<td>1.5 (0.2%)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>522.784</strong></td>
<td><strong>363.659</strong></td>
<td><strong>365.74</strong></td>
<td><strong>887.9</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>