



## human settlements

Department:  
Human Settlements  
**REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA**

# REPORT ON THE EVALUATION OF THE IMPACT OF THE RURAL HOUSING PROGRAMME 2009/10

AUGUST 2010



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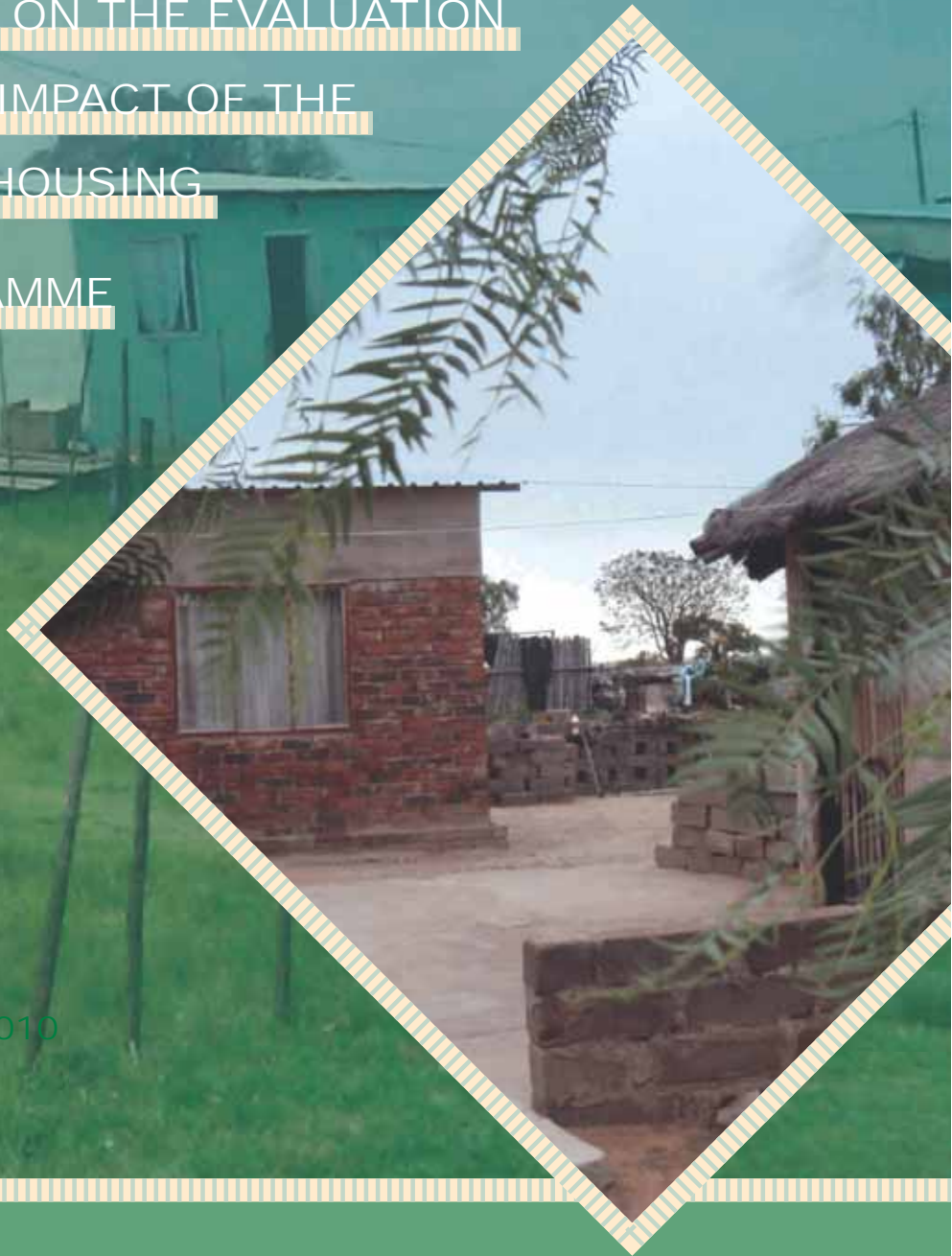
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Mr Phillip Chauke

Chief Director: Monitoring and Evaluation

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## ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

BNG:	Breaking New Ground
CLaRA:	Communal Land Right Act, 1994
DWAF:	Department of Water Affairs and Forestry
HSS:	Housing Subsidy Scheme
IDP:	Integrated Development Plan
KwaZulu-Natal:	Kwa-Zulu Natal
LRP:	Land Restitution Programme
MEC:	Member of the Executive Committee
NDOH:	National Department of Housing
NDOHS:	National Department of Human Settlements
NGO:	Non Governmental Organisation
NHBRC:	National Home Builder's Registration Council
PHP:	People's Housing Process
RHP:	Rural Housing Programme
UNCHS:	United Conference on Human Settlements
UNDP:	United Development Programme

## DEFINITION OF TERMS

### **Beneficiary:**

A person who has been allocated a housing subsidy with the particulars of such a person recorded on the National Housing Subsidy Database.

### **Communal Land:**

Land contemplated in section 2 (of the CLaRA) which is, or is to be, occupied or used by members of a community subject to the rules or custom of that community.

### **Community:**

A group of persons whose rights to land are derived from shared rules determining access to land held in common by such group.

### **Rural Housing Programme:**

A programme used to extend the benefits of the Housing Subsidy Scheme to individuals living in rural areas where they enjoy functional security of tenure as opposed to legal security of tenure to the land they occupy.



## EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

In August of 2009 the Department of Human Settlements commissioned a research study which focused on evaluating the impact of the Rural Housing Programme. The Rural Housing Programme is aimed at extending the benefits of the Housing Subsidy Scheme to individuals living in rural areas where they enjoy functional security of tenure as opposed to legal security of tenure to the land they occupy. The Programme has been implemented since 1994 and has yielded a total of 342 projects containing 166 961 planned units.

The purpose of the study was to evaluate the impact of the Rural Housing Programme specifically targeting the following:

- Attainment of policy objectives;
- Project procedures for accessing a Rural subsidy;
- Challenges facing delivery of housing utilising the Rural Housing Subsidy; and
- Appropriate indicators relating to social development; community development and special focus groups.

A questionnaire was used to collect primary data from a sample of nine thousand six hundred and thirty nine (9639) beneficiaries of the Rural Housing Programme. Interviews were also conducted with key informants at Provincial Departments of Human Settlements; Municipalities and communities. Quantitative data was analysed using the SPSS data analysis software. Qualitative data was analysed using the thematic and content analysis approaches.

### ***Overall findings***

The sample was made up of 69.1% (n=6035) females and 30.9% (n=2705) males. Of these 99.9% (n=8617) were South African while 0.1% (n=9) held citizenships from other countries. A small proportion of respondents were beneficiaries of the Land Restitution Programme (1.1%, n=96) and military veterans (0.6%, n=51) while a significant proportion of the respondents had either a physical or mental disability (11.4%, n=987).

**Age.** A higher percentage of the respondents were 60 years of age and above (26.4%, n=2248). This was followed by the 40-49 years (20.6%, n=1758); 30-39 years (20.5%, n=1745) and 50-59 (19.7%, n=1679) age categories. The proportion of respondents in the 20-29 age group and those under 20 years age group were 10.8% (n=924) and 1.9% (n=166) respectively.

**Marital status.** 42.6% (n=3686) of the respondents were single while 9.6% (n=826) were unmarried but living with a partner, 31.3% (n=2709) were married and living with a spouse; 15.0% (n=1296) were widowed; and 1.5% (n=131) divorced.

**Employment.** Only 15.4% (n=1284) were gainfully employed as compared to 84.6% (n=7076) who were unemployed. With regard to household sources of income, respondents reported their source-

es of income as wage/contract/seasonal work (10.7%, n=853); retirement/disability benefits (9.2%, n=736); self-employment (8.7%, n=696); and basic salary/full time employment (8.6%, n=691).

**Government grants & services.** A higher percentage of the respondents received the child-support grant (30.0%, n=3600) while 20.3% (n=2454) receive an old-age grant and 5.4% (n=656) receive a disability grant. In so far as services are concerned, 24.3% (n=2944) of the respondents reported receiving free basic water while only 4.5% (n=548) receive free basic electricity. A furthermore 6.2% (n=748) had school fees exemption for their dependants.

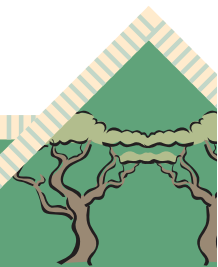
**Financial dependants.** The study also reveals that beneficiaries generally have, on average, two dependant children under the age of 18 years and two adult dependants respectively.

**Ownership of property.** A significant proportion of the respondents (16.6%; n=1365) reported that they (or their spouses) owned fixed property while 83.4% (n=6834) indicated that they never owned any fixed residential property. Only a small proportion of the respondents indicated that they (or their spouses) have benefited from the government's subsidy scheme before (7.3%; n=617). With regard to the number of years it took for the housing subsidy to be allocated to them, respondents reported as follows: Less than 1 year (31.1%; n=2702); 1-2 yrs (19.4%; n=1679); 3-4 yrs (25.9%; n=2244); 5-6 yrs (16.1%; n=1395); 7-8 yrs (3.2%; n=277); and 9-10 yrs (4.4%; n=380). Asked about the frequency of their occupying the subsidised houses, most of the respondents (81.6%; n=6972) indicated that they were permanent fulltime occupants of their houses, as compared to a small proportion (10.1%; n=867) who occupied their properties almost every time, (6.4%, n=551) who occupied their houses sometimes and (1.9%, n=159) who never occupied their houses at all. (1.9%; n=159). An overwhelming majority of the respondents (72.2%; n=6120) were in possession of documentary proof indicating that they had the right to occupy land.

A higher percentage of the properties had three (3) rooms (41.4%; n=3526); followed by those with two (2) rooms (37.2%; n=3169) and four (4) rooms (14.8%; n=1256). A small proportion of the properties had one (1) room (3.6%; n=309) while (3.0%, n=253) had five (5) or more rooms. A significant proportion of the properties had some structural improvements (19.1%; n=1513) whereas 80.9% (n=6426) of the properties did not have any structural improvements at all.

Regarding sanitation, more than half of the households (56.0%) reported using communal tap/boreholes, while 18.5% had house connections and 2.5% use water from their own boreholes. A significant proportion of respondents get their water from natural sources including rivers (15.2%; n=1346); springs (3.8%; n=337) and wells (0.5%; n=48). Of these only 3.5% (n=310) did not have access to portable water at all. With regard to toilet facilities, a higher percentage of the households were using simple pit latrines (48.3%), while 28.5% were using ventilated improved pit (VIP) latrines. A further 11.2% (n=914) of households had connections to public sewer while 1.5% (n=121) had connections to the septic system. A small proportion of the respondents still use the bucket toilets 5.5% (n=448) while 5.0% (n=409) reported that they did not have any toilet facilities at all.

A higher percentage of the households had electricity 66.4% (n=5729) while 33.6% (n=2904) did not have any electricity at all. A substantial majority of those who have electricity use the pre-paid electricity system (91.9%; n=5379).





On the availability of public transport 70.6% (n=6048) of the respondents indicated that transport was available to them *every day* while 13.5% (n=1154) have access to transport *almost every day*. 9.5% (n=816) have access to transport *some days* while 6.4% (n=550) do not have access to transport at all. The percentages of access to Healthcare facilities by households within a 5km range are as follow: community clinics 53.4% (n=5056); mobile clinics 28.0% (n=2656); hospitals 3.1% (n=294); general practitioners 2.7% (n=257); and health centres 2.6% (n= 248). However, 10.1% (n=960) of the respondents reported that there were no healthcare facilities available within a 5km range. Primary schools were accessible to 43.8% (n=6342) of the households; crèches to 27.2% (n=3943) and secondary schools to 29.0% (n=4186) of the households. The types of shopping facilities available were: Spaza shops- accessible to 68.1% (n=6788); local general dealers-accessible to 22.1% (n=2204); and chain supermarkets-accessible to 5.5% (n=545) of the respondents. Only 4.3% (n=430) of the respondents reported that they did not have access to any shopping facilities.

### ***Process Evaluation***

- The beneficiary registration and application of subsidy was mainly handled at community level and municipalities facilitated the process. Ward committees were used for the purpose of beneficiary registration as well as other community members identified by ward councilors.
- Most Rural Housing Projects appointed developers for the implementation process. However some projects (especially in the Eastern Cape) were implemented by the beneficiary community members through the People Housing Process (PHP).
- The study revealed that the rural housing projects were mainly implemented by the Provincial Departments while municipalities played a monitoring role in the process. However in some cases, both the municipality and the Provincial Department implemented the projects jointly.
- Developers were paid based on progress made or the achievement of milestones.
- The study also found that project implementation monitoring at project level was a challenge across all the Provinces. One critical concern that emanated from this study was the delay in the completion of the rural housing projects.
- The study found that there were no services handed to municipalities on completion of projects given the nature of the Rural Housing Programme. Subsidised houses were mainly built where people were already occupying the land and important services such as electricity, bulk water and other related services were installed prior to the implementation of the projects.

### ***Attainment of Policy Objectives***

- In all the projects evaluated, the subsidies were allocated to persons who enjoy informal land rights protected by the Community Land Rights Act.
- The beneficiaries of the RHP were, to a greater extent, involved in the planning of the projects as illustrated by the 89.6 percentage positive response rate in the study. However, there are clear

indications that beneficiaries are less involved in project implementation.

- The study found that, to a larger extent, rural housing projects were incorporated into their municipalities' Integrated Development Plans (IDPs).
- The funding for all projects was made available within the context of an approved housing development project, including those undertaken in accordance with the People Housing Process (PHP).
- On the whole, the rural housing subsidies were allocated to qualifying individual beneficiaries who were South African residents (99.9%; n=8617) and competent to contract. Most of the beneficiaries had not benefited from government assistance (92.7%; n=7842) and had hitherto not owned a fixed residential property (83.4%; n=6834). Beneficiaries were married or cohabiting (40.9%); single with financial dependents or single without financial dependents. Most of the beneficiaries depended on government grants for their monthly household income (55.7%). The RHP also catered for beneficiaries of the Land Restitution Programme (1.1%) and persons classified as Military Veterans (0.6%). Furthermore vulnerable and/or designated groups also benefited from the RHP, including women (69.1%); people with disability (11.4%); and the aged (26.4%).
- In all the projects evaluated the beneficiary community members' rights to land were uncontested. In terms of individual beneficiaries being in possession of documentary proof from tribal authorities indicating that they had the right to occupy land, the majority of the respondents (72.2%) were in possession of such documentary proof of security of communal land tenure, while 27.8% did not have any documentation at all!
- Provincial departments and municipalities do not have a defined procedure for the reallocation of the subsidised units.
- Developmental activities covered by the RHP funding were within the scope prescribed in the Rural Housing Policy prescripts and provisions. Additional activities covered by the project funding were energy supply and project management.

### ***Impact on individuals and communities***

- Beneficiaries' perceptions suggested that the Rural Housing Programme provided safe living environments within which people's dignity is restored.
- Beneficiaries had access to portable clean water. However KZN is a source of great concern with a high percentage of beneficiaries obtaining water from natural resources. Although the new houses that were built came with toilet facilities, their conditions and/or functionality call for serious concerns.
- Although the study revealed that a higher percentage (66.4%) of the households had electricity, 33.6% did not have access to electricity at all. It was also found that only 4.5% of the beneficiaries of the RHP had access to free basic electricity.



### ***Challenges facing delivery of housing utilising the Rural Housing Subsidy***

- Limited funding for the implementation of projects
- Lack of implementation monitoring mechanisms
- Corruption
- Structural defects
- Inadequate Information Management System
- Institutional Memory Loss Syndrome

### ***The following recommendations are made:***

- Strengthen synergy between housing supply, water supply and sanitation, and access to energy.
- In order to monitor the implementation of the programme effectively, the HSS will have to be updated continuously so as to ensure that it remains relevant. Furthermore, the HSS should provide for a systematic assessment of trends in various projects. Performance criteria for contractors will have to be integrated into the Monitoring and Evaluation Framework to promote a performance-based approach to housing delivery.
- Sustain project benefits: Ensure functional partnerships between developers, municipalities, community structures, Provincial Departments with the support from NHBRC and the National Department of Human Settlements. On completion of each project, physical conditions of the infrastructure, and sanitation infrastructure, are monitored, initially by the implementing agent in conjunction with the concerned municipality and community structures so that timely corrective measures can be taken. The National Department, in partnership with Provincial Departments and Municipalities, should embark on a process of rectifying the structural defects that are dangerous to the beneficiaries.
- Establish a data bank for baseline studies: On conceptualisation of each project, it is important that baseline studies are conducted. This will be of importance in assessing results of the programme and in conducting impact evaluation studies.
- Capacity development: Strengthening the capacity of municipalities and Provincial Departments has a potential to generate positive spin-off effects which can be valuable in the implementation of future projects. The capacity of community structures will have to be strengthened for implementing housing programmes. Intensive information, education, and communication campaigns will have to be developed and implemented to promote public awareness.



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# CHAPTER 1

## INTRODUCTION

### 1.1 Background and Context

The Department of Human Settlements, in August of 2009, commissioned a research study to conduct an evaluation of the impact of the Rural Housing Programme. The Rural Housing Programme is aimed at extending the benefits of the Housing Subsidy Scheme to individuals living in rural areas where they enjoy functional security of tenure as opposed to legal security of tenure to the land they occupy. The purpose of this report is to provide the findings of the research study and make recommendations for further planning and policy considerations.

The South African government has a constitutional responsibility to ensure that every South African has access to permanent housing that provides secure tenure, privacy, protection from the elements and access to basic services. To ensure this, the government has embarked on a housing development programme generally acknowledged to be one of the largest of its kind in the developing world. According to Rust (2006) the South African framework for housing development has been able to set an international precedent to the extent that it led to the delivery of more subsidised houses than in any other country in the world”

Towards tackling the housing challenge, the South African government has built on the policy articulated in the 1994 White Paper on Housing, to conceptualise a comprehensive plan for the Development of sustainable human settlements - Breaking New Ground (BNG, 2004). The BNG shifts the strategic focus of housing policy from the simple delivery of low cost housing to the delivery of low cost housing and mixed use development/human settlements in settlements that are both sustainable and habitable. As part of this policy shift, government:

- emphasises the development of social housing options;
- implements inclusive housing policy requirements;
- promotes the upgrading of informal settlements; and
- simplifies the administration of the housing subsidy programme and extends the reach of this programme.

The BNG Plan acknowledges, upfront, that the existing supply-side and commoditised housing programme reflects a significant and inherent urban bias and, therefore, identifies the need to reduce urban bias in housing delivery, through a stronger focus on rural housing instruments. This Plan further acknowledges that rural housing instruments are likely to be strongly directed towards the installation of infrastructure rather than provision of houses.

A fair amount of work has been done with regard to reviewing and initiating policy pieces that will enhance rural housing delivery. These include:

- Farm Worker and Occupier Housing Assistance Programme;
- Labour Tenant Housing Assistance Programme;
- The Communal Land Rights Act, 2004; and the
- Rural Housing Programme.

The Rural Housing Programme has been implemented since 1994 and has yielded a total of 342 projects with 166 961 planned units across seven Provinces, namely: The Eastern Cape; Free State; KwaZulu-Natal; Limpopo; Mpumalanga; North West and Northern Cape (Provincial databases as in October 2009).

## 1.2 Objectives of the study

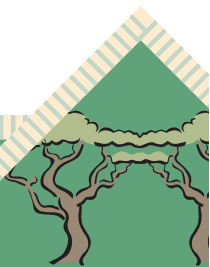
The main purpose of the study was to evaluate the impact of the Rural Housing Programme with regard to:

### 1.2.1 Attainment of policy objectives as articulated through the following principles:

- The interim protection of Informal Land Rights Act
- Subsidies
- Community participation
- Coordinated approach
- Access to funding
- Subsidy to individual beneficiary community member
- Security of communal land tenure
- Reallocation of subsidised unit
- Developmental activities covered by the approved project funding

### 1.2.2 Project procedures for accessing a Rural Subsidy

- Approval of project application and project implementation
- Application processes and appointment of the implementation agent.
- Approval of project application and project implementation
- Project completion and handing over of services to the municipality.



### 1.2.3 Challenges facing delivery of housing utilising the Rural Housing Subsidy:

- Land disputes between the tribal authorities and the municipalities
- Completion of geotechnical surveys and Environmental Impact Assessments
- Addressing integrated sustainable development
- Proper infrastructure installation

### 1.2.4 At the level of the communities involved, the evaluation must be based on an investigation of appropriate indicators relating to social development; community development and special focus groups

The evaluation process was anticipated to:

- confirm if the Rural Housing Programme is relevant,
- indicate if the programme is effective,
- highlight if the monitoring results are representative,
- reveal if the programme is efficient. Outline if the effects of the programme are being achieved at an acceptable cost compared to alternative approaches to providing the same services,
- show if the programme is sustainable, i.e. financially and institutionally,
- indicate if the programme has the desired effect, and
- outline future changes that should be made.

## 1.3 Organisation of the report

The report has six sections:

- Section 2 introduces the reader to the relevant literature pertaining to the Rural Housing Programme.
- Section 3 outlines the research methodology adopted for the study.
- Section 4 presents the results of the study.
- Section 5 summarises the performance assessment of the Rural Housing Programme in terms of process; attainment of policy objectives; and impact on individuals and communities. The key lessons learned are also provided.
- Section 6 provides conclusions and recommendations of the study.



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## CHAPTER 2

### LITERATURE REVIEW

#### 2.1 The South African Housing Plan

Housing development is defined as: "... the establishment and maintenance of habitable, stable and sustainable public and private residential environments to ensure viable households and communities in areas allowing convenient access to economic opportunities, and to health, educational and social amenities in which all citizens and permanent residents of the Republic will, on a progressive basis, have access to:

- Permanent residential structures with secure tenure, ensuring internal and external privacy and providing adequate protection against the elements; and
- Potable water, adequate sanitary facilities and domestic energy supply." (Housing Act 107 of 1997).

**The goal for the housing development programme is to improve the quality of living of all South Africans. The emphasis of the efforts is on the poor and those who have been previously disadvantaged.**

#### 2.2 Regulatory Framework for the delivery of the Housing Programme in South Africa

The formulation of South Africa's Housing Policy commenced prior to the democratic elections, with the formation of the National Housing Forum. This forum was a multi-party non-governmental negotiating body comprising 19 members from business, the community, government, development organisations and political parties outside the government at the time. At these negotiations the foundation for the new government's Housing policy were developed and agreed upon. This culminated in the achievement of the broad housing sector convention also referred to as the Housing Accord that concluded in the White Paper on Housing. The White Paper on Housing, published in December 1994, sets out the framework for the National Housing Policy. All policy programmes and guidelines which followed fell within the framework set out in the White Paper.

**The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa Act 108 of 1996** defines fundamental values, such as equality, human dignity, and freedom of movement and residence, to which the housing policy must subscribe. In terms of section 26 of the Constitution every citizen has the right to have access to adequate housing. The state is required to take reasonable legislative and other measures, within its available resources, to achieve the progressive realisation of this right. Furthermore, the constitution states that no person may be evicted from their home, or have their home demolished, without an order of court made after considering all the relevant circumstances. No legislation may permit arbitrary evictions. Section 25 of the Constitution states that government "must take reason-

able legislative and other measures within its available resources, to foster conditions which enable citizens to gain access to land on an equitable basis.”

The implications of the foregoing quotation are that people in rural settlements may not be refused a subsidy towards home ownership, evicting a person from their house because of their social status is also unlawful and further that it is the responsibility of government to mobilise resources to ensure that every citizen (including those in rural settlements) have access to adequate housing and access to land.

In 1997 **the Housing Act 107 of 1997** was promulgated resulting in the legislation and the extension of the provisions set out in the White Paper on Housing. This gave legal foundation to the implementation of the government's Housing Programme. The Housing Act aligned the National Housing Policy with the Constitution of South Africa and clarified the roles and responsibilities of the three spheres of government: national, provincial and municipal. Section 2(1) (a) of the Housing Act No. 107 of 1997 compels all three spheres of government to give priority to the needs of the poor in respect of housing development.

The foregoing means that Provincial governments are constitutionally responsible for supporting municipalities in implementing the Rural Housing Programme. National and provincial governments have the legislative and executive authority to ensure that municipalities implement the programme effectively. It is the responsibility of national and provincial governments to support and strengthen the capacity of municipalities to manage the implementation of the Rural Housing Programme.

The government has also enacted the Communal Land Rights Act 11 of 2004 (**CLaRA**) aimed at communal land tenure reform which has an impact on the application of the Rural Housing programme. This means that beneficiaries of the Rural Housing Programme are entitled to tenure which is legally secure or to comparable redress if the tenure of land of such community or person is legally insecure as a result of past racially discriminatory laws or practices. Furthermore, women beneficiaries are as much entitled to the same legally secure tenure, rights in or to land and benefits from land as are men. Rural women will, therefore, not be discriminated against on the basis of their gender. ,

**The Interim Protection of Informal Land Rights Act, 1996**, provides for the protection of informal rights to land until these rights are converted to new order rights. The Act does not distinguish between “communal” or “rural” and other land, or land held by the State and land held by individuals or the private sector. The Department of Land Affairs, therefore, provides interim procedures governing the developmental decisions concerning state land in so-called rural areas, which requires the consent of the Minister of Land Affairs as nominal owner of the land. To this end beneficiaries of the Rural Housing Programme with insecure tenure are protected by the Act from losing their rights to land (and subsidised house) while land reform is being introduced

The Guidelines to assist in the implementation of the housing vision and principles are incorporated in the Housing Act, 1997. These include the National Norms and Standards for Permanent Residential Structures, National Building Regulations, Environmentally Sound Low-Cost Housing Guidelines and Guidelines for Human Settlement Planning and Design. The National Norms and Standards in respect of permanent residential structures define the minimum size of permanent residential structures to be provided (30m<sup>2</sup>), although not mandatory in respect of dwellings and or projects that are



developed in terms of the Rural Housing Subsidy Instrument. The National Building Regulations aim to promote uniformity in the law relating to the erection of buildings in the areas of jurisdiction of local authority; prescribe building standards; and matters connected therewith. Guidelines for Human Settlement Planning and Design are aimed at assisting professionals in designing sustainable human settlements.

The housing vision is also reinforced by the Rural Development Framework (1997). The framework shows where inter-sectoral planning and coordination are needed for resources to be used productively for rural development. The vision of rural development as set out in the said document has two main tenets related to:

- governance and the provision of physical infrastructure (water supplies, electricity, etc.) and social services (education and health care), and
- the enabling framework essential for rural livelihoods to expand and thrive, principally, by restoring basic economic rights to marginalised rural areas.

In September 2004 cabinet approved the **Comprehensive Housing Plan for the Development of Integrated Sustainable Human Settlements**. The new human settlements plan, also known as Breaking New Ground (BNG, 2004) reinforces the vision of the Department of Housing, to promote the achievement of a non-racial, integrated society through the development of sustainable human settlements and quality housing. The BNG Plan acknowledges that the existing supply-side and commoditised housing programme reflects a significant and inherent urban bias. Hence the need to reduce the urban bias in housing delivery through a stronger focus on rural housing instruments which, amongst others, include the Rural Housing Programme. The human settlement plan envisages the following interventions:

- Developing a rural housing programme to deal with a comprehensive range of rural housing related matters such as tenure, livelihood strategies and broader socio-cultural issues.
- Enhancing traditional technologies and indigenous knowledge used to construct housing in rural areas and to improve shelter, services and tenure where these are priorities for the people living there.
- Developing appropriate funding mechanisms to support the rural housing programme. (BNG, 2004)

South Africa is also a signatory to the **Habitat Agenda (1996)**. This includes a commitment to: *“Improve living and working conditions on an equitable and sustainable basis, so that everyone will have adequate shelter that is healthy, safe, secure, accessible, affordable and that includes basic services, facilities and amenities and will enjoy freedom from discrimination in housing and legal security of tenure”* (Habitat Agenda, 1996). Implicit in this is the promotion of “safe” and “secure” housing for all who live in South Africa - from the poorest of the poor to the very wealthy.

The current legislation regime which aims at regulating the provision of integrated human settlements has far-reaching implications not only for the provision of “safe” and “secure” housing for all, but for ensuing social sustainability in communities.

## 2.3 Contextualisation of rural settlements

For the purposes of this study 'rural' areas are defined as the sparsely populated areas in which people farm or depend on natural resources, including villages and small towns that are dispersed through these areas. In addition, they include the large settlements in the former homelands, created by the apartheid removals, which depend for their survival on migratory labour and remittances (Rural Development Framework, 2007)

STATS SA shows that the urban population is greater than the rural population and that in recent years more and more people are becoming permanent residents in cities. In 2001 the country's urbanisation level (the proportion of the population living in urban areas at any given moment) was recorded at 56,26%, a proportion which the global level only reached in 2005, with an urbanisation rate of 5-6 per cent per year (Kok and Collinson, 2006). SACN (2006) predicted that 90% of all future population growth will be in cities, and the bulk of this will be in cities in the developing world. Despite the growth in urban population, a substantial number of South African households still reside in rural areas. Hence housing development in rural areas is of vital importance in transforming the social and economic landscape of the country (NDOH, 2007). The rural population, furthermore, constitutes some of the poorest households in the country with the most vulnerable being people with disability; the aged; youth and women (particularly widows and single heads of households).

Rural settlements in South Africa vary from small towns dependent on agriculture to extensive sparsely settled areas interspersed with individual homesteads (typical of the tribal areas where people are settled with communal tenure). Owing to past policies rural settlements in the former homelands can also be quite large and without an economic base. While access to social amenities and public utilities depends on local circumstances, many rural villages continue to be marginalised into very poor living conditions.

About 70 percent of Africa's poor are rural (Central Statistic Authority, 2000). Rural communities typically lack a strong economic base and their household incomes lag far behind those of urban areas in South Africa (DWAF, 2002). Simply stated, rural residents lack the disposable income to pay the high water, sewer and electric costs resulting from the small size of the community and lack of a visible local economy. The end result is that most rural municipalities have difficulties collecting on utility bills and almost never have adequate reserves built up to pay for ongoing operation and maintenance of the local infrastructure system. Given this economic reality, more cost-effective and cheaper solutions to the sanitation problem need to be explored.

### 2.3.1 Housing Conditions

According to the UNCHS (1995), most rural settlements in developing countries have low-household income and use simple technology and materials in shelter construction. However, most have, over the years, evolved forms of shelter that are suited for their natural environments. The majority of rural inhabitants are able to provide their own shelter within the context of subsistence economies. However a number of problems persist. These include, but are not limited to, the following:

- The widespread absence of safe water supplies and sanitation facilities





- The inability to increase the size of homes as individual households grow, resulting in overcrowding
- The prevalence of structural defects including leaking roofs, unstable walls and poor floors, becoming structurally dangerous
- The inability to construct houses robust enough to withstand the vagaries of nature including floods and winds. (UNCHS Habitat, 1995)

### 2.3.2 Sanitation

Adequate sanitation is a source of major concern. In Africa, only about 60% of the population is said to have adequate sanitation coverage, ranging from (45%) in the rural areas to (84%) in the urban areas (Tumwine, Thomson, Katui-Katua, Mujwanhuzi, Johnstone & Porras, 2003). The situation is not different in South Africa. In 1994 it was estimated, in South Africa, that approximately 21 million people did not have access to adequate sanitation services (DWAF, 1994). At the beginning of this period (2001) the national backlog of persons without access to adequate sanitation facilities was estimated to be 18 million or 3 million households. The majority of persons falling in this category live in rural areas, peri-urban areas and informal settlement areas. It is also estimated that up to 26% of urban households and 76% of rural households have inadequate sanitation. This backlog was further reduced during the next year by 2.4 million persons. According to the Department of Water and Forestry, 86% of all households in South Africa have some form of water provision, even if it is a stand pipe up to 200m away.

The poor access to adequate sanitation is exacerbated by structural constraints including inadequate water supplies, poor facilities for the safe disposal of water and other domestic waste, inadequate toilet facilities and hand washing facilities. Studies by both the Human Science Research Council (HSRC) and the CRLS indicate that a large number of the farms have sub- Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) levels of sanitation. Only about 66% of on-farm sanitation meets the standards of the RDP (GoSA, 1994).

Despite the above mentioned challenges, it is important to acknowledge that plans are in place to expand access to water and sanitation in rural areas. The Department of Water Affairs has instituted a Programme on Water Supply and Sanitation which aims to ensure that all South Africans have access to an adequate portable water supply (defined as 20-25 litres per capita per day within 200 metres of the household) and an adequate and safe sanitation facility per site, over the next nine years (Department of Land Affairs, 2007).

### 2.3.3 Access to energy

Free basic electricity (FBE) of 50kWh per household per month for a grid-energy system (connected through the national electrification programme) is provided to poor households in South Africa. This amount of electricity is enough to provide basic lighting, basic water heating using a kettle, ironing and access to a small black and white TV and radio.

The majority of people living in rural areas are very poor. Their access to sources of fuel energy is very limited and the principal obstacles to improving access to energy sources include the limited distribution network and the high initial costs of extending it; the recurrent cost of conventional energy supplies; and the lack of information for poor people about alternative energy sources including possible sources of finance (Department of Land Affairs, 1997)

The lack of adequate access to energy in rural areas is an obstacle to the undertaking of essential domestic, agricultural, and educational tasks; to health and transport services; and to the initiation or development of manufacturing or trading enterprises. These have a negative impact on the sustainable livelihoods of rural beneficiaries.

#### 2.3.4 Health care, schools and other social facilities

Diseases of poverty, such as infectious diseases, maternal and infant illness and mortality are all too common in rural areas. A high number of rural children die of easily preventable illnesses. The target throughout the country is to have one clinic for every 5000 people, offering free primary health care and ensuring that essential drugs are available at each facility. These clinics will be supplemented by mobile units serving sparsely populated rural areas (Department of Land Affairs, 1997).

The lack of, or poor access to, healthcare centres, schools, and other social and recreational facilities is a challenge for rural dwellers. Limitations in access to healthcare are primarily due to physical constraints in mobility (Atkinson et al., 2002, 2003). This is particularly true with regard to the needs of rural women, elderly people and children to have access to appropriate schooling, healthcare and other social amenities, increasingly only available in urban areas. For example, Atkinson et al.'s (2002) research found rural availability and access to mobile clinics to be declining in many areas due to low population densities. The lack or limited availability of clinics and emergency services for rural dwellers is even more distressing in the light of the HIV and AIDS pandemic. Easy access to health facilities will ensure the promotion of health in communities and the prevention of diseases amongst the most vulnerable groups such as women; children and people with disabilities.

#### 2.3.5 Transport

In their research Atkinson et al. (2002, 2003) note the difficulties and frustration of rural dwellers, especially farm workers who experience lack of transportation. This has consequences beyond physical mobility as it engenders social, cultural and economic isolation. Atkinson et al. (2003) argue that the need for the Department of Transport to accept greater responsibility in ensuring affordable transportation for rural dwellers is of paramount importance in order to ensure farm workers' socio-economic inclusion.

The key factors towards integrated human settlements in rural areas will be to ensure that rural housing development plans facilitates the provision of adequate sanitation; access to energy; health and education facilities and accessible public transport.



## 2.4 Overview of the Rural Housing Programme in South Africa

The Comprehensive Plan for the Creation of Sustainable Human Settlements confirms the goals of a needs-orientated, rural housing development programme that will preserve the rural landscape and provide/cater for traditional technologies, appropriate funding mechanisms, address the important issues of tenure security, livelihood strategies and accommodation of broader socio-cultural matters. The Rural Housing Programme is aimed at extending the benefits of the Housing Subsidy Scheme to individuals living in rural areas where they enjoy functional security of tenure, as opposed to legal security of tenure, to the land they occupy. Due to the differing housing needs across the rural landscape, the rural housing subsidy has been designed to support infrastructure development; house building; upgrading of existing services or the upgrading of existing housing structures. The subsidies under the programme are only available to community members who meet the qualification criteria (National Housing Code, 2007).

The vision of the Rural Housing Programme as stipulated in the Housing Act, 1997 is to provide rural settlements that, by 2020, will ensure:

- greater access for rural people to government support and information and to commercial services, with a more logical spatial network of towns, services, roads and transport systems serving both market traders and customers;
- immediate availability of water, sanitation and fuel sources, giving everyone more time for economic productivity and better health;
- dignity, safety and security of access for all, especially women, to useful employment, housing, and land, with people able to exercise control over their society, community and personal lives, and to invest in the future.

*Rural Subsidies* are available to beneficiaries who only enjoy functional tenure rights to the land they occupy. The subsidies are only available on a project basis and beneficiaries are supported by implementing agents. Beneficiaries also have the right to decide on how to use their subsidies either for service provision, on building of houses or a combination thereof.

### 2.4.1 Key Principles of the Rural Housing Programme

The programme is governed by the following principles as stipulated in the National Housing Code, 2007:

- **Security of communal land tenure:** It is a pre-requisite for the allocation of subsidies under this programme that the beneficiary community members' rights are uncontested and that they qualify for or acquire a new order right to the piece of land allocated to them.
- **The interim protection of Informal Land Rights Act:** The housing subsidies allocated to beneficiaries under this programme are awarded to persons who enjoy informal land rights protected by the provisions of this Act.

- **Subsidies:** Subsidies under this programme will only be approved if no form of other subsidies can be applied for.
- **Community participation:** Members of the beneficiary community must participate in all aspects of the housing development that is planned and will be undertaken. Where CLaRA is applicable the participation must also take place through the representative Land Administration Committee.
- **Coordinated Approach:** Projects funded under this programme are to be in line with municipal and district integrated development plans, relevant services sector plans and coordinated between all stakeholders, interested and affected parties concerned, including the relevant spheres of government, specific line departments responsible for land management and services provision, the traditional council, Land Administration Committee or community members as applicable.
- **Access to funding:** Funding under this programme can only be available within the context of an approved housing development project and may only be accessed on an individual basis
- **Subsidy to individual beneficiary community members:** The housing subsidy will be deemed to be allocated to each individual qualifying beneficiary community member, the particulars of whom will be recorded on the National Housing Subsidy Database.
- **Reallocation of subsidised unit:** In the event of a piece of land being vacated by the beneficiary community member for whatever reason, the Land Administration Committee must ensure that the vacant residential structure is re-allocated to another individual qualifying beneficiary community member, the participants of whom should be forwarded to the Provincial Housing Department and recorded on the National Housing Subsidy Database.
- **Development Activities covered by the approved project funding:** Project funds may be used for any development which, in the view of the MEC, represents housing purposes and may include the following:
  - o Assistance to municipalities to prepare project applications including the provision of project application, planning, land surveying, design, project management and facilitation, and implementation agent's services.
  - o Development or upgrading of local access and internal roads and storm water drains
  - o Development or upgrading of internal or local water infrastructure
  - o Development or upgrading of local sanitation facilities
  - o Construction of new housing structure or the repair and upgrading of existing houses
  - o Purchasing of building materials where persons wish to construct, repair or upgrade their own houses
  - o Housing purposes approved by the MEC which is not, or cannot be funded through other programmes of government and require funding under this programme, and will be of benefit to all beneficiaries that form part of the project.
  - o Instances where the houses in the aggregate are considered to be adequate, the housing subsidy may be utilised for the provision of residential engineering services or other housing purpose.



#### 2.4.2. Qualification Criteria for the Rural Housing Programme

The beneficiaries of the Rural Housing programme need to meet specific criteria as outlined in the National Housing Code, 2007.

- **Residents:** An applicant must be a citizen of the Republic of South Africa, or be in the possession of a permanent resident permit.
- **Competent to contract:** An applicant must be legally competent to contract (i.e. over 21 years of age, or married or legally divorced and of sound mind).
- **Not yet benefited from government assistance:** The beneficiary and/or his or her spouse must not have previously derived benefits from the housing subsidy scheme, or any other state funded or assisted housing subsidy scheme which conferred benefits of ownership, leasehold or deed of grant or the right to convert the title obtained to either ownership, leasehold or deed of grant received previous housing benefits from the Government. Except in the following:
  - o *Not previously owned a fixed residential property:* Neither the person nor his/her spouse has previously owned or currently owns a fixed residential property
  - o *Married or Cohabiting:* The beneficiary must be married or habitually cohabits with any other person.
  - o *Single with Financial Dependents:* A single person with proven financial dependants (such as children or family members) may also apply.
  - o *Single persons without financial dependents:* The subsidy may be allocated to such individuals at the discretion of the MEC to inter alia make provision for widows and others who may have lost their dependents.
  - o *Monthly Household Income:* Persons must comply with the provisions of the programme funding schedule as annually approved by MINMEC.
  - o *Persons who are beneficiaries of the land Restitution Programme (LRP):* Beneficiaries of the LRP, should they comply with the other housing subsidy qualification criteria.
  - o *Persons classified as military veterans:* Military veterans who are single without financial dependants may also apply for subsidies.
  - o *Persons in polygamous unions:* Polygamous unions are recognised and subsidies may be allocated accordingly.

#### 2.4.3 Norms and Standards for the Implementation of the Rural Housing Programme

The rural housing Policy requires of the members of the beneficiary community to have access to the following:

- Permanent residential structures with secure tenure, ensuring internal and external privacy and providing adequate protection against the elements.
- Portable water and adequate sanitary facilities provided to be sustainable, environmentally ac-



ceptable and comply with local circumstances.

- Upgrading of services only should not be allowed unless the community has adequate housing (National Housing Code, 2007).

## 2.5 Contemporary Case Studies

In relation to the array of literature on housing policy world-wide, only a limited amount of literature exists with regard to rural housing programmes. In fact, it seems that internationally, general research with regard to the lives of rural dwellers, as well as on development-related aspects in this regard, has received limited attention. In some countries where the rural housing programmes have been implemented, they have often been based on approaches and methods used within towns and cities and have failed to take account of the special socio-economic circumstances and needs of rural areas.

In this section three case studies relating to the implementation of the rural housing programmes are presented. The first case, the Malawi rural housing Programme, illustrates the way in which rural shelter provision can contribute to rural poverty reduction through employment creation in the areas of building materials production and construction. The second case is of Gutu-Mupandawa Housing Project in Zimbabwe, which illustrates how programmes and projects focusing on rural growth points and service centres can meet the shelter needs of non-agricultural rural inhabitants, including school teachers, medical personnel, rural industry employees and those employed in service provision rural enterprises. The third case is of Ecuador, which demonstrates how income generating enterprises can be integrated within rural shelter programmes in order to enhance shelter affordability and reduce poverty among the poor. The case also illustrates a number of key issues which should be taken into account in the formulation of rural shelter policies.

### 2.5.1 The Malawian Experience:

#### The Malawi Rural Housing Programme

The Malawi Rural Housing Programme was launched in 1981 with the help of UNCHS (Habitat), UNDP and UNCDF. Malawi is a small landlocked country in the Southern Africa region which shares borders with Zambia, Tanzania and Mozambique. Malawi is one of Sub-Saharan Africa's most densely populated countries with a population of 12.8 million inhabitants over an area of 118 484km and had its growth rate increasing from 2.38% in 2002 to 3.3% in 2006. In 2005 more than half of the population was under the age of 15 (Financial Mail, 2007). The most important rural economic activities are agriculture (mostly subsistence) and fishing. As a result, most rural families are not able to pay for any kind of house improvement using conventional building materials and construction methods. Housing conditions within rural areas are generally very poor with a majority of rural housing being structurally unsafe. In addition, the houses lack adequate ventilation and natural lighting and generally constitute a fire hazard.

It should be noted that the provision or improvement of rural shelter contributes to qualitative and quantitative improvements in one major dimension of rural poverty. Shelter improvements also results in the improvement of health, an important part of poverty in rural areas. Shelter also provides the physical context or location for a wide variety of income-generation activities (UNCHS, 1995).



The main aim of the Malawian Rural Housing Programme was to motivate, encourage and assist rural families to improve their housing conditions. Given the fact that the majority of rural families could not afford any kind of house improvement using conventional building materials and construction techniques, the programme focused on the development and use of low-cost building materials in order to reduce the cost of housing. To achieve this, the following three objectives were set for the first preparatory phase of the programme; the development and improvement of indigenous building material, the development of low-cost construction techniques and sample house designs capable of extension in stages, and the training of local artisans in the production of improved local building materials and their use in house construction.

The second aim of the programme was to enable rural families to finance house improvement through the provision of loans in the form of building materials at affordable terms and conditions. Thirdly, the programme was aimed at the development of a credit scheme through which small business loans would be provided to artisans in order to enable them to become small scale entrepreneurs in materials production and house construction in rural areas. The long-term goals of the programme were: firstly, to enhance the stability of the family and the rural community; secondly, to improve rural health conditions and thirdly, to enhance socio-economic development through, among other ways, increased productivity and the generation of non-agricultural employment.

The programme was implemented in different phases: (1) the establishment of the institutional framework, the initiation of the training programme and the development of low cost building materials and construction techniques of rural housing credit system; (2) the establishment and testing of a rural housing credit system; (3) construction of dwellings on a country-wide basis (4) intensification of the geographical coverage of the programme. While the programme is primarily based on self-help, financial support came from UNDP, UNCDF and the Malawian Government. A credit scheme was set up to enable rural households to apply for house improvement loans which cover basic building materials. Participants pay a 10% deposit which is refundable at the end of the loan repayment period.

A significant achievement of the Malawi Rural Housing Programme is that it has demonstrated the local income-generation potential of rural housing projects through the setting up of small-scale enterprises in building construction and production of low-cost building materials. Housing costs were minimised through firstly, the use of indigenous, locally made building materials; secondly, the use of improved, technically sound traditional construction techniques; and thirdly, the use of local building artisans as well as self help labour. As a result of problems encountered with the loan repayment system, improvements included the introduction of group lending through the formation of village housing development group or cooperatives and the introduction of a group loan protection insurance scheme for borrowers, in case of death.

The 'enabling approach' adopted in the Malawian Rural Housing Programme is based on the reorientation of the role of government in human settlements development and requires of national governments to: broaden the range of actors involved in human settlements development and management; deepen the degrees of responsiveness and participation (including the empowerment of local community); and effectively coordinate the different actors involved. According to (Kimm, 1987) the appropriate government response is to act as a facilitator and to solve those problems that individuals cannot solve themselves, i.e. the availability of land with secure tenure; the provision of infrastructure; and the availability of credit.

## 2.5.2 The Zimbabwean Experience: The Gutu-Mupandawana Housing Project

Following the independence in Zimbabwe, a low-income housing pilot project was initiated by the Government of Zimbabwe in 1982 with the financial and technical assistance from the UNDP and UNCHS. It was decided to locate the project in two areas Kwekwe (a small medium size town with a population of 48 000 at the time) and Gutu-Mupandawana with a population of 15 000 at the time).

Zimbabwe had a well-developed network of housing finance institutions. However, as in other developing countries, these institutions were unwilling to participate in the long-term financing of urban low-income housing, let alone rural housing. The Gutu-Mupandawana Project experimented with a financing mechanism which aimed at extending the leading operations of one building society (Beverley) into low-income housing. Among the main reasons underlying the non-participation of building societies in low-income housing are: stringent and often inappropriate affordability criteria; the construction and repayment risks often associated with low-income housing; and the high administrative costs associated with small loans. Until this project Zimbabwean building societies were constrained by the above factors and had contributed virtually nothing to the development of low-income shelter.

In 1983, soon after the implementation of the Gutu-Mupandawana Project had started, and as part of the then prevailing debate on low-income shelter development approaches, the government of Zimbabwe, through the Ministry of Public Construction and National Housing, announced a national rural housing programme. The aims of the programme were given as to: (1) provide decent, affordable, and durable accommodation and related services to rural people; (2) provide financial assistance in the form of building material loans to beneficiaries; (3) provide technical assistance on aided self-help projects through the training of skilled people in each project area so as to promote self-reliance in rural housing construction; (4) encourage the formation of housing cooperatives with a view to promoting community participation in the construction of houses and the reduction of construction costs; and (5) introduce building and production brigades to ensure production of good quality houses and to generate employment.

The target groups intended for the programme were low income people in communal areas, resettlement schemes, rural and district service centres, growth points and large-scale commercial farming areas. The specific target population of the project was disadvantaged low-income households. The principal aims of the project were given as follows:

- The development of innovative planning, design and construction solutions which would attempt to achieve a closer match between the functional requirements of the prospective low-income group beneficiaries, on the one hand, and their financial capacities on the other.
- Experiment with new methods of organisation in aided self-help, cooperative and communal efforts which enable the beneficiary groups to be involved more closely in the formulation and implementation of their own housing solutions through participation in design, financial mobilisation, construction and general community development.



- To experiment with the possibility of expanding domestic thrift potential for low-income housing finance, through the establishment of new mechanisms in existing housing loan finance institutions (building societies) to cater for the small loan requirements and savings capacity of low-income beneficiaries.
- Develop enduring and replicable solutions to the low-income housing problem.

The Gutu-Mupandawana financing mechanism specifically sought to resolve two major problems which normally discourage the involvement of building societies in low-income aided self-help housing, that is; firstly, the construction risks involved when borrowers have to contribute their own labour and, secondly, the inability of many low-income households for deposit and front-end charges such as stamp duty and conveyance fees. In financing the project, the Ministry of Public Construction and National Housing, using UNDP funds, would advance loans to beneficiaries for the purchase of building material. The building material would be purchased and stored on-site. After procuring the material from the project site, the beneficiaries would go on to use their own labour and personal resources to build the house, including the housing cooperative modes of construction. Upon completion of the house, individual beneficiaries would apply for housing loans to the building society. On approval of the application the building Society would pay back to the Ministry of Public Construction and National Housing the sum initially loaned to beneficiaries in the form of building materials. After 6 months beneficiaries would be required to start repaying the house loan over 25 years.

In June 1985, ENDA Zimbabwe was commissioned to undertake an evaluation of the study, and the following key findings were made:

### **Sustainability of the Project**

- Cost recovery was not a serious problem in the Gutu-Mupandawana project. Thus low income beneficiaries are not significantly different to middle to high income beneficiaries in terms of mortgage repayment defaults.
- The houses provided were affordable, with households expected to spend 28.7% of their monthly incomes on housing

### **Community participation**

- The aided self-help mode of implementation was the most popular: 69% of the beneficiaries chose aided self-help while 17% chose the building brigade mode and 7% the housing cooperative.
- In terms of labour the building brigade mode cost twice the labour of aided self-help.
- Most of the construction was done by small scale informal sector builders hired, supervised and paid by the beneficiaries.
- Personal labour contribution by beneficiaries was minimal and limited to unskilled tasks. Beneficiaries also participated indirectly in the design stage through their elected representatives in the local council, and directly in the selection of house types.

### Social acceptability of project output

- The project was socially acceptable and most beneficiaries were happy with the house designs, in whose creation they participated indirectly through the elected council representatives. The location of the project was also satisfactory, being close to the major employment area.

The Gutu-Mupandawana financing experiment demonstrated the feasibility of extending, profitability, building society lending operations into low-income housing at rural areas. It also demonstrated the feasibility of including informal sector employees and self-employed within housing projects, as well as the avenues for managing the risks (as perceived by building societies) involved in lending for low-income housing.

#### 2.5.3 The Ecuador Experience: Rural Housing Construction with Appropriate Technologies

The Ecuador earthquake of March 1987 was the spark that inspired a project titled “Rural Housing Reconstruction with Appropriate Technologies” whose implementation started in December 1987. Beneficiaries of the project included: indigenous populations of the Sierra Region; export crop agriculturalists of the Coastal Region; newly resettled farmers and indigenous populations of the Amazon Region, in the remote part of the country which suffered most of the devastation caused by the earthquake; and peri-urban communities located in the Barabon and Turi at the margins of the third largest city, Cuenca.

The integrated approach adopted for the project was its most significant innovation. The underlying concept was that ‘shelter’ is much more than ‘housing’ as it encompasses other dimensions such as infrastructure and services. A further underlying concept was that rural shelter improvement, if it is to be a sustainable, must be linked to improvement in other socio-economic dimensions which underlie rural poverty, including the economic productive capacities of participating communities.

The immediate aims of the project were to: (i) assess the impact of the March 1987 earthquake on the rural housing stock and to recommend repair procedures; (ii) assist some of disaster victims in the construction of new houses, community facilities and infrastructure; (iii) transfer knowledge of earthquake resistant building techniques to the affected population, using locally-produced building material and already existing construction techniques and practices, a traditional communal labour donation practice; and (iv) increase household incomes in the rural areas and facilitate their inclusion within the productive system of the state.

An assessment of the houses partially damaged revealed that the required technical standards had not been followed when the houses were originally built. In building new houses, appropriate alternatives were developed for mud dwellings to make them more resistant and secure.

When the programme was initiated more than 70% of the participating population did not have latrines (UNCHS, 1995). None of the localities where the programme was to be implemented had portable water. Many areas only had feeder roads which were in an advanced state of despair thereby making them impassable during the rainy season.





In collaboration with the local authorities piped water was instilled and this resulted in a decline in the incidence of intestinal ailments. In the same manner, roads were repaired and small bridges built. This, together with the use of appropriate technology, benefited several communities by penetrating isolated areas and facilitating access to more markets for these areas' products. Additional support was offered to provide communal centres, schools, and housing for teachers, sports grounds and communal centres. In order to improve the poor economic status of the beneficiary population some production or income-generation enterprises were established and/or enhanced.

In general, the Ecuador Rural Housing Project illustrates how income-generating enterprises can be integrated within rural shelter projects and programmes in order to enhance shelter affordability and contribute towards poverty reduction among the rural poor. The project also illustrates a number of key issues which should be taken into account in the formulation of rural shelter policies with regard to areas prone to earthquakes and other natural disaster, particularly the use of improved indigenous building materials and construction techniques.

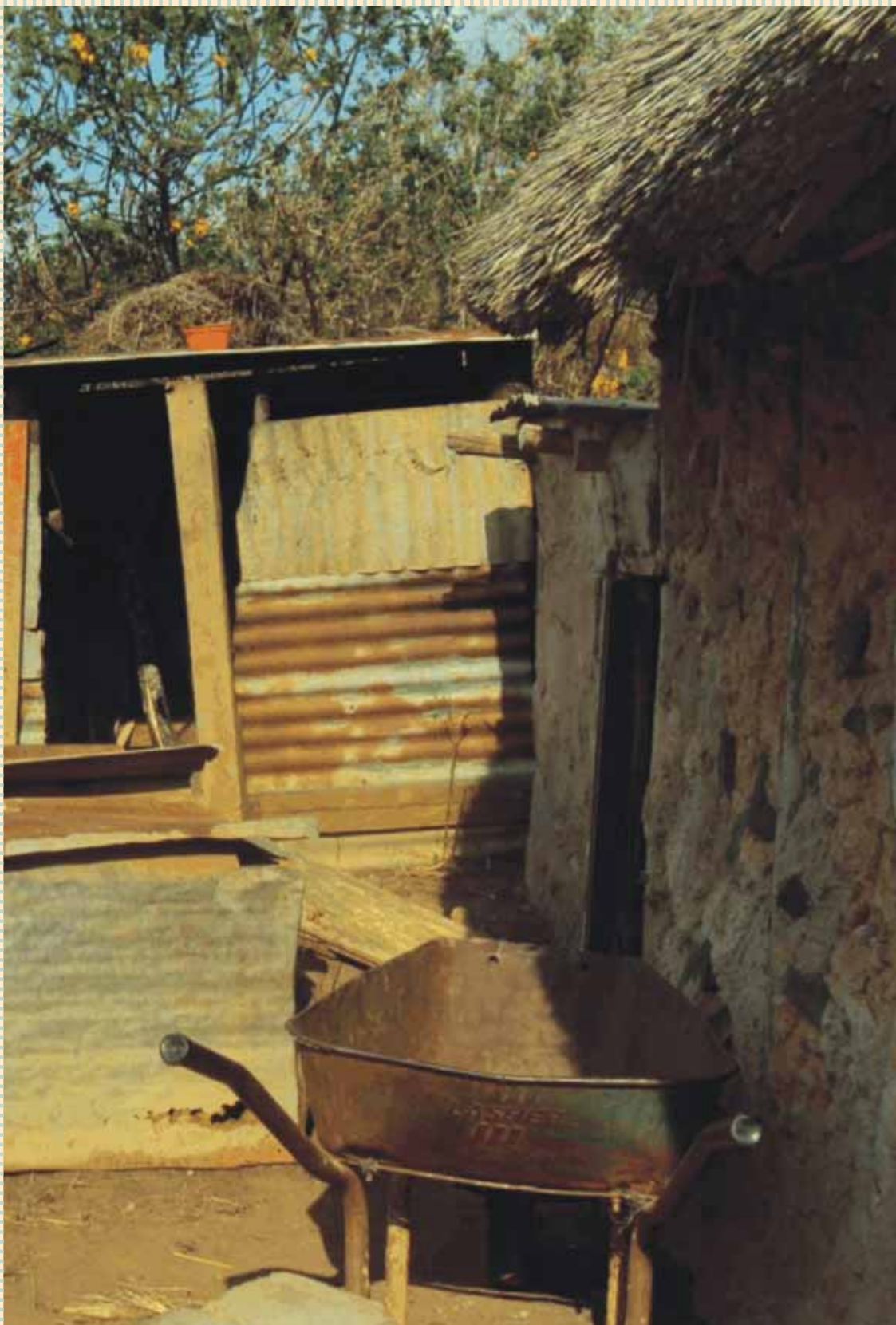
## 2.6. Status on the Delivery of the Rural Housing Programme

The Rural Housing Programme has been implemented since 1994 and has yielded a total of 342 projects containing 166 961 planned units being approved. Of the planned units a total of 49 712 units (33.5%) had been delivered at the time of data collection. Table 2.1 below provides an overview of the number of planned and completed units by province.

Table 2.1: projects planned and completed by province

Province	Planned units	Total number of units completed	Percentage of planned units
Eastern Cape	20 953	12 112	57.8
Free State	2 400	2 102	87.6
Mpumalanga	1 562	992	63.5
Limpopo	13 528	6 005	44.4
KwaZulu-Natal	92 083	17 547	19.1
North West	34 635	10 154	29.3
Northern Cape	1 100	800	72.7
<b>Total</b>	<b>166 961</b>	<b>49 712</b>	<b>33.5%</b>

In the Limpopo province 13 528 units were planned, of which a total of 6 005 were completed constituting only 44.4% of the total planned units. In KwaZulu-Natal 92 083 were planned and 17 547 delivered constituting 19.1% of the planned units. In the Eastern Cape 20 953 units were planned and 12 112 (57.8%) delivered. In Mpumalanga a total of 1 562 units were planned and 992 (63.6%) units were completed at the time of data collection. Of the 34 635 units planned in North West, 10 154 units were completed constituting 29.3% of the total planned units. In the Free State 2 400 units were planned and a high percentage (87.6%; n=2 102) was completed. In the Northern Cape 1 100 units were planned, of which a total of 800 were completed constituting (72.7%) of the total planned units.



## CHAPTER 3

# RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

### 3.1 Research Design

A Project Steering Committee was established by the National Department of Human Settlements. The committee comprised of representatives of Ntona Consulting and the NDHS personnel (from Monitoring and Evaluation, Policy and Research Units). The Committee acted as a consultative forum for the design and implementation of the research.

Given the nature, objective and scope of the project the research design entailed a combination of qualitative and quantitative research methods.

### 3.2 Study Population

The study population was made out of a total of 342 projects with 166 961 planned units for the Rural Housing Programme across all the nine Provinces. However only 48 912 units were completed at the time of data collection, constituting 29% of the planned units. The following Provinces have implemented the Rural Housing Programme:

- Eastern Cape
- Free State
- KwaZulu-Natal
- Limpopo
- Mpumalanga
- North-West
- Northern Cape

### 3.3 Sampling procedure

#### 3.3.1 Sample size

The required sample size for the study was 10 000 units (representing 20.0% of the completed units) with a distribution across all the Provinces. Table 3.1. below shows the number of completed units and the proposed sample size by Province.

Table 3.1. Number of completed units and the proposed sample size by Province

Province	Population size	Targeted sample size	Actual sample size	Percentage of the required sample size
North West	10 154	2131	2078	97.5
Free State	2 102	486	440	90.5
Mpumalanga	992	246	312	100.0
Eastern Cape	12 112	2627	2394	91.1
KZN	17 547	3599	3263	90.7
Limpopo	6 005	1200	1152	96.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>48 912</b>	<b>10289</b>	<b>9639</b>	<b>93.7</b>

### 3.3.2 Sample selection

This study employed probability sampling, a method of sampling that utilises some form of random selection. In order to have a random selection of research projects certain procedures and processes were set up in order to assure that the different units (projects) in the population had an equal probability of being selected. Two random selection procedures were thus adopted for this study namely: Stratified Random Sampling; and Systematic Random Sampling:

- The Rural Housing Programme was implemented in seven Provinces. In this regard each Province was identified, selected and put into groups or “Strata” in order to ensure that each province is represented in the study sample. The Provinces identified were ; Eastern Cape, North West, Free State, Mpumalanga, North West, Western Cape, Limpopo, and KwaZulu-Natal.
- The size of projects also varied across the Provinces. Projects were also put in groups ranging from small, medium and large.
- Once the projects were put into strata, systematic random Sampling was applied to select the research projects.
- A total of 35 projects were systematically selected randomly across the six Provinces which cover about 21% of the project population. Annexure A outlines the selected projects per Province.
- For each project selected, all beneficiaries would be required to participate in the study and the sample would be used to represent and make inferences about the entire population.

## 3.4 Research Instruments

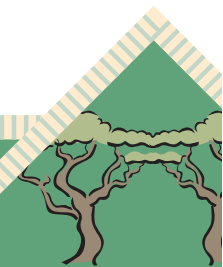
### 3.4.1 Beneficiary Questionnaire

A questionnaire was designed to collect primary data from beneficiaries of the Rural Housing Programme and relevant data pertaining to the property. The questionnaire focused on Project details, beneficiary information, integrated development, and comments from the beneficiary and fieldworker.

### 3.4.2 Key informant Interview Questionnaire

A questionnaire was developed to aid interviews with key informants such as Provincial Housing Departments, Municipalities and Community leaders.

The Beneficiary Questionnaire and the Key informant Interview Questionnaire are attached as Annexure B and Annexure C respectively.



### 3.5 Piloting

The research methodology and data collection tools were subjected to a pilot study to determine if there were any logistic and/or other problems that needed attention prior to data collection. A pilot study was carried out at the Moretele- Maubane Rural Housing Ext 4, Greenside (1000 Subs) B97080001 Sn 075 situated in the Moretele Local Municipality in the North West Province.

On the basis of information obtained from the pilot study both the beneficiary and the key informant interview questionnaires were refined. As regards process the research team identified a need for a vigorous approach to the mobilisation of local municipalities and communities as communication was cascading at a slower pace from the Provincial Departments to community level.

### 3.6 Training of fieldworkers

Fieldworkers were recruited and trained in different municipalities for the data collection process. The training focused on data collection tools, research ethics, role classification, self awareness and management in relation to conducting research. The role of fieldworkers was mainly to conduct interviews with beneficiaries and to complete the beneficiary questionnaire while field supervisors conducted interviews with key informants.

### 3.7 Communication and Data Collection

The National Department of Human Settlements issued a communiqué to inform Provincial Departments, Districts and Local municipalities and other relevant stakeholders of the process and solicited support in the data collection process.

At the beginning of the project Stakeholder consultative meetings were held in the five of the six Provinces that have implemented the Rural Housing programme. The consultative meetings were aimed at introducing the project to the Provincial Departments of Human Settlements and soliciting buy-in and support for the implementation of the project. In these meetings the purpose of the project was outlined and the roles and responsibilities of different stakeholders clarified. Provinces also got an opportunity to share their progress in terms of the Rural Housing Programme and to highlight the actual deliverables in cases where there were discrepancies with the HSS.

The data collection phase commenced on the 21st of October 2009 and it was completed on the 17th of December 2009.

### 3.8 Quality control measures

In order to ensure the quality of the data collected the following quality control measures were put in place:

- Beneficiaries were interviewed and the questionnaires completed by the fieldworkers to ensure that ethical principles we adhered to.



- A site supervisor was allocated to each site to monitor and assist fieldworkers.
- Data cleaning and coding was done on all questionnaires received and questionnaires were, accordingly, coded.

### 3.9 Data Analysis

Data capturing was done using the SPSS software. To ensure quality data capturing was done separately from the data collection process. Quantitative data was analysed using SPSS. A descriptive analysis was conducted and results were presented as frequency tables, bar graphs or pie charts. Analysis of qualitative data was done using the thematic and content analysis approaches. That is, key and major themes/trends/issues that emerged were grouped and analysed in a coherent and logical manner.

All information pertaining to the projects was provided by the National Department of Human Settlements from HSS and other sources as identified by them, mainly Provincial Departments. The information provided included the total number of units delivered in each Province.

### 3.10 Ethical consideration

#### Informed consent

Informed consent was obtained from subjects prior to data collection. A consent form was attached on both beneficiary and key informant interview questionnaires. The consent form provided relevant information with regard to the nature, significance and the implications of the study.

#### Confidentiality

During data collection, matters pertaining to confidentiality were also properly explained to the respondents. Ntona Consulting took responsibility for the safe keeping of all documents and information received.

### 3.11 Project Constraints

There were Project constraints in the following areas:

- Some discrepancies in the Rural Housing Programme information contained in the HSS and the databases provided by Provincial Departments. The process of determining the sample size by Province and the selection of projects had to be repeated based on the information provided by the Provincial Departments.
- Limited knowledge regarding projects at municipal level. Most of the information is not documented. In this regard the project team depended on community leaders such as Community Development Workers (CDWs) and Councillors to locate projects.



- The geographic spread of projects was massive with, in some instances, a project located in 12 different villages and some of these villages being 40-50km apart. Fieldworkers had to travel long distances to locate units/beneficiaries to be evaluated in different villages.
- The allocation of the subsidies for one project was also done across many villages, with a few beneficiaries (as little as three) benefiting in one community. Therefore the impact evaluation of the Rural Housing Programme at community level was not feasible.
- In some instances the researchers were expected to bring “tokens” to community leaders in order to gain access to the community or to be granted an interview. This was not budgeted for in the study.

### 3.12 Limitations of the Study

The following are the limitations of this study:

- The absence of baseline data for individuals and households limited the study to adopt a single difference approach rather than augmenting this with “*before and after*” to produce double difference comparisons.
- The information obtained is based on respondent’s self-declarations. In some instances, incorrect information may have been given.



## CHAPTER 4

### RESULTS

This chapter provides the overall findings of the study. The Principal; specific, findings are attached as Annexures E; F; G; H; I; and J.

#### 4.1 Overall response rate

A total number of 9639 houses were evaluated in the 2009/2010 study, constituting 93.7% of the targeted sample. Table 3.1 outlines the required sample sizes and actual response rate by Province. Of the 9639 houses evaluated, a total of 896 (9.2%) beneficiaries did not participate in the study. The reasons for non-participation included one or more of the following: beneficiary refused to take part in the study (n=38); beneficiary not available at the time of data collection (n=308); property abandoned/vandalised (n=135) and/or property main structure incomplete (n=415).

In the Free State, a total number of 440 houses were evaluated in the 2009/2010 study, constituting 90.5% of the targeted sample (n=486) while in Mpumalanga a total of 312 houses were evaluated which constitutes more than 100% of the targeted sample (n=246). A total of 7 beneficiaries did not participate in the study for reasons stated in table 4.1.

A total of 3263 houses, constituting 90.7% of the targeted sample (n=3599), were evaluated in Kwa-Zulu-Natal. A total of 43 beneficiaries did not participate in the study for the reasons stated in table 4.1. In Limpopo 1152 houses were evaluated constituting 96.0% of the targeted sample (n=1200). However 57 beneficiaries did not participate in the study for the reasons stated in table 4.1. At Sekhu/Fetakgomo Muni/Abigail Const (300), a total of 29 units were incomplete and the developer was still on-site at the time of data collection.

In the North West a total number of 2078 houses were evaluated, constituting 97.5% of the targeted sample (N=2131). A total of 786 beneficiaries did not participate in the study for the reasons stated in table 4.1. In Ratlou Rural Housing (Lugageng village) 200 units were allocated and only 62 units had been built, of which 49 were incomplete (i.e. no window glasses, no door handles and doors for inside rooms; no roof; floors not completed etc). See fieldworkers' detailed report on each property in Annexure D. A total number of 2627 houses, constituting 91.1% of the targeted sample (n=2394), were evaluated in the Eastern Cape. However, three beneficiaries did not participate in the study for the reasons stated in table 4.1.

Table 4.1: Reasons for beneficiaries' non participation in the study

Reasons for not participating	No. of non-responses						
	FS	MP	KZN	LP	NW	EC	Total
Beneficiary refused to take part in the study	0	2	12	16	6	2	38
Beneficiary not available at the time of data collection	0	3	30	40	234	1	308
Property abandoned/vandalised	0	2	0	1	132	0	135
Property main structure incomplete	0	0	1	0	414	0	415
<b>Total</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>43</b>	<b>57</b>	<b>786</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>896</b>

## 4.2 Overall respondent's demographics

### 4.2.1 Gender

Of the 8740 respondents 69.1% (n=6035) were females and 30.9% (n=2705) were males. See table 4.2 below.

**Table 4.2: Distribution of the sample by gender**

Gender	Proportion of the sample (%)
Females	69.1
Males	30.9
Total	100

*The gender distribution by Province was as follows:*

- **Free State:**  
Of the 439 respondents, 70.2% (n=308) were females and 29.8% (n=131) were males.
- **Mpumalanga:**  
Of the 304 respondents, 65.5% (n= 199) were females while 34.5% (n= 105) were males.
- **KwaZulu-Natal:**  
Of the 3203 respondents, 74.8% (n= 2397) were females and 25.2% (n= 806) were males.
- **Limpopo:**  
Of the 3203 respondents, 76.0% (n= 826) were females and 24.0% (n= 261) were males.
- **North West:**  
Of the 1327 respondents, 66.2% (n= 879) were females and 33.8% (n=448) were males.
- **Eastern Cape:**  
Of the 2380 respondents, 59.9% (n=1426) were females and 40.1% (n=954) were males.

### 4.2.2 Citizenship

Most respondents (99.9%; n=8617) reported that they were South African citizens while 0.1% (n=9) reported that they held citizenships of other countries. Respondents who held citizenships of other countries were in KZN (n=4); Mpumalanga: (n=3); Limpopo (n=1) and Eastern Cape (n=1)

### 4.2.3 Special Groups

A small proportion of the respondents indicated that they were beneficiaries of the Land Reinstitution Programme (1.1%; n=96) and/or were military veterans (0.6%; n=51). A higher proportion of





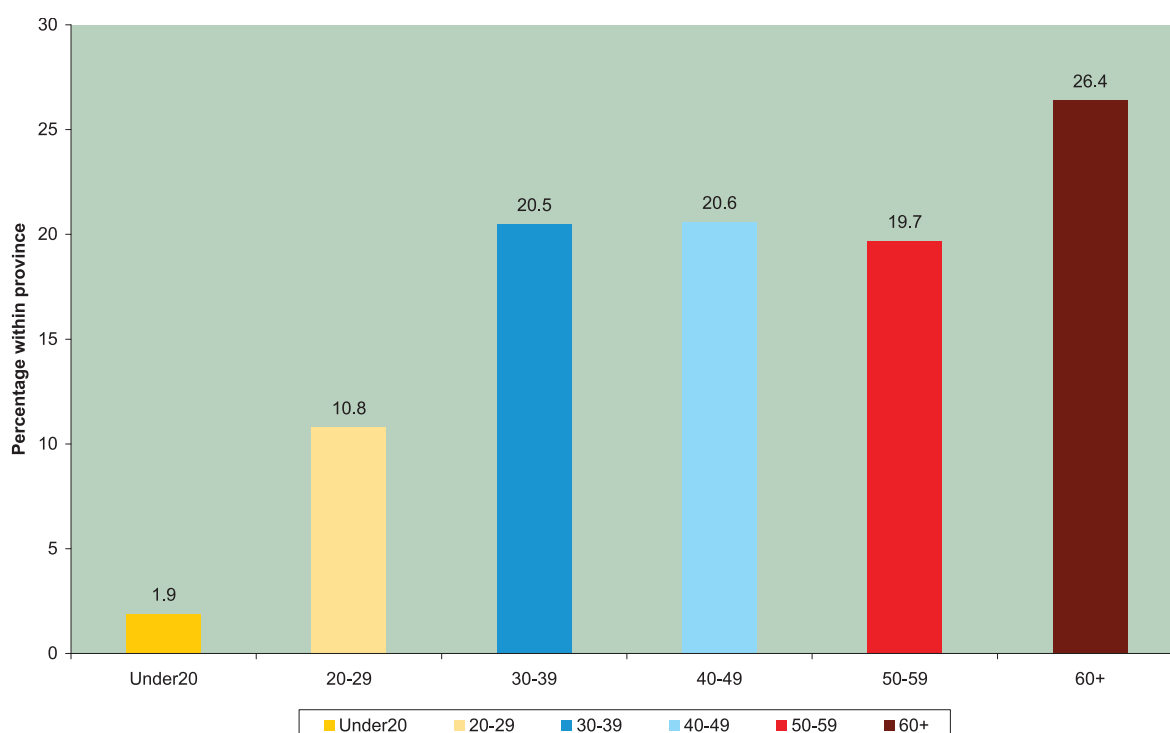
beneficiaries of the Land Reinstitution Programme was found in Limpopo (n=50); KwaZulu-Natal (n=17) and Eastern Cape (n=11), followed by North West (n=17) and Free State (n=1) respectively. Respondents who reported to be military veterans were in KwaZulu-Natal (n=23); Eastern Cape (n=21); North West (n=5) and Limpopo (n=2).

A significant proportion of the respondents had a physical or mental disability (11.4%; n=987). Most of the respondents with disabilities were in KwaZulu-Natal (n= 493); North West (n= 158) and Eastern Cape (n=130). This was followed by and Limpopo (n=108); Mpumalanga (n=52) and Free State (n= 46).

#### 4.2.4 Age

Graph 4.1 below outlines the age distribution of the sample. A higher percentage of the respondents were 60 years and above (26.4%; n=2248) followed by those in the 40-49 years age group (20.6%; n=1758); 30-39 years age group (20.5%; n=1745); and 50-59 years age group (19.7%; n=1679). The proportion of respondents in the 20-29 age group and less than 20 years was 10.8% (n=924) and 1.9% (n=166) respectively.

**Graph 4.1: Distribution of the sample by age**



#### ***Distribution of the sample by Age per Province:***

- o **Free State:** A higher percentage of respondents (26.1%, n=110) were in the 40-49 age group. The percentage of respondents in the over 60 age group was 22.0% (n=93). The

percentages of participation in the 30-39 and 50-59 age groups were 21.6% (n=91) and 17.5% (n=74) respectively. Only 12.2% (n=52) of the respondents were in the 20-29 age group, while 0.5% (n=2) were below the age of 20 years.

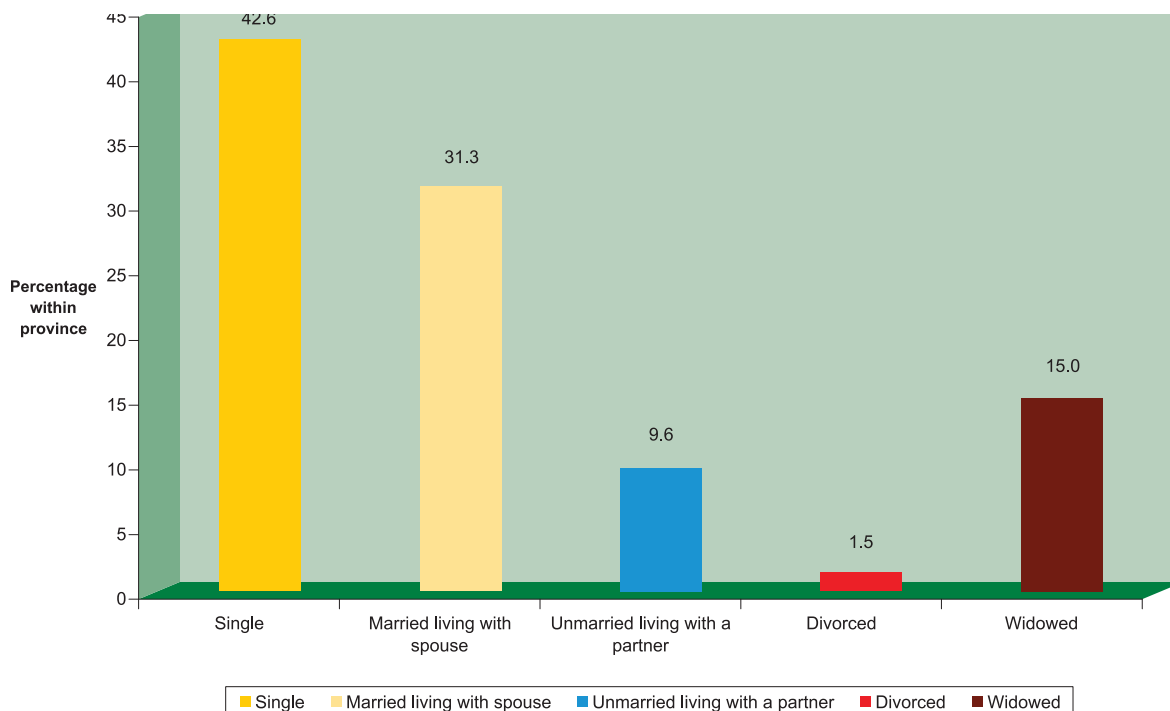
- o **Mpumalanga:** A higher percentage of respondents was in the 30-39 age group (28.4%, n=38). The percentages of respondents in the 50-59 and 40-49 age groups were 20.4% (n=61) and 19.4% (n=58) respectively. The percentage of respondents in the over 60 age group was 12.7% (n=38) while 18.4% (n=55) of the respondents were in the 20-29 and 0.7% (n=2) were below the age of 20.
- o **KwaZulu-Natal:** An interesting trend was observed in KwaZulu-Natal with the majority of beneficiaries of the RHP in the 60+ age category (28.4%; n=875) followed by those in the 50-59 age group (22.1%; n=680) and 40-49 (20.7%; n=636) age group. The proportions of respondents in the 30-39 and 20-29 age groups were 15.5% (n=477) and 9.6% (n=297) respectively. Only 3.7% (n=114) of the respondents were below the age of 20.
- o **Limpopo:** Most of the beneficiaries were also in the 60 years and above age group (28.4%; n=298), followed by the 40-49 years (24.9%; n=261) and 50-59 years (20.1%; n=211) age groups. The proportions of respondents in the 30-39 and 20-29 age groups were 15.9% (n=167) and 8.8% (n=92) respectively. Only 1.9% (n=20) of the respondents were below the age of 20.
- o **North West:** A higher percentage of respondents were in the 30-39 age group (36.7%, n=478) followed by those in the 40-49 age group (21.7%; n=283) and 20-29 age groups (17.2%; n=224). The percentage of respondents in the 50-59 and 60+ age groups were (12.0%, n=156) and 11.7% (n=152) respectively. Only 0.8% (n=11) were below the age of 20.
- o **Eastern Cape:** A higher percentage of respondents were in the 60+ age category (33.5%; n=792) followed by those in the 50-59 (21.0%; n=497) and 30-39 (18.9%; n=447) age groups. The proportions of respondents in the 40-49 and 20-29 age groups were (17.3%; n=410) and (8.6%; n=204) respectively. Only 0.7% (n=17) of the respondents were below the age of 20.

#### 4.2.5 Marital Status

Most of the respondents reported that they were single (42.6%; n=3686), while 9.6% (n=826) indicated that they were unmarried but cohabiting with a partner. A further 31.3% (n=2709) were married and living with a spouse 15.0% (n=1296) widowed and 1.5% (n=131) divorced (see Graph 4.2).



Graph 4.2: Distribution of the sample by marital status.



***Distribution of the sample by Marital Status per Province:***

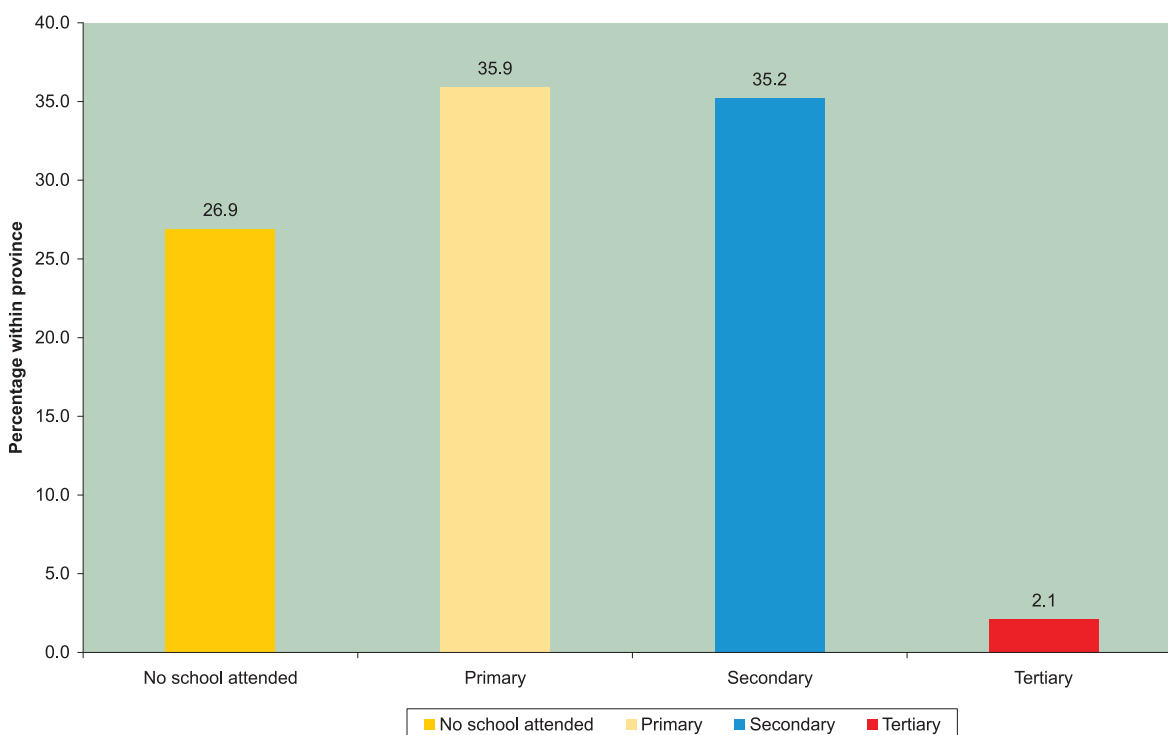
- o **Free State:** The majority of the respondents reported that they were married and living with a spouse (41.2%; n=179). However a large proportion of respondents were single (38.7%; n=168) and 14.7% (n=64) were widowed. A small proportion reported that they were unmarried but living with a partner (3.2%; n=14) and 2.1% (n=9) reported that they were divorced.
- o **Mpumalanga:** More than half of the respondents (55.3%; n=163) reported that they were single, while 23.1% (n=68) were unmarried but living with a partner. A further 12.5% (n=37) were married and living with a spouse while 5.1% (n=15) were widowed and 4.1% (n=12) were divorced.
- o **KwaZulu-Natal:** A higher percentage of the respondents reported that they were single (37.4%; n=1181) while 34.5% (n=1091) were married and living with a spouse. 16.6% (n=525) were widowed while 10.9% (n=345) were unmarried but living with a partner and 0.6% (n=18) divorced.
- o **Limpopo:** A higher percentage of the respondents reported that they were single (41.9%; n=444) while 30.8% (n=327) were married and living with a spouse. A further (21.2%; 225) were widowed while 2.9% (n=31) were unmarried but living with a partner and 3.1% (n=33) divorced.
- o **North West:** More than half of the respondents reported that they were single (59.6%; n=795) while 14.6% (n=195) were unmarried but living with a partner. 17.9% (n=238) were married living with a spouse and 5.9% (n=79) were widowed whereas 2% (n=26) were divorced.

- o **Eastern Cape:** A higher percentage of the respondents reported that they were single (39.5%; n=935) while 35.4% (n=837) reported that they were married living and with a spouse whilst a further 16.4% (n=388) were widowed. 7.3% (n=173) were unmarried but living with a partner and 1.4% (n=33) divorced.

#### 4.2.6 Education

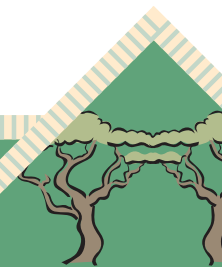
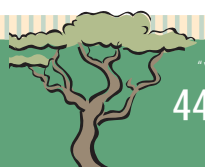
Graph 4.3 below outlines the distribution of the sample by the highest level of education achieved. A higher percentage of the respondents reported primary education as their highest level of education (35.9%; n=3029) and secondary education (35.2%; n=2970). Only 2.1% (n=178) of the respondents reported that they had tertiary level of education. A high percentage (26.9%; n=2269) of the respondents did not have any formal education at all.

**Graph 4.3: Distribution of the sample by highest level of education achieved**



#### Distribution of the sample by highest level of education achieved per Province

- o **Free State:** Most respondents reported that they have only completed primary school education (43.2%; n=187) while 40.2% (n=174) had completed secondary education. 15.9% (n=69) did not have any formal education at all whilst a paltry 0.7% (n=3) had tertiary level education.
- o **Mpumalanga:** Most respondents reported that they have only completed education at secondary level (46.5%; n=134) while 29.5% (n=85) had completed primary education and 23.6% (n=68) had not been to school at all. Only 0.3% (n=1) had tertiary level education.

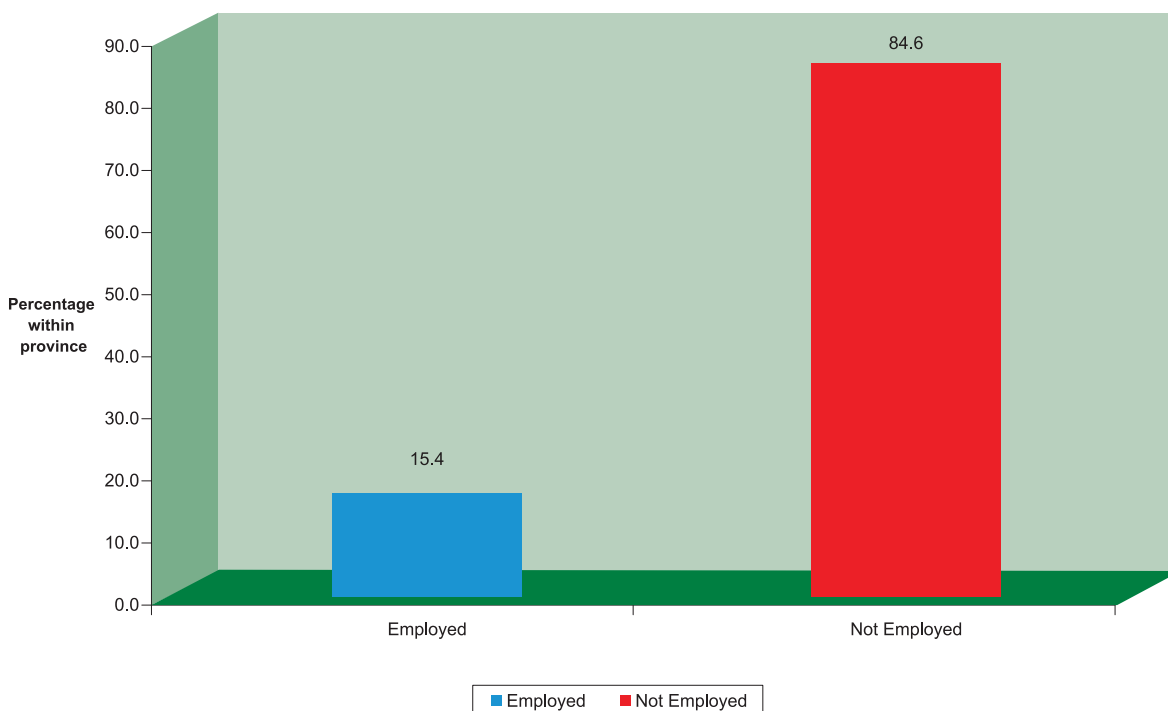


- o **KwaZulu-Natal:** A higher percentage of respondents reported that they had only completed education at primary level (39.0%; n=1193) while 30.6% (n=963) had completed secondary education and 29.0% (n=887) had no formal education at all. 1.4% (n=43) had tertiary level education.
- o **Limpopo:** A higher percentage of respondents in Limpopo reported that they had not attended any formal school at all (39.6%; n=418), while 30.2% (n=319) had completed education at primary level and 29.1% (n=307) had completed secondary education while 1.0% (n=11) had tertiary level education.
- o **North West:** Most respondents in the North West reported that they had only completed education at secondary level (47.9%; n=617) while 30.4% (n=392) only had primary school education and 17.4% (n=224) had not attended school at all. 4.3% (n=55) had tertiary level education.
- o **In the Eastern Cape** a higher percentage of respondents (36.7%; n=853) reported that they had only completed education at primary level while 34.5% (n=802) had completed secondary education. 26.0% (n=603) had no formal education at all whereas 2.8% (n=65) had tertiary level education.

#### 4.2.7 Employment

Graph 4.4 illustrates the distribution of the sample by rate of employment. Only 15.4% (n=1284) reported that they were employed as compared to 84.6% (n=7076) who were unemployed. With regard to household sources of income respondents reported their sources of income as wage/contract/seasonal work (10.7%; n=853), retirement/disability (9.2%; n=736), self employment (8.7%; n=696), and basic salary/full time employment (8.6%).

**Graph 4.4: Distribution of the sample by employment**



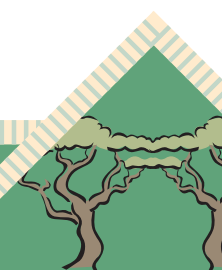
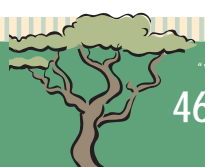


### *Distribution of the sample by employment per Province*

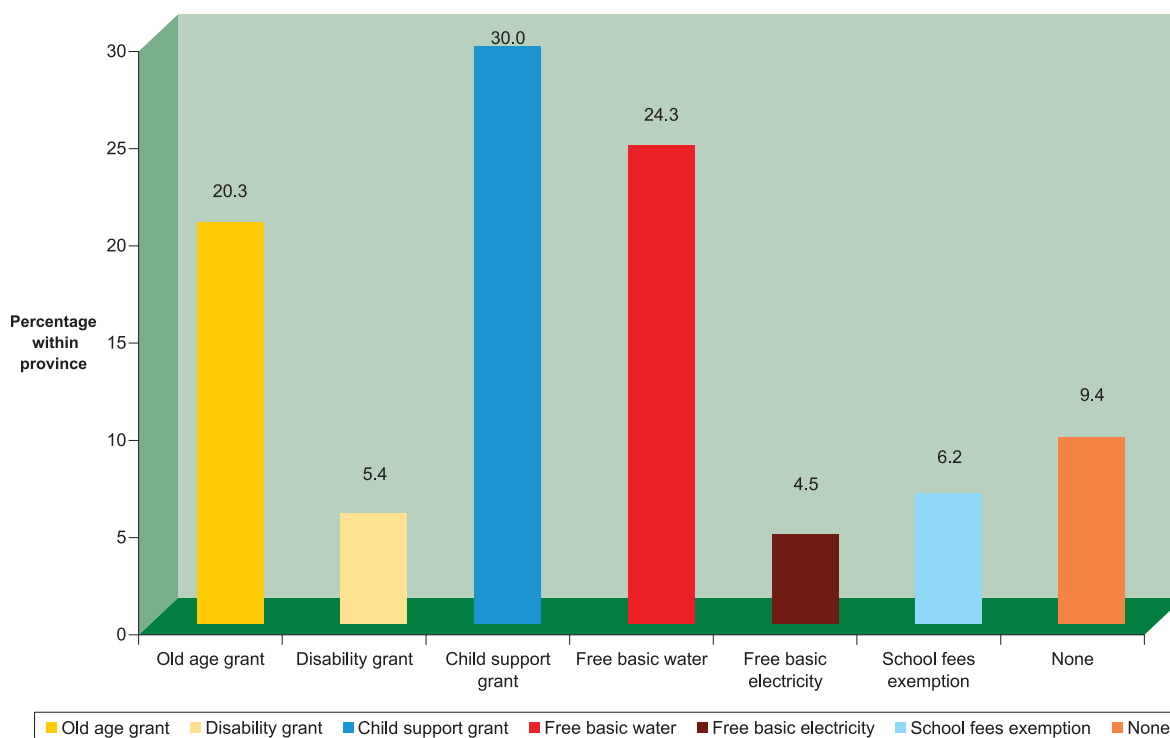
- o **Free State:** 27.0% (n=115) reported that they were employed as compared to 73.0% (n=311) who were unemployed. A higher percentage of those employed reported their source of income as wage/contract/seasonal work (18.4%; n=81) while only 8.6% (n=38) indicated basic salary/full time employment as their main source of income.
- o **Mpumalanga:** 26.7% (n=78) reported that they were employed as compared to 73.3% (n=214) who were unemployed. Respondents reported their main sources of household income as self employment (14.4%; n=44), wage/contract/seasonal work (11.2%; n=34), basic salary/full time employment (15.1%; n=46) and retirement/disability benefits (6.2%; n=19).
- o **KwaZulu-Natal:** 14.8% (n=442) reported that they were employed while 85.2% (n=2540) were unemployed. Respondents reported their main sources of income as self employment (9.0%; n=219), wage/contract/seasonal work (6.2%; n=199), basic salary/full time employment (9.7%; n=313) and retirement/disability benefits (4.0%; n=126).
- o **Limpopo:** Only 7.0% (n=74) reported that they were employed while 93.0% (n=978) were unemployed. Respondents described their main sources of income as wage/contract/seasonal work (11.3%; n=124), self employment (5.4%; n=59), basic salary/full time employment (2.6%; n=28) and retirement/disability benefits (2.7%; n=30).
- o **North West:** Only 12.2% (n=157) reported that they were employed as compared to 87.8% (n=1127) who were unemployed. Respondents reported their main sources of income as basic salary/full time employment (10.0%; n=134), wage/contract/seasonal work (3.6%; n=48), retirement/disability benefits (4.4%; n=59) and self employment (2.2%; n=29).
- o **Eastern Cape:** 18.0% (n=418) of the respondent reported that they were employed while 82.0% (n=1906) were unemployed. Respondents reported their main source of income as retirement/disability benefits (20.8%; n=498), wage/contract/seasonal (15.3%; n=367), basic salary/full time employment (5.5%; n=132) and self employment (9.7%; n=233).

#### 4.2.8 Government benefits and services

Respondents were asked to indicate the type(s) of government benefits/services received in their households. A higher percentage of respondents were recipients of child-support grants (30.0%; n=3600) while 20.3% (n=2454) were recipients of old-age grants and 5.4% (n=656) reported receiving disability grants. See Graph 4.5. 24.3% (n=2944) of the respondents receive free basic water and only 4.5% (n=548) receive free basic electricity. A further 6.2% (n=748) had school fees exemption for their dependants.



Graph 4.5: Distribution of the sample by services/benefits received



#### *Distribution of the sample by services/benefits received per Province*

- o **Free State:** A higher percentage of respondents receive child-support grants (43.7%; n=199) while 21.5% (n=98) receive old-age and 5.7% (n=26) receive disability grants. Only a small proportion of respondents receive free services in the form of free basic electricity (3.0%; n=13) and free basic water (2.5%; n=12). 1.8% had school fees exemption for their dependants.
- o **Mpumalanga:** A higher percentage of respondents receive child-support grant (38.5%; n=129) while 12.2% (n=41) and 12.5% (n=42) receive old-age and disability grants respectively. A significant proportion of households receive free basic water (13.1%; n=44). However only 1.0% (n=3) receive free basic electricity whilst 7.2% (n=24) have been exempted from paying school fees for their dependants.
- o **KwaZulu-Natal:** A higher percentage of respondents receive child-support grants (31.7%; n=1151) while 28.3% (n=1025) and 7.3% (n=266) receive old-age and disability grants respectively. A significant proportion of households receive free basic water (12.4%; n=448) while only 0.7% (n=25) receive free basic electricity and a further 5.5% (n=200) had school fees exemption.
- o **Limpopo:** A higher percentage of respondents receive child-support grants (30.4%; n=481) while 22.4% (n=355) and 4.7% (n=74) receive old-age and disability grants re-

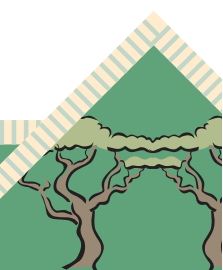
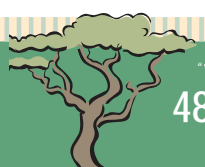
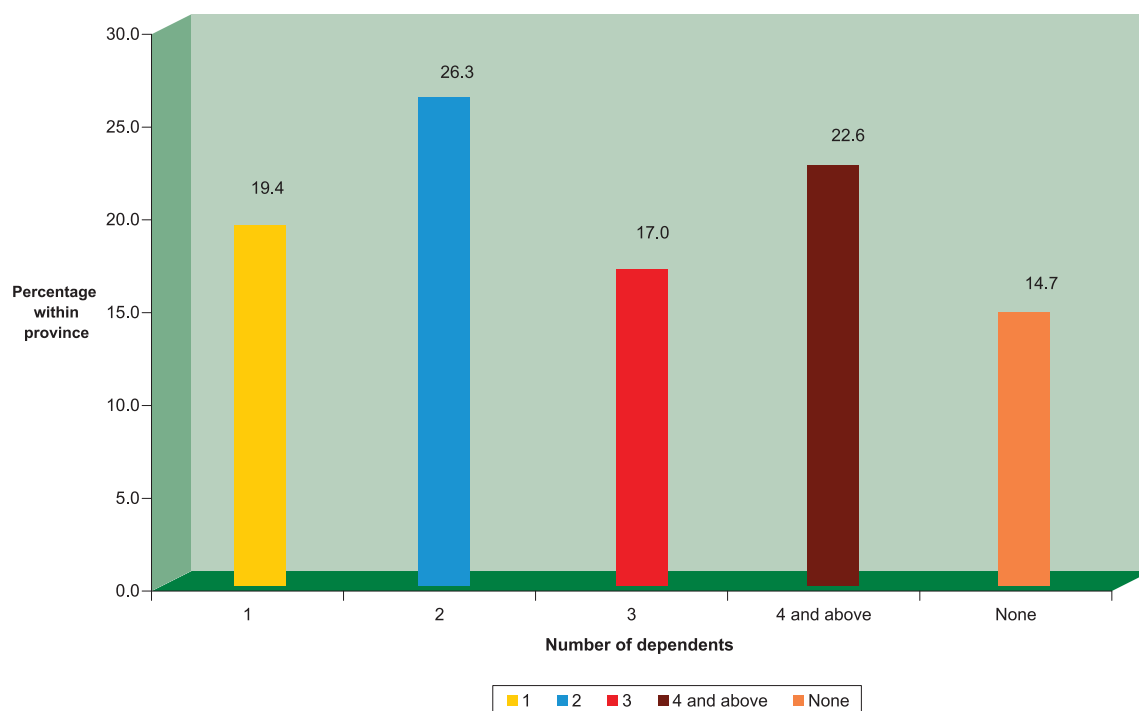
spectively. A significant proportion of households receive free basic water (11.5%; n=183) and free basic electricity (13.0%; n=205) while 11.7% (n=185) have been exempted from paying school fees.

- o **North West:** A higher percentage of respondents receive child-support grants (37.2%; n=711) while 9.1% (n=173) and 6.5% (n=125) receive old-age and disability grants respectively. A substantial proportion of households receive free basic water (24.5%; n=469). However, only 0.5% (n=10) receive free basic electricity. 10.5% (n=202) have been exempted from paying school fees for their dependants.
- o **Eastern Cape:** A higher percentage of respondents receive child-support grants (22.2%; n=929) while 18.2% (n=762) and 3.0% (n=123) receive old-age and disability grants respectively. A high percentage of households receive free basic water (42.8%; n=1788) while 7.0% (n=292) receive free basic electricity. Only 3.1% (n=129) have school fees exception.

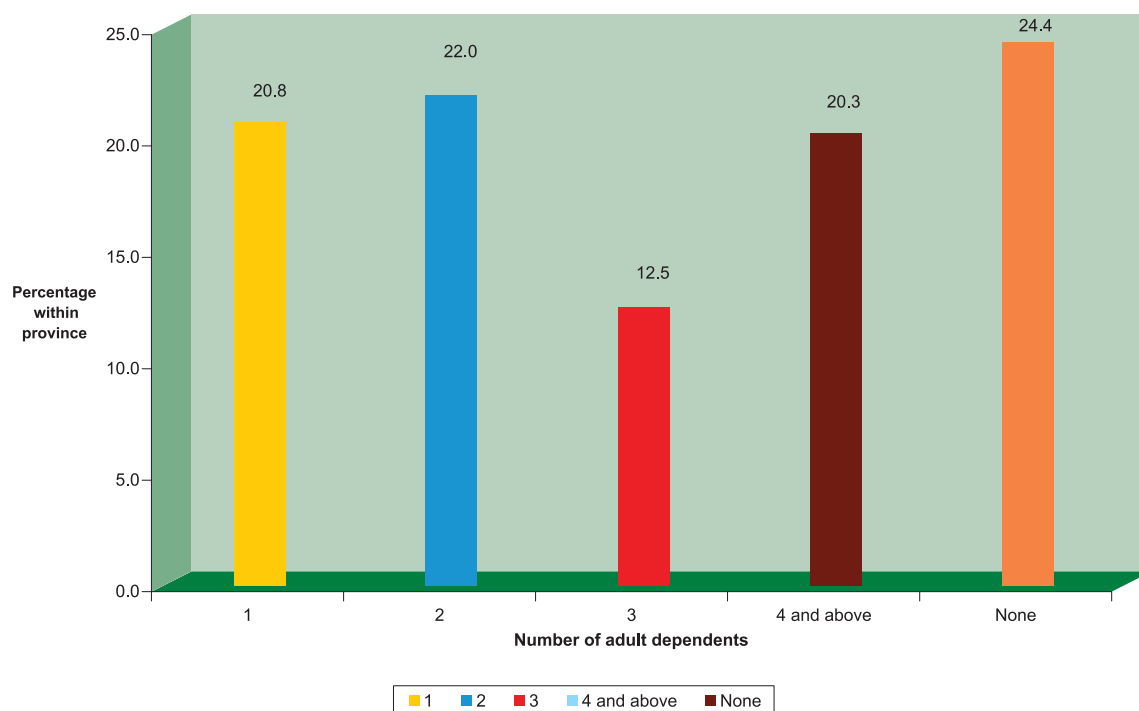
#### 4.2.9 Financial dependents

Respondents were required to indicate the number of financial dependants they have under the age of 18 years and adults dependants. The average number of child dependants was two (2). Similarly the average number of adult dependants was found to be two (2). Graph 4.6 outlines the distribution of the sample by number of financial dependants under the age of 18 yrs, and graph 4.7 outlines the distribution of the sample by number of adult financial dependants.

**Graph 4.6: Distribution of the sample by number of financial dependants under the age of 18 yrs**



Graph 4.7: Distribution of the sample by number of adult financial dependants



#### *Distribution of the sample by number of financial dependants per Province*

- o **Free State:** Most of the respondents reported that they had financial dependants under the age of 18 years (84.6%), of which 29.5% (n=117) had one dependant, 31.7% (n=126) had two dependants, 13.1% (n=52) had three dependants and 10.3% (n=41) had four or more dependants. Similarly the majority of respondents had adult financial dependants, with 29.7% (n=115) reporting to have one dependant, 21.7% (n=84) with two dependants, 10.6% (n=41) with three dependants and 6.7% (n=26) indicating that they have four and/or more adult financial dependants.
- o **Mpumalanga:** A higher percentage of the respondents reported that they have financial dependants under the age of 18 years spread out as follow; 20.3% (n=57) have one dependant, 32.4% (n=91) with two dependants, 17.8% (n=50) have three dependants and 21.7% (n=61) had four and/or more dependants. Similarly substantial number of respondents have adult financial dependants with 26.4% (n=71) reporting to have one or two dependants, (11.5%; n=31) with three dependants and 14.5% (n=39) indicating to have four and/or more adult financial dependants.
- o **KwaZulu-Natal:** Most of the respondents reported that they had financial dependants under the age of 18 years of which 36.5% (n= 1127) have four and more dependants, 19.7% (n=609) have between two and three dependants and 14.0% (n=432) have one dependant. Similarly the majority of respondents had adult financial dependants with 36.9% (n=1129) reporting to have more than four adult dependants, 16.1% (n=493) with

- three dependants, 17.5% (n=536) with two and 14.4% (n=440) with one dependants respectively.
- o **Limpopo:** Most of the respondents reported that they have financial dependants under the age of 18 years (83.5%; n=785) of which 28.9% (n=272) have two dependants, 21.3% (n=200) have one, 17.1% (n=161) have three dependants; and 16.2% (n=152) have four and more dependants. The majority of respondents have adult financial dependants (84.1%; n=809), of which 26.0% (n=250) have one dependant; 21.8% (n=210) have two; 16.1% (n=155) have three dependant; and 20.2% (n=194) have four and more dependants.
  - o **North West:** A higher percentage of the respondents reported that they have financial dependants under the age of 18 years (82.6%; n=1023) of which 24.9% (n=308) have one dependant, 25.6% (n=317) have two dependants, 16.8% (n=208) have three depends and 15.3% (n=190) had four and more dependants. Similarly the majority of respondents have adult financial dependants (66.4%; n=695), with 26.8% (n=280) of the respondents having one dependant; 21.3% (n=223) with two dependants; 8.0% (n=84) with three dependants and 10.3% (108) indicated that they had four and more dependants.
  - o **Eastern Cape:** Most of the respondents reported that they have financial dependants under the age of 18 years, of which 21.3% (n=488) have one dependant; 32.7% (n=751) have two; 14.2% (n=325) had three dependants; and 12.5% (n=288) had four and more dependants. Similarly the majority of respondents had adult financial dependants, with 22.4% (n=503) having one dependant; 28.0% (n=630) with two dependants; 8.5% (n=192) with three and 5.3% (n=120) with four and more dependants.

#### 4.3 Property ownership and security of land tenure

Respondents were asked ***if they (or their spouses) have benefited from a housing subsidy before***. Only a small proportion of the respondents indicated that they (or their spouses) had benefited before (7.3%; n=617), while 92.7% (n=7842) reported that they had not benefited from a housing subsidy before. The following were the responses per province

- o **Free State:** a high percentage of the respondents (33.2%; n=114) reported that they (or their spouses) had benefited from a housing subsidy before while 66.8% (n=290) indicated that they (or their spouses) had not benefited before.
- o **Mpumalanga:** 96.7% (n=293) of the respondents reported that they (or their spouses) had never benefited from a housing subsidy before while 3.3% (n=10) indicated that they (or their spouses) had benefited before.
- o **KwaZulu-Natal:** 94.0% (n=2840) of the respondents reported that they (or their spouses) had never benefited from a housing subsidy before while 6.0% (n=185) indicated that they (or their spouses) had benefited before.





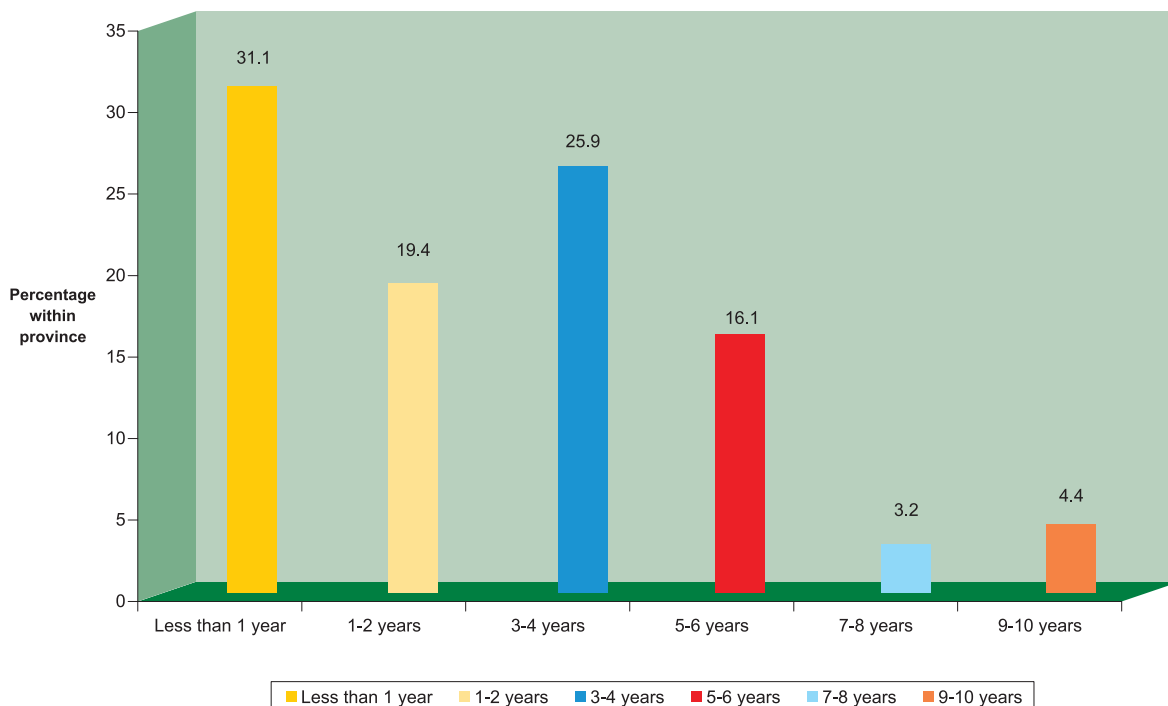
- o **Limpopo:** 84.3% (n=898) of the respondents reported that they (or their spouses) had never benefited from a housing subsidy before while 15.7% (n=167) indicated that they (or their spouses) had benefited before.
- o **North West:** 93.2% (n=1208) of the respondents reported that they (or their spouses) had never benefited from a housing subsidy before. However, 6.8% (n=88) indicated that they (or their spouses) had benefited before.
- o **Eastern Cape:** 99.0% (n=2313) of the respondents reported that they (or their spouses) had never benefited from a housing subsidy before while 1.0% (n=23) indicated that they (or their spouses) had benefited before.

In so far as **ownership of fixed property** is concerned, a significant proportion of the respondents (16.6%; n=1365) reported that they (or their spouses) owned a fixed property while 83.4% (n=6834) indicated that they have never owned any fixed residential property before

- o **Free State:** A small proportion of the respondents (4.6%; n=20) reported that they (or their spouses) owned a fixed property.
- o **Mpumalanga:** An insignificant proportion of the respondents (0.7%; n=2) reported that they (or their spouses) owned a fixed property while 99.3% indicated that they have never owned any fixed residential property before.
- o **KwaZulu-Natal:** A high percentage of the respondents (36.8%; n=1037) reported that they (or their spouses) owned a fixed property while 63.2% (n=1779) indicated that they have never owned any fixed residential property before.
- o **Limpopo:** A significant proportion of the respondents (13.7%; n=145) reported that they (or their spouses) owned a fixed property while 86.3% (n=911) indicated that they have never owned any fixed residential property before.
- o **North West:** A small percentage of the respondents (10.4%; n=133) reported that they (or their spouses) owned a fixed property while 89.6% (n=1151) indicated that they have never owned any fixed residential property before.
- o **Eastern Cape:** Most of the respondents (98.8%; n=2282) reported that they (or their spouses) do not own any fixed property while 1.2% (n=28) indicated that they own a fixed residential property.

Respondents were also asked to **indicate when (number of years) the housing subsidy was allocated to them**. Respondents reported as follows: Less than 1 year (31.1%; n=2702); 1-2 yrs (19.4%; n=1679); 3-4 yrs (25.9%; n=2244); 5-6 yrs (16.1%; n=1395); 7-8 yrs (3.2%; n=277); and 9-10 yrs (4.4%; n=380). See graph 4.8.

Graph 4.8: Distribution of the sample by number of years the subsidy was received



- o **Free State:** A higher percentage of the subsidies were allocated more than five years previously: 5-6 yrs (34.2%); 7-8 yrs (4.2%); 9-10 yrs (28.3%), while 23.4% were allocated in the past 3-4 yrs and 9.8% in the past 1-2 yrs.
- o **Mpumalanga:** Most of the respondents reported that they received their subsidised houses within the past four years of data collection, with 44.6% (n=135) having received their subsidies in the past 1-2 years; 32% (n=97), 3-4 years, and 21.5% (n=65) in less than 1 year. Only 2.0% (n=6) of the respondents had their housing subsidies allocated in the past 5-6 years.
- o **KwaZulu-Natal:** Most of the respondents (59.8%; n=1901) reported that they received their subsidised houses within the past year of data collection: 21.4% (n=679) received their subsidies in the past 1-2 years, 18.6% (n=592) in 3-4 years and 0.1% (n=4) in 5-6 years and 9-10 years respectively
- o **Limpopo:** Most of the respondents reported that they received their subsidised houses within the past four years of data collection with 36.8% (n= 393) having received their subsidies in the past 3-4 years, 32.5% (n=347) in 1-2 years, and 23.3% (n=248) in less than 1 year. Only 4.8% (n=51) of the respondents had their houses allocated in the past 5-6 years, and 2.8% (n=30) in the past 7-8 years.
- o **North West:** Most of the respondents reported that they received their subsidised houses within the past four years of data collection with 29.8% (n=399) having received their subsidies in the past 3-4 years, 24.2% (n=324) in 1-2 years and 12.5% (n=167) in less

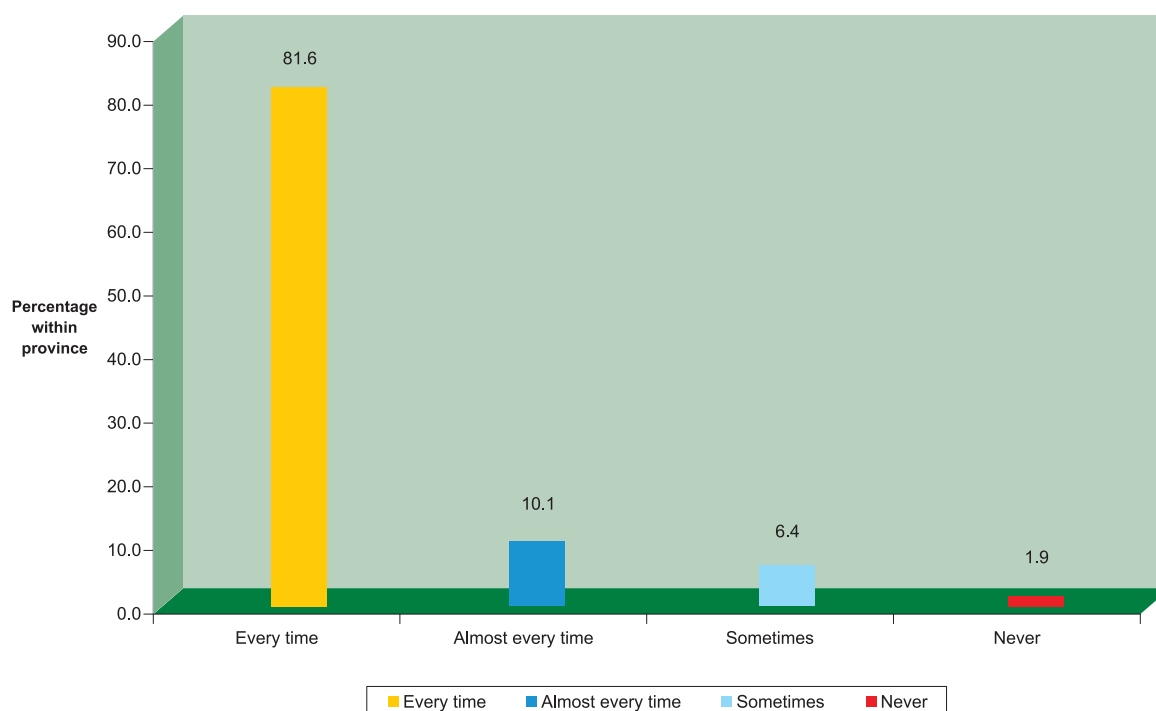


than 1 year. The remaining subsidies were received in the past 5-6 years (11.0%; n=147), 7-8 years (3.7%; n=49) and 9-10 years (18.8%; n=252).

- o **Eastern Cape:** A higher percentage of the respondents (44.1%; n=1041) reported that they received their subsidised houses within the past 5-6 years of data collection, 28.1% (n=663) received their subsidies in the past 3-4 years, 6.4% (n=152) in 1-2 years, 13.6% (n=321) in less than a year; 7.6% (n=180) in 7-8 years; and 0.1% (n=3) in 9-10 years. Graph 4.8. above outlines the number of years beneficiaries had received their housing subsidies by project.

As regards the frequency with which the beneficiary occupies the subsidised house, most of the respondents indicated that they occupy their properties every time (81.6%; n=6972), as compared to a small proportion who occupy their properties almost every time (10.1%; n=867), sometimes (6.4%; n=551) and never (1.9%; n=159). See graph 4.9.

**Graph 4.9: Distribution of the sample by frequency with which beneficiaries occupy the subsidised house**



- o **Free State:** Most of the respondents (90.8%; n=393) occupy their properties every time as compared to a small proportion who occupy their properties almost every time (1.2%; n=5) and sometimes (8%; n=35).
- o **Mpumalanga:** Most of the respondents indicated that they occupy their properties every time (91.0%; n=271). However, 4.4% (n=13) reported that they occupy their properties almost every time, 3.3% (n=10) occupy their properties sometimes and 1.3% (n=4) never occupied their allocated houses at all.

- o **KwaZulu-Natal:** Most of the respondents (89.6%; n=2748) indicated that they occupy their properties every time even though 4.0% (n=124) reported that they occupy their properties almost every time, 4.3% (n=132) occupy their properties sometimes and 2.1% (n=62) never occupy their allocated houses at all.
- o **Limpopo:** Most of the respondents (90.5%; n=967) indicated that they occupy their properties every time.
- o **North West:** Most of the respondents indicated that they occupying their properties every time (85.1%; n=1122). There are, however, beneficiaries who occupy the properties almost every time (6.1%; n=80), sometimes (8.0%; n=105) and others 0.8% (n=11) who never occupy their allocated houses at all.
- o **Eastern Cape:** 62.2% (n=1471) indicated that they occupy their properties every time.

With regard to the **involvement of beneficiaries in the planning and implementation of the projects** a higher percentage of respondents reported that they were involved in the planning of the projects (89.6%; n=7600). However only 52.7% (n=4417) of the respondents indicated that they were involved in the implementation of the projects. The extent to which beneficiaries were involved in the planning and implementation of projects per province was as follows:

- o **Free State:** Most beneficiaries were involved in the planning of the projects (81.9%; n=345). However only 10.3% (n=43) of the beneficiaries were involved in the implementation of the projects.
- o **Mpumalanga:** The majority of the respondents reported that they were involved in the planning (98.0%; n=295) and implementation (67.7%; n=200) of the projects. Although the overall involvement of beneficiaries in the implementation of projects in Mpumalanga was high, a significant proportion of respondents in Nzikazi (36.9%; n=87), Nkonjaneni (23.8%; n=10) and Libangeni (13.6%; n=3) reported that they were not involved during the implementation of the projects
- o **KwaZulu-Natal:** Most respondents (86.5%; n=2650) reported that they were involved in the planning of the projects. However a significant number of respondents in Umdum-ezulu (27.0%; n=224) reported that they were not involved in the planning of the project. Although a higher percentage of the respondents were involved in the planning of the projects, only 65.5% (n=1966) reported that they were involved in the implementation of the projects. The level of beneficiaries' involvement in the implementation of the projects differed from project to project. Most of respondents in Umdumezulu RHP (72.7%; n=592) and Nodunga RHP (53.2%; n=84) reported that they were not involved in the implementation of the project. A significant proportion of respondents in Makhasa RHP (23.1%; n=172); Amazizi 2 RHP (25.9%; n=106) and Buxedeni RHP (9.8%; n=80) also indicated that they were not involved in the implementation of the projects.
- o **Limpopo:** A higher percentage of respondents (92.9%; n=989) reported that they were involved in the planning of the projects. However, more than half of the beneficiaries at



Mokgaetjie (57.3%; n=59) reported that they were not involved in the planning of the project. Although a higher percentage of the respondents were involved in the planning of the projects almost half the respondents (49.4%; n=520) reported that they were not involved in the implementation of the projects. The level of beneficiaries' involvement in the implementation of the projects differed from project to project. A higher percentage of respondents at Zorah (81.3%; n=156); Mokgaetjie (67.0%; n=67); and Versatex (56.3%; n=49) were not involved in the implementation of the projects. A further high proportion of respondents at Nwa-makuhani (43.8%; n=114); Abigail (38.0%; n=97); A Re Ageng (33.8%; n=49) and Takalani (14.1%; n=12) also indicated that they were not involved in the implementation of the projects.

- o **North West:** Most respondents (81.5%; n=1041) reported that they were involved in the planning of the projects. However a significant number of respondents in Ba-Ga-Mothibi (24.7%; n=137) and Ratlou (16.2%; n=97) reported that they were not involved in the planning of the projects. With regard to beneficiaries' involvement in the implementation of the projects only 18.8% (n=240) reported that they were involved in the implementation of the projects.
- o **Eastern Cape:** An overwhelming majority of respondents (97.0%; n=2280) reported that they were involved in the planning of the projects. The involvement of beneficiaries in the implementation of the projects was high with 61.6% (n=1435) of the beneficiaries reporting that they were involved in the implementation of the projects.

Respondents were further asked to indicate **if they were in possession of documentary proof indicating that they had the right to occupy land**. The majority of the respondents responded in the affirmative (72.2%; n=6120) while 27.8% (n=2353) indicated that they were not in possession of such a document.

- o **Free State:** The majority of the respondents (88.1% n=377) were in possession of documentary proof to confirm their rights to occupy land while 11.9% (n=51) indicated that they were not in possession of such documents.
- o **Mpumalanga:** 88.7% (n=259) indicated that they were in possession of the letters while 11.3% (n=33) reported that they were not in possession of such letters.
- o **KwaZulu-Natal:** 91.3% (n=2843) indicated that they were in possession of the letters while 8.7% (n=272) reported that they were not in possession of such letters.
- o **Limpopo:** 89.0% (n=933) indicated that they were in possession of the letters while 11.0% (n=115) reported that they were not in possession of such letters.
- o **North West:** 52.9% (n=655) indicated that they were not in possession of the letters while 47.1% (n=584) reported that they were in possession of such letters.
- o **Eastern Cape:** 47.8% (n=1124) indicated that they were in possession of the letters while 52.2% (n=1227) reported that they were not in possession of such letters.

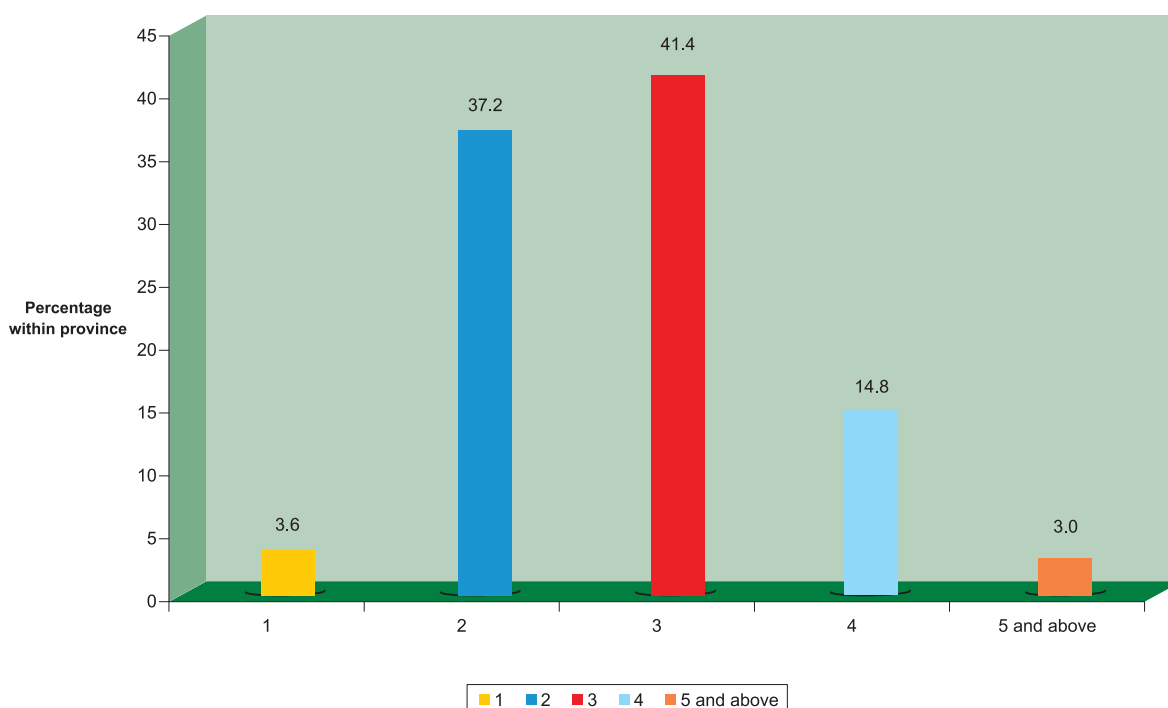


## 4.4. Infrastructure and social amenities

### 4.4.1 Physical Structure

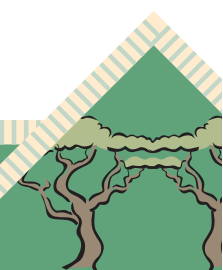
Graph 4.10 illustrates the distribution of properties evaluated by size (number of rooms).

Graph 4.10: Distribution of the sample by size of the property



A higher percentage of the properties had 3 rooms (41.4%; n=3526) followed by those with 2 rooms (37.2%; n=3169) and 4 rooms (14.8%; n=1256). A small proportion of the properties had 1 room (3.6%; n=309) and 5 rooms and/or above (3.0%; n=253). A significant proportion of the properties had some structural improvements (19.1%; n=1513). However, 80.9% (n=6426) of the properties did not have any structural improvements.

- o **Free State:** A higher percentage of structures at GT Molefe were big with 4 rooms (70.8%; n=242) while 27.8% (n=95) had 3 rooms, 1.2% (n=4) had 5 rooms and 0.3% had 2 rooms. In Maluti a Phofong the structures mainly comprised of 4 rooms (41.6%; n=37) and 3 rooms (37.1%; n=33) while 12.4% (n=11) had 2 rooms, 5.6% (n=5) were 1-roomed and 3.4% (n=3) had 5 rooms. Most of the properties (63.1%; n=253) had some form of structural improvements as compared to 39.9% (n=148) with no structural improvements. The study revealed a high prevalence of structural defects in the houses constructed in the Free State of which the most prevalent were wall cracks (n=70) and roof problems (n=60).



- o **Mpumalanga:** A higher percentage of the properties in Nzikasi had 4 rooms (97.1%; n=232) while in Libangeni the majority of the properties had 3 rooms (90.9%; n=20). The properties in Nkonjaneni mainly comprised of 5 rooms (52.4%; n=22), 4 rooms (40.5%; n=17) and 3 rooms (7.1%; n=3) structures. Only a small proportion of the properties in Nkonjaneni (12.5%; n=5) and Nzikasi (8.7%; n=19) had some form of structural improvements. The study revealed a high prevalence of structural defects in the houses constructed in Mpumalanga. The most prevalent defects were wall cracks (n=120), door problems (n=108), roof problems (n=101) and window problems (n=82).
- o **KwaZulu-Natal:** A higher percentage of the properties had 3 rooms (62.6%; n=1952), 11.6% (n=361) had 4 rooms, 12.0% (n=375) had 2 rooms, 6.9% (n=214) had 1 room and 7.0% (n=217) had 5 and more rooms. A small percentage of the properties (20.0%; n=537) had some form of structural improvements as compared to 80.0% (n=2164) with no structural improvements. The study revealed a high prevalence of structural defects in the houses constructed in KZN of which the most prevalent were roof problems (n=642) and wall cracks (n=377). The number of houses with door and window defects was 278 and 261 respectively.
- o **Limpopo:** A higher percentage of the properties had 3 rooms (60.1%; n=640), 27.8% (n=296) had 4 rooms, 7.7% (n=82) had 2 rooms, 4.1% (n=44) had 1 room; and (0.3%; n=3) had 5 and more rooms. In terms of structural improvements 22.8% (n=241) of the properties had some form of structural improvements as compared to 77.2% (n=815) with no structural improvements. The study revealed a high prevalence of structural defects in the houses constructed in Limpopo. The most prevalent defects were wall cracks (n=247) and door problems (237). Furthermore 221 houses had window defects and 195 had roof problems. Table 4.3 below outlines the nature of the structural defects and the number of houses thereof.
- o **North West:** The Ba-Ga-Mothibi (98.5%; n=596) and Letsopa Ext 4 (100%; n=54) projects mainly provided beneficiaries with 2-roomed houses while the Masosobane (87.7%; n=64) and Ratlou (80.9%; n=486) projects provided beneficiaries with 3-roomed houses. Most of the properties did not have any structural improvements (76.3%; n=972) while 23.7% (n=302) had improvements. The study revealed a high prevalence of structural defects in the houses constructed in North West. The most prevalent defects were wall cracks (n=643) and roof problems (420). The number of houses with window and door defects was 332 and 179 respectively. A significant proportion of the houses (n=77) were not plastered.
- o **Eastern Cape:** A higher percentage of the properties had 2 rooms (85.7%; n=1939), while 9.9% (n=225) had 3 rooms, 2.4% (n=55) had 4 rooms, 1.8% (n=40) had 1 room and 0.1% (n=3) had 5 and more rooms. A small proportion of the properties (7.0%; n=156) had some form of structural improvements as compared to 93.0% (n=2071) with no structural improvements. The study revealed a high prevalence of structural defects in the houses constructed in Eastern Cape. The most prevalent defects were wall cracks (n=873) and roof problems (n=465). The number of houses with window and door defects was 266 and 383 respectively.

Table 4.3: Nature of structural defects

Nature of structural defect	FS	MP	KZN	LP	NW	EC
Wall cracks	70	120	377	247	643	873
Roof problem/leakage	60	101	642	195	420	465
Window problem	25	82	261	221	332	266
Door problem	22	108	278	237	179	383
No plastering	6	28	9	11	77	2
Penetration of water into the house	-	5	58	10	25	-
No proper foundation	-	-	-	-	5	-

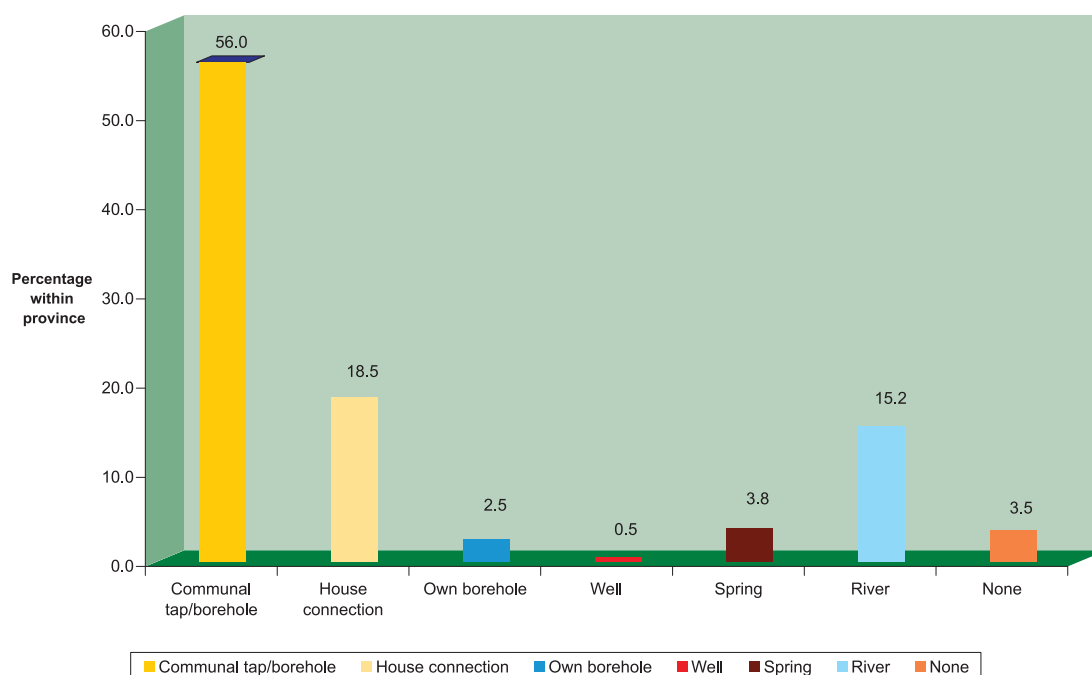
Table 4.3 outlines the number of properties structural defects per Province.

#### 4.4.2. Sanitation

##### Water

Graph 4.11 provides an outline of the main sources of water for beneficiaries of the Rural Housing Programme. As depicted in the graph below, more than half of the households use communal taps/ boreholes (56.0%; n=4963) while 18.5% (n=1643) had house connections and 2.5% (n=222) use their own boreholes. A significant proportion of respondents reported that they get their water from natural sources such as rivers (15.2%; n=1346); springs (3.8%; n=337) and wells (0.5%; n=48). Only 3.5% (n=310) reported that they did not have access to water.

Graph 4.11: Main sources of water for beneficiaries of the RHP



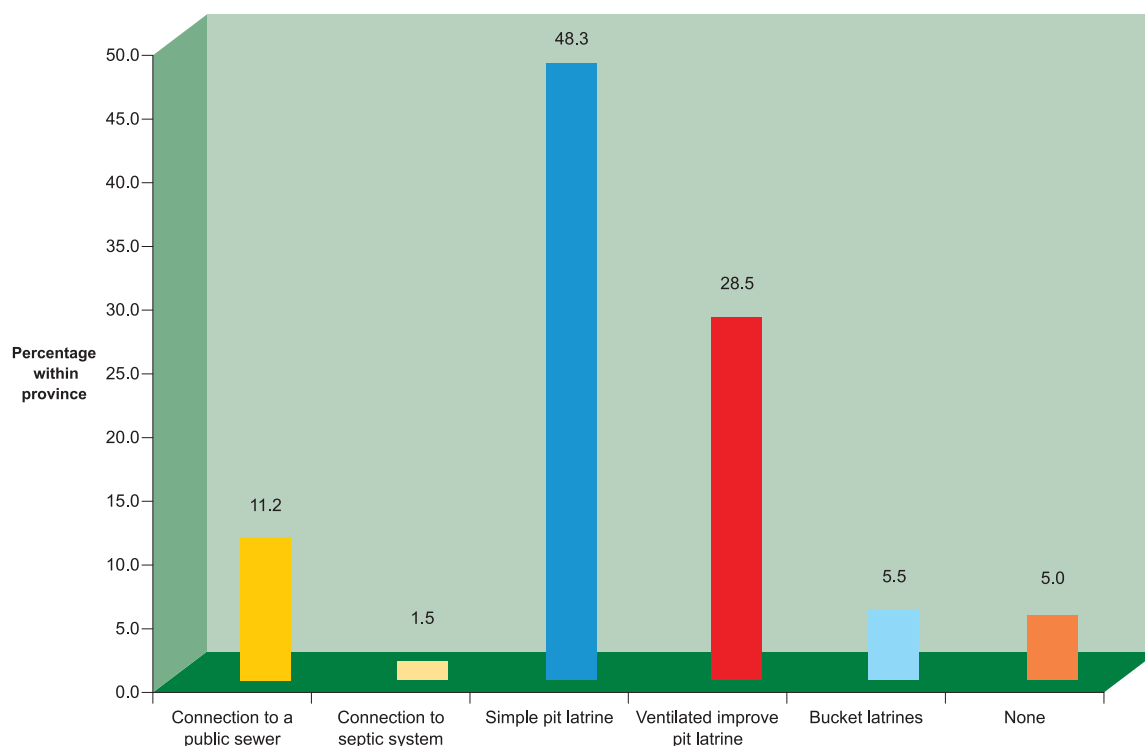
### **Main sources of water per Province:**

- o **Free State:** Most of the household had house connections with Maluti a Phofong at 60.2% (n=53) and GT Molefe at 64.8% (n=225). Only a small proportion of households at GT Molefe, 7.0% (n=24) and Maluti a Phofong, 1.1% (n=1), did not have access to clean water.
- o **Mpumalanga:** Most of the households use communal taps/boreholes 41.1% (n=134), 25.9% (n=84) had house connections while 9.3% (n=30) had their own boreholes. A small percentage of households get their water from springs 7.4% (n=24), rivers 3.4% (n=11) and wells 0.3% (n=1). A significant proportion of respondents in Nkonjaneni, 17.0% (n=7); Nzikasi, 11.9% (n=31) and Libangeni, 9.1% (n=2) did not have access to water.
- o **KwaZulu-Natal:** The sources of water varied within projects, with all the households in Makhasa RHP, 100% (n=758) and 59.3% (n=277) in Amazizi RHP using communal taps/boreholes. A high percentage of households at Kwamngomezulu, 96.5% (n=55), Nodunga, 83.1% (n=138) and Buxedeni, 59.4% (n=552) get their water from rivers. The study revealed that some areas in Nodunga Project has communal land pipes, however there are problems with water supply. A high percentage of respondents in Amazizi 35.1% (n=164) indicated a spring as their main source of water, however there is internal water reticulation network (stand pipes) in some parts of the area.
- o **Limpopo:** Most of the households use communal taps/boreholes, 56.8% (n=654). 25.2% (n=290) had house connections while 1.6% (n=18) had no access to portable water. A significant proportion of households get their water from natural sources such as rivers, 13.8% (n=159); springs, 0.3% (n=3) and wells, 2.3% (n=26). A high percentage of households in Abigail, 33.0% (n=108); A re Ageng, 16.7% (n=14); Versatex, 16.5% (n=15) and Zorah, 11.5% (n=22) get their water from rivers.
- o **North West:** Most of the households (71.8%; n=971) use communal taps/boreholes, 12.4% (n=168) had house connections while 4.0% (n=54) get their water from rivers. A significant proportion of respondents reported that they did not have access to water (11.8%; n=160). A high proportion of households in Masosobane, 23.0% (n=17) and Ratlou, 24.9% (n=143) did not have access to portable water while 8.0% (n=51) of households at Ba-Ga-Mothibi fetch water from a river.
- o **Eastern Cape:** Most of the households use communal taps/boreholes, 69.3% (n=1613) while 25.0% (n=582) had house connections; and 0.6% (n=13) had their own boreholes. A small proportion of households get their water from natural sources including: rivers (3.7%; n=85); springs (0.1%; n=4); and wells (0.2%; n=5). A small proportion of respondents reported that they did not have access to water (1.1%; n=26) at all. Most of the respondents in Nkozi (94.0%; n=79) reported a river as their main source of water.

## Toilet Facilities

With regard to toilet facilities a higher percentage of the households reported that they use simple pit latrines (48.3%; n=3950), while 28.5% (n=2329) use ventilated improved pit (VIP) latrines. A further 11.2% (n=914) of the households had connections to public sewer and 1.5% (n=121) had connections to the septic system. A small proportion of the respondents still uses buckets (5.5%) and 5.0% (n=409) reported that they did not have toilet facilities at all. See graph 4.12 below.

Graph 4.12: Type of toilet facilities



## Type of toilet facilities per Province

- o **Free State:** 96.5% (n=408) of the respondents reported using simple pit latrine while 2.7% (n=12) use ventilated pit latrines. A small proportion of households had connections to public sewer (0.5%; n=2) and connections to septic system (0.2%; n=1).
- o **Mpumalanga:** A higher percentage of the respondents, 88.3% (n=257) use simple pit latrines, while 9.4% (n=25) did not have toilet facilities at all. A small percentage reported on the following types toilet facilities: connections to public sewer (1.0%; n=3), connections to septic system (0.7%; n=2) and ventilated improved pit latrine (VIP) (0.7%; n=2).
- o **KwaZulu-Natal:** Most households use pit latrines (44.0%; n=1266) and ventilated improved pit latrine (33.8%; n=975). The proportion of households with connections to public sewer and connections to septic system were 14.2% (n=410) and 1.5% (n=44) respectively. A small percentage uses public latrines (5.4%) and buckets (0.1%; n=3), while 6.7% (n=184) did not have toilet facilities at all.



- o **Limpopo:** Most households (52.5%; n=545) use pit latrines while 39.8% (n=414) had ventilated improved pit (VIP) latrines. Other types of toilets used include: connections to public sewer (0.3%; n=3), connections to septic system (0.9%; n=9) and bucket latrines (1.1%; n=12). A small proportion of respondents reported that they did not have toilet facilities at all (5.4%; n=56).
- o **North West:** Most households use ventilated improved pit (VIP) latrines (52.6%; n=697) and 31.3% (n=414) using simple pit latrines. A further 11.1% (n=147) of the households had connections to public sewer and connections to septic system (4.6%; n=61). A small proportion (0.4%; n=5) did not have toilet facilities.
- o **Eastern Cape:** Most households were using simple pit latrines (50.0%) while others had connections to public sewer (16.5%), connections to septic system (0.2%) and ventilated improved pit latrines (10.8%). A significant proportion of households use buckets (20.4%) and public latrines (1.4%) while 0.7% did not have toilet facilities. Queenstown and St Mark were a source of concern with 30.1% and 18.2% of the households using buckets.

#### 4.4.3 Energy

A higher percentage of the households had electricity (66.4%; n=5729) while 33.6% (n=2904) did not have electricity. Of those with electricity the majority use the pre-paid electricity system (91.9%).

- o **Free State:** A higher percentage (85.6%; n=370) of the households had electricity while 14.4% (n=62) did not have electricity. A significant proportion of households at Maluti a Phofong (22.2%; n=20) and GT Molefe (12.3%; n=42) did not have energy supply. Of those with electricity the majority (95.7%; n=358) use the pre-paid electricity system while 4.3% (n=16) use the metered system
- o **Mpumalanga:** A higher percentage of the households had electricity (73.1%; n=223), whereas 26.9% (n=82) did not have electricity. Of those with electricity the majority (96.4%; n=215) use the pre-paid electricity system while 3.6% (n=8) use the metered system.
- o **KwaZulu-Natal:** More than half of the respondents, 50.3% (n=1586) reported that they did not have access to electricity while 49.7% (n=1564) had electricity. All respondents in Kwamngomezulu reported that they did not have electricity. A high percentage of households in Makhasa, 89.9% (n=678); Nodunga 52.4% (n=86) and Umdumezulu 45.5% (n=402) did not have electricity. A further 35.3% (n=292) of respondents in Buxedeni and 15.3% (n=71) in Amazizi were without electricity. Of those with electricity the majority 88.8% (n=1434) use the pre-paid electricity system.
- o **Limpopo:** A higher percentage 84.0% (n=905) of the households had electricity, while 16.0% (n=173) did not have electricity. A significant proportion of households at Zorah 36.5% (n=69), Abigail 25.7% (n=66) and A Re Ageng (0.2% (n=17) did not have energy supply. Of those with electricity the majority 92.7% (n=855) use the pre-paid electricity system while 7.3% (n=67) using the metered system.

- o **North West:** A higher percentage, 50.7% (n=663) of the households did not have electricity while 49.3% (n=644) reported that they had electricity. A high percentage of households at Ratlou 64.3% (n=385); and Ba-Ga-Mothibi 45.3% (n=263) did not have electricity. The proportions of households without electricity in Masosobane and Letsopa Ext 4 were 16.2% (n=12) and 5.7% (n=3) respectively. Of those with electricity the majority (79.3%; n=536) use the pre-paid electricity system while 16.7% (n=113) use the metered system.
- o **Eastern Cape:** Most of the respondents 85.7% (n=2023) had electricity while 14.3% (n=338) did not have electricity connections. The St Mark Housing Project did not have any electricity supply. A significant proportion of households at Rhexeni 26.5% (n=31), McFarlane 23.3% (n=27) and Stutterheim 22.3% (n=33) did not have electricity. Of those with electricity the majority 97.3% (n=1981) use the pre-paid electricity system.

#### 4.4.4 Transport

As regards transportation to work, most respondents reported that they walk 45.7% (n=756). The percentages of those who use public transport were 37.7% (n=625) (using taxis) and 12.7% (n=210) (using buses) with a small proportion of respondents using animal propelled mode of transportation (0.3%; n=5). Only 3.6% (n=60) use their own vehicles to work. Similarly most respondents reported that their children walk to school 87.5% (n=5884) while 8.4% (n=562) use taxis. A small proportion of children use buses 3.1% (n=209), family vehicles 0.8% (n=51) and animal propelled mode of transportation 0.2% (n=13). In terms of the availability of public transport 70.6% (n=6048) of respondents indicated that transport was available everyday, 13.5% (n=1154) had access to transport almost every day, 9.5% (n=816) had transport to work some days while 6.4% reported that transport to work was never available to them.

- o **Free State:** Most respondents reported that they walk 66.7% (n=82). The percentage of those who use taxis and buses to work were 20.3% (n=25) and 9.8% (n=12) respectively. Only 3.2% (n=4) use their own vehicles to work. Similarly most respondents reported that their children walk to school 92% (n=287) while 7.1% (n=22) use taxis. A small proportion of children use buses 0.3% (n=1) and animal propelled modes of transportation 0.3% (n=1). The availability of public transport poses a serious challenge to Maluti a Phofong residents where most of the respondents 68.9% (n=51) reported that public transport was never available.
- o **Mpumalanga:** A higher percentage of respondents reported that they use public transport to work with 43.9% (n=47) using buses and 15.9% (n=17) using taxis. However 38.3% (n=41) reported that they walk and 1.9% (n=2) use their own vehicles to work. With regard to children's transportation to school, most respondents 90.6% (n=213) reported that their children walk to school. A small proportion of children uses buses 5.1% (n=12) and taxis 4.3% (n=10). Most of those using public transport reported that transport was available everyday 84.5% (n=256).
- o **KwaZulu-Natal:** More than half of the respondents reported that they walk to work 57.2% (n=393) while 34.8% (n=239) use taxis with 4.2% (n=29) using buses. A small proportion 0.3% (n=2) using animal propelled modes of transportation and 3.5% (n=24) use their own vehicles. With regard to



children's transportation to school most respondents 91.4% (n=2492) reported that their children walk to school while 7.2% (n=196) use taxis. Most of those using public transport reported that transport was available everyday (79.3%; n=2526).

- o **Limpopo:** More than half of the respondents reported that they walk to work 51.2% (n=42) while 26.8% (n=22) use taxis, 19.5% (n=16) using buses and 2.4% (n=2) using their own vehicle. With regard to children's transportation to school most respondents 95.4% (n=779) reported that their children walk to school. Only a small proportion of children use buses 1.8% (n=15), taxis 2.7% (n=22) and family vehicles 0.1% (n=1). Most of those using public transport reported that transport was available everyday 85.8% (n=901).
- o **North West:** A higher percentage of respondents reported using public transport to work in the form of taxis 44.9% (n=67) and buses 20.4% (n=31). However 30.3% (n=46) reported that they walk and 4.0% (n=6) use their own vehicles to work. A small proportion of respondents use animal propelled mode of transportation 1.3% (n=2). With regard to children's transportation to school most respondents 89.6% (n=730) reported that their children walk to school. However a small proportion of children use buses 3.7% (n=30), taxis 5.5% (n=45), family cars 1.0% (n=8) and animal propelled mode of transport 0.2% (n=2). In terms of the availability of public transport, 52.8% (n=679) reported that public transport was available every day while other respondents indicated that transport was available almost every day 13.1% (n=169), some days 12.8% (n=165) and never available 21.3% (n=274).
- o **Eastern Cape:** More than half of the respondents reported that they use taxis 50.5% (n=255) and buses 14.9% (n=75) to travel to work while 4.3% (n=22) use their own cars, 30.1% (n=152) walking to work and 0.2% (n=1) using animal propelled mode of transport. With regard to children's transportation to school, most respondents 76.3% (n=1383) reported that their children walk to school while 14.7% (n=267) use taxis, 6.5% (n=118) using buses, 2.0% (n=37) using family vehicles and 0.4% (n=8) using animal propelled mode of transport. Most of those using public transport reported that transport was available every day 61.4% (n=1443) while other respondents indicated that it transport was available almost every day 28.6% (n=672), some days 8.7% (n=205) and never available 1.3% (n=31).

#### 4.4.5 Health Care Facilities

Respondents were asked to indicate the type(s) of healthcare facilities accessible to their households within a 5km range. Respondents reported as follows: community clinics 53.4% (n=5056), mobile clinics 28.0% (n=2656), hospitals 3.1% (n=296); general practitioners 2.7% (n=257), and health centres 2.6% (n=248). However 10.1% (n=960) of the respondents reported that there were no healthcare facilities available within a 5km range.

- o **Free State:** The types of healthcare facilities accessible to households within a 5km range were mainly community clinics 89.6% (n=413), hospitals 5.6% (n=26), general practitioners 3.0% (n=14), mobile clinics 0.9% (n=4) and health centres 0.2% (n=1). A small percentage 0.7% (n=3) of respondents reported that there were no healthcare facilities available within a 5km range.

- o **Mpumalanga:** The types of healthcare facilities accessible to households within a 5km range were mainly community clinics 71.7% (n=236), mobile clinics 16.4% (n=54), hospitals 6.7% (n=22), general practitioners 1.2% (n=4) and health centres 0.3% (n=1). A small proportion 3.7% (n=12) of respondents reported that there were no healthcare facilities accessible within a 5km range.
- o **KwaZulu-Natal:** The types of healthcare facilities accessible to households within a 5km range were mainly community clinics 67.0% (n=2127) and mobile clinics 26.8% (n=850). A small proportion of households were able to access hospitals 1.0% (n=33), general practitioners 0.3% (n=8), and health centres 0.3% (n=11). A small percentage of respondents reported that there were no healthcare facilities accessible within a 5km range (4.6%; n=146).
- o **Limpopo:** The types of healthcare facilities accessible to households within a 5km range were mainly community clinics 60.8% (n=794) and mobile clinics 26.0% (n=338). A small proportion of households were able to access general practitioners 7.2% (n=94), health centres 1.5% (n=19), and hospitals 1.3% (n=17). A small percentage of respondents reported that there were no healthcare facilities accessible within a 5km range 3.2% (n=42).
- o **North West:** The types of healthcare facilities accessible to households within a 5km range were mainly community clinics 40.4% (n=611), mobile clinics 26.2% (n=396), hospitals 5.1% (n=78), health centres 5.1% (n=78), and general practitioners 4.0% (n=61). A significant proportion of respondents reported that there were no healthcare facilities accessible within a 5km range 19.2% (n=290).
- o **Eastern Cape:** The types of healthcare facilities accessible to households within a 5km range were mobile clinics 37.78% (n=1014) and community clinics 32.5% (n=875). A small proportion of households were able to access health centres 5.1% (n=138), hospitals 4.5% (n=120), and general practitioners 2.8% (n=76). A significant proportion of respondents reported that there were no healthcare facilities accessible within a 5km range 17.4% (n=467). Graph 4.49 indicated the accessibility of healthcare services by project. Respondents at St Marks 100% (n=11) and Rhozeneni 100% (n=109) did not have access to healthcare facilities. Similarly, 56.0% (n=56) of households in MacFarlane did not have access to health care facilities.

#### 4.4.6 Schools

Respondents were asked to indicate the types of schools accessible to children within a 5km range. Primary schools were accessible to 43.8% (n=6342) of the households; crèches to 27.2% (n=3943) and secondary schools to 29.0% (n=4186) of the households.

- o **Free State:** Primary schools were accessible to 41.4% (n=300) of the households; crèches to 30.8% (n=223) and secondary schools to 27.8% (n=201) of the households.
- o **Mpumalanga:** Primary schools were accessible to 48.2% (n=230) of the households; crèches to 24.1% (n=115) and secondary schools to 27.7% (n=132) of the households.



- o **KwaZulu-Natal:** Primary schools were accessible 53.0% (n=2411) of the households; secondary schools to 27.7% (n=1263) and crèches to 19.3% (n=877) of the households.
- o **Limpopo:** Primary schools were accessible 43.3% (n=813) of the households; crèches to 23.3% (n=427) and secondary schools to 32.4% (n=594) of the households.
- o **North West:** Primary schools were accessible 32.6% (n=522) of the households; crèches to 37.4% (n=599) and secondary schools to 30.0% (n=480) of the households.
- o **Eastern Cape:** Primary schools were accessible 39.1% (n=2066) of the households; secondary schools to 28.7% (n=1516) and crèches to 32.2% (n=1702) of the households.

#### 4.4.7 Shopping facilities

Respondents were also asked to indicate the types of shopping facilities accessible to their households within a 5km range. The types of shopping facilities available were: Spaza shops, accessible to 68.1% (n=6788), local general dealers, accessible to 22.1% (n=2204) and chain supermarkets, accessible to 5.5% (n=545) of the respondents. Only 4.3% (n=430) of the respondents reported that they did not have access to shopping facilities.

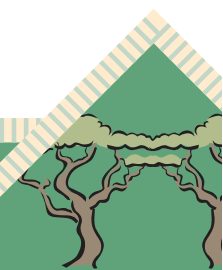
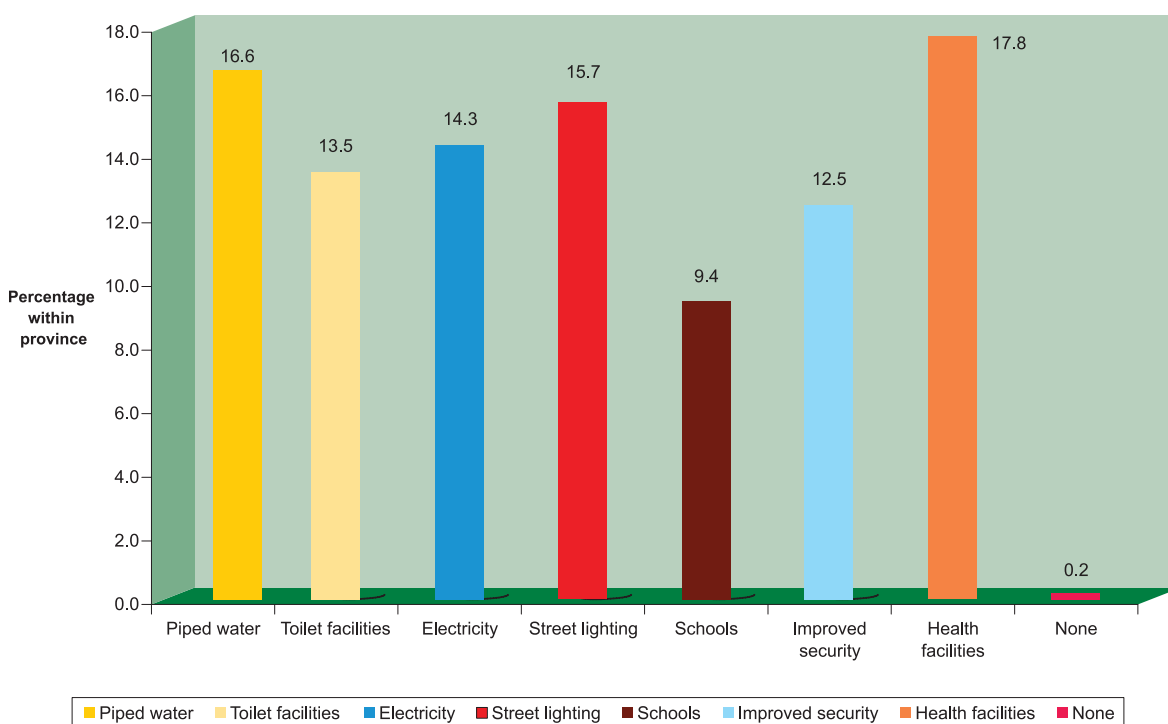
- o **Free State:** The types of shops available to households within a 5km range were local general dealers 40.0% (n=257); spaza shops accessible to 32.0% (n=205) and chain supermarkets accessible to 28.0% (n=182) of the respondents.
- o **Mpumalanga:** The types of shops available to households within a 5km range were mainly spaza shops, accessible to 51.2% (n=221), local general dealers accessible to 30.0% (n=129) and chain supermarkets accessible to 18.8%; (n=81) of the respondents.
- o **KwaZulu-Natal:** The types of shops available to households within a 5km range were spaza shops, accessible to 78.8% (n=2599), local general dealers, accessible to 14.9% (n=491) and chain supermarkets accessible to 2.4% (n=80) of the respondents while 3.9% (n=127) had no access to shops at all.
- o **Limpopo:** The types of shopping facilities accessible to households within a 5km range were spaza shops, accessible to 47.2% (n=662), local general dealers, accessible to 46.0% (n=646) and chain supermarkets, accessible to 6.6%; (n=93).
- o **North West:** The types of shops available to households within a 5km range were mainly spaza shops, accessible to 64.1%; (n=1087), local general dealers, accessible to 31.7% (n=538), and chain supermarkets, accessible to 2.5%; (n=43) of the respondents.
- o **Eastern Cape:** The types of shops available to households within a 5km range were spaza shops, accessible to 80.7% (n=2014), local general dealers, accessible to 5.7%; (n=143) and chain supermarkets, accessible to 2.6% (n=66), while 11.0% (n=274) of the respondents had no access to shops.



#### 4.4.8 Services and facilities required

Respondents were further asked to identify critical services/facilities they require from a list of seven (7) possible services/facilities. Graph 4.13 illustrates the services/facilities as required by the respondents. At the top of the list were health facilities (17.8%; n=4509), piped water (16.6%; n=4214); and street lighting (15.7%; n=3982). This was followed by electricity (14.3%; n=3633); toilet facilities (13.5%; n=3420); improved security (12.5%; n=3172) and schools (9.4%; n=2385). Another critical service mentioned by respondents (other than those in the list) was the improvement of roads conditions.

Graph 4.13: critical services/facilities required by beneficiaries of the RHP



### ***Critical services/facilities required per Province:***

- o **Free State:** Toilet facilities were the most required service in the Free State reported by 35.0% (n=180) at GT Molefe and 26.1% (n=79) at Maluti a Phofong. These were followed by health facilities 22.8% (n=117) at GT Molefe and street lighting 25.5% (n=77) at Maluti a Phofong.
- o **Mpumalanga:** For Libangeni, piped water (17.6%; n=12); street lighting (25.0%; n=17) and health facilities (22.1%; n=15) at the top of the priority list. For Nkonjaneni the most critical services are toilet facilities (23.6%; n=39); health facilities (23.0%; n=38) and piped water (18.2%; n=30). For Nzikasi the most required services are toilet facilities (24.3%; n=191); piped water (19.6%; n=154) and street lighting (18.0%; n=141).
- o **KwaZulu-Natal:** The most required services, in order of preference, are electricity (23.7%; n=1802); piped water (20.4%; n=1555); health facilities (15.3%; n=1165); toilet facilities (11.6%; n=881); improved security (10.8%); street lighting (9.5%; n=727) and schools (8.6%; n=658). Electricity is the most critical service required at Makhasa (65.0%; n=670) and Kwamngomezulu (41.4%; n=24). A high proportion of respondents in Nodunga (26.6%; n=86) and Umdumezulu (22.5%; n=383) also indicated a need for electricity supply. Piped water is high priority for Nodunga and Amazizi as indicated by 34.1% (n=110) and 30.0% (n=294) of the respondents respectively. Umdumezulu prioritized health facilities (27.6%; n=469).
- o **Limpopo:** The critically required services in order of preference are: piped water (24.0%; n=591); street lighting (22.0%; n=546); health facilities (18.1%; n=447); health facilities (15.5%; n=447); improved security (14.1%; n=348); electricity (10%; n=184); toilet facilities (8.0%; n=198) and schools (6.1%; n=149).
- o **North West:** The required services in order of preference are street lighting (17.6%; n=1067); health facilities (15.7%; n=947); piped water (15.4%); electricity (14.6%; n=881); schools (13.1%; n=791); improved security (12.3%; n=741); and toilet facilities (10.7%; n=947).
- o **Eastern Cape:** The required services in order of preference were health facilities (22.0%; n=1199); street lighting (17.7%; n=1321); toilet facilities (16.1%; n=1199); improved security (14.4%; n=1078); piped water (11.8%; n=880); schools (9.6%) and electricity (8.1%; n=608).



## CHAPTER 5

# IMPACT EVALUATION

This section provides an outline of the impact evaluation of the Rural Housing Programme. The impact evaluation is presented in the following components:

- **Process study.** This analysis examined the operations and processes that make up the Rural Housing Programme.
- **Attainment of Policy objectives.** This analysis examined the extent to which the Rural Housing Programme has achieved its policy objectives.
- **Impact assessment.** This analysis examined impacts on beneficiaries and communities.

### 5.1 Process Study

#### 5.1.1 Application processes and appointment of the implementing and supporting agent

The Municipality may appoint a support organisation, which may not necessarily become the implementing agent, to assist the community to plan and prepare their project application and to register the beneficiaries. Furthermore the municipality or Provincial Department of Human Settlements may procure the services of an accredited implementing agent, to undertake the project on its behalf, for the community. As an alternative it may appoint a supporting organisation established or identified by the members of the beneficiary community who wish to apply the Programme in terms of the People's Housing Process.

#### *Findings*

The beneficiary registration and application of subsidy was mainly handled at community level and municipalities facilitated the process. Ward committees were used for the purpose of beneficiary registration as were community members identified by their ward councillors. In fact key informants in this study indicated that there was no need to appoint an agent to assist in beneficiary application and registrations. The study also revealed that there were instances where agents were appointed to assist municipalities with the applications and registration of beneficiaries. Table 5.1 below indicates agents/organisations that were appointed in each province:

Table 5.1: Organisations/agents appointed for beneficiary registrations

Province	Name of agent/organisation
Eastern Cape	Lukhozini Development Agency
	Africon
North-West	Makobel Property Developers

Most Rural Housing Projects appointed developers for the implementation process. However some projects (especially in the Eastern Cape) were implemented by the beneficiary community members through the People Housing Process (PHP). The table below (table 5.2) outlines the names of developers that were involved in the implementation of rural housing projects. Other agents/structures involved in the process were the Ward Councillors and Traditional councils mainly playing a monitoring role during project implementation.

**Table 5.2: Developers involved in the implementation of rural housing projects**

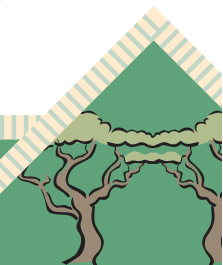
Province	Name of contractors/developer
<b>Eastern cape</b>	Collarotsi Civil Engineers/ Mintirho Engineers
	S.C. Contractors
	Women in Construction
	Mintirho Construction
<b>Free State</b>	Emendo
<b>Kwazulu-Natal</b>	Kwamgomezulu Constructions
	Stedon Contractors
<b>Limpopo</b>	Versatex Construction
	Mokgaetjie Developers
<b>Mpumalanga</b>	Kusile Africa/Samsokol and Tlhogelo
<b>North-West</b>	Majoro Trading
	Makobel Property Developers
	Young Alum SA (YASA), Mosa Projects & Malebaleba

### ***Lessons learned***

- i) The appointment of community structures to handle beneficiaries' applications and registration increases the level of community participation in projects planning and implementation and it must, therefore, be encouraged.

### **5.1.2 Project Implementation**

Rural Housing projects may be implemented by: (1) Municipalities or other agents or support organisations as approved by the MEC who will collaborate with the Traditional Council or Land Administration Committee or community members concerned as applicable, to prepare project applications, obtain project approvals and implement projects; (2) The Provincial Department of Human Settlements as an option of last resort. In such cases the Provincial Department of Human Settlements must embark on the project development in partnership and/or collaboration with the municipality to ensure that the capacity and the municipality is enhanced and all aspects of the project are approved by the municipality. The policy prescripts also provide for the Provincial Departments of Human Settlements to consider, approve and fund applications and monitor the implementation of projects. The National Department of Human Settlements, by virtue of its mandate as a policy making body, will ensure the monitoring and evaluation of the policy.



## Findings

The study revealed that the rural housing projects were mainly implemented by the Provincial Departments while municipalities played a monitoring role in the process. However in some cases, both the municipality and the Provincial Department implemented the projects jointly.

This study found out that developers were paid based on progress made or achievement of milestones. The payments were done in three tranches, namely: Foundation or Slab; Wall plate; and roofing and finishing. In case where projects were implemented by the provincial departments the role of municipalities would be to monitor progress. The Province would process payment following a satisfactory inspection report by both the municipality and provincial department.

*“We paid the developers according to stages, for example, Slab, top structure and finishing or roofing” (Cofimvaba).*

*The developer will be paid three times and it is when he has finished the foundation, wall plate and roofing” (Mokgaetjie).*

*“The payment issue is done by the province and our responsibilities is to sign invoices then the province pays the constructors” (Kwamngomezulu)*

The study also found that implementation monitoring at project level was a challenge across all the Provinces. One critical issue of concern that emanated from this study was the delay in the completion of the rural housing projects.

*“... it is not yet finished since 1997 and we still have 1026 outstanding houses” (Maubane).*

*...if we can get quality materials and professional contractors and effectively monitor these projects, Rural Housing Programme can be successful” (Ba-Ga-Mot-hibi).*

*“...it is taking more time to be completed and developers do not adhere to timelines” (Versatex).*

## Lessons learned

- i) The payment of contractors based on the achievement of milestones ensures accountability on the part of the contractors and municipalities and should be continued with. However this can be strengthened by linking the achievement of milestones with timeframes.
- ii) The Monitoring and evaluation framework should form an integral part of the Rural Housing Policy providing for the link between planning and implementation.



### 5.1.3 Handing over processes of the projects to the beneficiary members

There are no provisions for the 'handing over processes of the projects to the beneficiary members' in the Rural Housing Policy prescripts.

#### **Findings**

On completion of the project a team of inspectors (from a municipality and the Provincial Department of Human Settlements) would be sent to the site accompanied by the developer and the beneficiaries for structural inspection. When the beneficiary was satisfied with the structure he/she would be required to sign a 'happy letter', to indicate that he/she is satisfied with the subsidised house received. In some instances official hand-over ceremonies were organised.

*"...there must be an inspection by both provincial and municipal building inspectors and then if both inspectors and the beneficiaries are happy, therefore a happy letter is signed by both parties" (Maluti-a-Phofong).*

*"There was a hand over ceremony organised where all beneficiaries and other members of the community were called in, meanwhile the municipality had prepared happy letters to be signed by the beneficiaries upon accepting their house" (Ratlou).*

*"The beneficiaries sign a happy letter after house inspection and they are given keys for the house" (Mokgaetjie).*

This study has also revealed that in some instances the official handing over process was not done due to reasons including the following: (1) In some projects the houses were built within the yards where people were already staying; (2) The developers were still on site, hence the projects were not completed; (3) There were conflicts and tensions within the community.

#### **Lessons Learned**

- i) Provincial Departments and Municipalities have adopted a process whereby beneficiaries are involved in the handing over of projects and are required to sign off a 'happy letter' to indicate that they are satisfied with the structure provided. This is a good initiative and should be encouraged. However, the process does not provide beneficiaries with any recourse should structural defects become apparent post the hand over date. The evaluation revealed a high prevalence of structural defects (including leaking roofs, cracked walls/windows and poor floors) in the projects evaluated. The enrolment of each project with NHBRC is of paramount importance in this regard. This will ensure that national norms and standards are adhered to. Furthermore, NHBRC



enrolment will provide recourse for some of the poorest households in the country and the most vulnerable groups, so as to ensure that their constitutional right to have access to 'adequate housing' is protected in both letter and spirit. .

- ii) The second lesson derived from the literature review is that the acceptability of the structure/project increases when beneficiaries have an influence of the type of structure as well as the location of the project.

#### 5.1.4 Services handed to the municipality

Projects are subject to an undertaking by the municipality to provide municipal bulk and connector engineering infrastructure services. Other relevant service providers may also be considered. No residential reticulation engineering services such as water reticulation will be approved and constructed as part of a project without the undertaking by the relevant authorities that sufficient bulk and or connector engineering infrastructure services are available and will be provided.

### **Findings**

The study found that there were no services handed to municipalities on completion of projects given the nature of the Rural Housing Programme. Subsidised houses were mainly built where people were already occupying the land and important services such as electricity, bulk water and other related services (where available) were installed prior to the implementation of the projects. In some other cases sanitation remained the only services handed to the municipalities because most of the houses constructed were accompanied by toilets.

*"No, there was no services handed to the municipality because these structures are built in the already service planted areas" (Versatex).*

*"The installation of electricity was there already." (Kwamngomezulu).*

*"No, there was no need for such services to be handed to the municipality because they are there and they only need sustainability" (Nkozo).*

### **Lessons Learned**

The findings of the study revealed that a significant proportion of beneficiaries did not have access to portable water: 15.2% (n=1346) get their water from rivers; 3.8% (n=337) springs; 0.5% (n=48) wells; and 3.5% (n=310) did not have access to water at all. For toilet facilities 5.5% use buckets and 5.0% (n=409) do not have toilet facilities. A further 33.6% (n=2904) did not have electricity. Hence the 'municipal service provision undertaking' processes needs to be improved.

## 5.2 Attainment of Policy Objectives

### 5.2.1 The Interim Protection of Informal Land Rights Act

The housing subsidies allocated to beneficiaries under the Rural Housing Programme are awarded to persons who enjoy informal land rights protected by this Act.

#### **Findings**

In all the projects evaluated the subsidies were allocated to persons who enjoy informal land rights as protected by the Act.

#### **Lesson learned**

The RHP has been effective in reaching the intended target audience as demonstrated in the paragraph above.

### 5.2.2 Community participation

It is a prerequisite of project approval that members of the beneficiary community must participate in all aspects of the housing development that is planned and will be undertaken. Where CLaRA is applicable, participation must also take place through the representative Land Administration Committee.

#### **Evaluation**

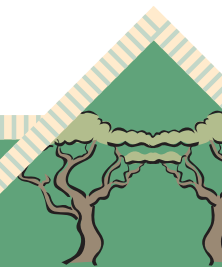
The beneficiaries of the RHP were, to a greater extent, involved in the planning of the projects as reported by 89.6% of the respondents in the study.

*“They were involved in prioritising needy people for allocation...” (Mokgaetjie).*

*“...the community participated in the preparation and allocation of stands”  
(Maubane).*

However, only 52.7% of the beneficiaries were involved in project implementation. Community members were mainly involved as labourers, subcontractors and as security guards to protect building materials. Community members were involved not because they were the direct beneficiaries, but by the fact that they were legal occupants of the beneficiary community. Members of the beneficiary communities also served in Project Implementation Committees.

*“...other beneficiary community members were sub-contractors”  
(Libangeni ward 16).*



*“Our people were employed by the developer to supply material to build the houses, for example, water and sand supply” (Versatex).*

*“Some community members were bricklayer and others...” (Abigail).*

According to the 2009/10 impact evaluation study, there were instances where houses were built solely by the beneficiary community members.

*“Member participated in all stages of the programme...All houses were built by the community.”(G. T.Molefe).*

A high proportion of the respondents (47.3%) reported that they were never involved in the implementation of the projects. In this regard developers brought in their own labour for the implementation of the Rural Housing Projects.

*“People of ward 8 did not benefit directly from the programme...developers came with their own people. ... involving our people to participate in the implementation of the project is difficult because of lack of skills” (Mokgaetjie).*

### **Lessons learned**

- i) Adequate beneficiary involvement at all stages of the project cycle to foster the ownership. The involvement of beneficiary community members in the implementation of projects created employment opportunities in rural areas during the implementation of such projects.

*“The rural housing programme has created jobs opportunities for most of our people” (Nzikasi)*

*“...our people had employment opportunities” (Maphumulo)*

*“Beneficiary community member where employed even though they were not in a large number” (Versatex).*

- ii) The skills transfer process needs to be explored in order to ensure that skills are retained in the communities and members are able to sustain their livelihood. One of the significant achievements of the Malawi Rural Housing Programme, as indicated in the literature review section of this study, was the empowerment of local people as artisans and small scale enterprisers which demonstrated the local income-generation potential of rural housing projects.
- iii) Rural shelter improvement, if it is to be a sustainable process, must be linked to improvements in other socio-economic dimensions which underlie rural poverty, including the economic productive capacities of participating communities.

### 5.2.3 Coordinated Approach

The Provincial Departments of Human Settlements must satisfy themselves that projects to be funded under this programme are in line with municipal and district integrated development plans (IDP), relevant service sector plans are coordinated between all stakeholders, interested and affected parties concerned including the relevant spheres of government, specific line departments responsible for land management and services provision, the Traditional Council, Land Administration Committee or community members, as applicable.

#### **Evaluation**

The study found that, to a larger extent, rural housing projects were incorporated into their municipalities' IDPs. In Kwazulu-Natal and Free State all projects were incorporated into their municipalities' IDPs. Although some municipalities did not incorporate the rural housing projects into their IDPs, key informants acknowledged the importance of doing so, and suggested that future projects will be incorporated into their IDPs.

*"It was incorporated through the housing chapter which forms part of the IDP"*  
(Letsopa ext 4)

*"Yes, they have got rural housing chapter in the IDP ....."* (Versatex).

*"Not yet, we will implement all our projects and include them in our IDP in the near future"* (Old location).

#### **Lesson learned**

The integration of housing projects in municipal IDPs ensures adequate planning and integration of other municipal services in the implementation of housing projects.

### 5.2.4 Access to Funding

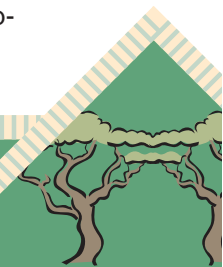
Funding under this programme will only be available within the context of an approved housing development project and may not be accessed on an individual basis.

#### **Findings**

The funding for all projects was made available within the context of an approved housing development project, including those undertaken in accordance with the People Housing Process (PHP).

#### **Lessons learned**

- i) The RHP is effective in ensuring that funding only being available within the context of an ap-



proved housing development project.

- ii) New funding mechanisms for Rural Housing Programmes can be explored. The Zimbabwean experience demonstrated the feasibility of introducing funding mechanisms for low income beneficiaries. The case study demonstrated that cost recovery was not a serious problem in the project. Thus, low income beneficiaries are not significantly different from middle to high income beneficiaries in terms of mortgage repayment defaults.

#### 5.2.5 Subsidy to each individual beneficiary community member

The housing subsidy will be deemed to be allocated to each individual qualifying beneficiary community member whose particulars will be recorded on the National Housing Subsidy Database.

#### ***Findings***

Overall the rural housing subsidies were allocated to qualifying individual beneficiaries who were South African residents (99.1%) and competent to contract. Most of the beneficiaries had previously neither benefited from government assistance (92.7%) nor owned a fixed residential property (83.4%). Beneficiaries are married or cohabiting (40.9%), single with financial dependants or single without financial dependants. Most of the beneficiaries depend on government grants for their monthly household income (55.7%). The RHP also caters for beneficiaries of the land Restitution Programme (1.1%) and persons classified as Military Veterans (0.6%). Vulnerable groups, including women (69.1%); people with disabilities (11.4%); and the aged (26.4%). also benefited from the RHP.

#### ***Lesson learned***

The RHP has been effective in reaching the intended target audience as demonstrated in the paragraph above.

#### 5.2.6 Security of communal land tenure

It is a pre-requisite for the allocation of subsidies under this programme that the beneficiary community member's rights are uncontested and that they qualify for, or acquire, a new order right to, the piece of land allocated to them.

#### ***Findings***

In all the projects evaluated the beneficiary community members' rights to land were uncontested. A majority of individual beneficiaries (72.2%), are in possession of documentary proof, of security of communal land tenure, from tribal authorities indicating that they have the right to occupy land while 27.8% do not have any such documentary proof.



### ***Lessons learned***

- i) Provincial Departments were effective in ensuring that only projects where beneficiary community members' rights are uncontested were approved for the RHP. This should be encouraged.
- ii) Housing consumer education is important to ensure that beneficiaries know and understand their rights and responsibilities towards housing ownership.

#### **5.2.7 Reallocation of subsidised unit**

In the event of a piece of land being vacated by the beneficiary community member, for whatever reason, the Land Administration Committee must ensure that the vacant residential structure is re-allocated to another individual qualifying beneficiary community member whose particulars will be forwarded to the Provincial Housing Department and recorded on the National Housing Subsidy Database.

### ***Findings***

For the reallocation of subsidised units, provincial departments and municipalities do not have any defined procedures to guide the reallocation process. In cases of beneficiaries vacating the property, relatives tend to take over the property. This also applies in cases of death of a beneficiary where children or relatives take the property over.

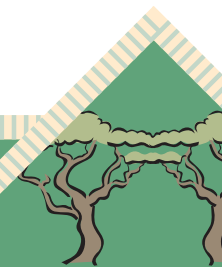
### ***Lesson learned***

Guidelines for the reallocation of subsidised units need to be developed. The guidelines should take cognizance of the family structures in rural areas where extended family members live together in the same property where the subsidised unit is built. Consequently the unit should therefore be allocated to a family member. Housing consumer education is extremely important in this regard.

#### **5.2.8 Development Activities covered by the approved project funding**

Project funds may be used for any development which, in the discretion of the MEC, represents housing purposes and can include:

- Assistance to municipalities to prepare project applications including the provision of project application, planning, land surveying, design, project management and facilitation and implementation agent's services
- Development or upgrading of local access and internal roads and storm water drains
- Development or upgrading of internal or local water infrastructure
- Development or upgrading of local sanitation facilities



- Construction of new housing structures or the repair and upgrading of existing houses
- Purchasing of building materials where persons wish to construct, repair and upgrade their own houses
- Housing purposes approved by the MEC which are not, or cannot be, funded through other programmes of government and require funding under this programme, and will be of benefit to all beneficiaries that form part of the project
- Instances where the houses in the aggregate are considered to be adequate, the housing subsidy may be utilised for the provision of residential engineering services or other housing purposes

### ***Evaluation***

Developmental activities covered by the RHP funding were within the scope prescribed in the Rural Housing Policy prescripts and provisions. Additional activities covered by the project funding were energy supply and project management.

### ***Lesson Learned***

The RHP has been effective in addressing the developmental activities prescribed by the rural housing policy prescripts and provisions.

## **5.3 Impact on individuals and communities**

This section provides an overview of the impact of the RHP on individual beneficiary community members. It should be noted that the evaluation of the rural housing programme revealed that in the implementation of projects, one project would be spread across different villages (ranging from one up to as many as twelve villages). The impact evaluation at community level could not be defined since it was only a few individuals in a specific village that benefited from a project under evaluation. Hence this study was only able to determine the impact on the individuals.

### **5.3.1 Adequate Housing**

Beneficiaries are to be provided with residential structures with secure tenure, ensuring internal and external privacy and providing adequate protection against the elements.

### ***Evaluation***

Beneficiaries' perceptions suggested that the Rural Housing Programme provides a safe living environment where people's dignity is restored. Of critical concern, however, is the quantity of the houses the programme was able to deliver in communities especially in instances where more people in need are not able to benefit from the programme. The structures provide for internal and external

privacy. 41.4% of the houses have (3) three rooms, followed by 37.2% of (2) two-roomed houses and 14.8% of (4) four-roomed houses (14.8%). Of critical concern is the prevalence of structural defects as already mentioned earlier on.

### ***Lessons Learned***

- i) The sizes of the structures provided can be improved to provide for privacy. So can the quality of the structures.
- ii) Projects are more socially acceptable and beneficiaries are happier if they participate in the selection of the house design.

### 5.3.2 Sanitation

Portable water and adequate sanitary facilities to be provided should be sustainable, environmentally acceptable and comply with local circumstances.

Poor households in South Africa can access free basic municipal services. These are services provided at no charge by the Government to poor and needy households. The services currently include water and electricity. These services are provided by municipalities and include a minimum amount of electricity, water and sanitation that is sufficient to cater for the basic needs of a poor household. Free basic water consists of at least an amount of 6 Kl (6 000 l) of water per month per household. Households are only required to pay for water that is used over and above the free supply.

### ***Evaluation***

On the whole beneficiaries have access to portable clean water. However KwaZulu-Natal is a cause for concern with a high percentage of beneficiaries getting their water from natural sources. Although the new houses that were built came with toilet facilities, the conditions and functionality of these toilets are a serious cause for concern.

### ***Lessons Learned***

- i) Adequate sanitation improves the hygiene conditions of households.
- ii) The provision of portable water should be included in the package in future projects.

### 5.3.3 Energy

Free basic electricity of 50kWh per household per month for a grid-energy system (connected through the national electrification programme) is provided to poor households in South Africa. This amount of electricity is enough to provide basic lighting, basic water heating using a kettle, basic ironing and access to a small black and white TV and radio.



## Findings

Although the study revealed that a higher percentage (66.4%) of the households had electricity, 33.6% did not have access to electricity. It was also found that only 4.5% of the beneficiaries of the RHP had access to free basic electricity.

## Lesson Learned

The integration of the housing programme with other basic services is of paramount importance in the realisation of integrated human settlements. In this regard the qualification criteria for a housing subsidy should also seek to identify vulnerable households which qualify for free basic electricity and free basic water services.

## 5.4 Challenges facing delivery of housing utilising the Rural Housing Subsidy

### 5.4.1 Limited funding for the implementation of projects

One of the key challenges facing the delivery of the Rural Housing Programme is the lack of funding to meet the high demand for housing in rural areas. The study revealed that the demand for housing in rural areas was high, and only a few individual members of communities benefited from the programme.

*“...there is lack of funding for this programme”  
(Ba-ga-Mothibi).*

*“...government must put lot of money to assist our needy people”  
(Mokgaetjie).*

*“Lack of enough house allocation”  
(Nodunga).*

*“More houses are needed...”  
(Buxedeni).*

### 5.4.2 Lack of implementation monitoring mechanisms

The study revealed that the RHP takes time to be completed. There are projects that were approved 8-10 years ago that have not been completed. It was also found that during the implementation of the projects, in some instances, developers do not adhere to time frames as agreed in the contract.

*“The project is prolonged by the contractor”  
(Ba-Ga-Mothibi).*

*“The contractor does not finish the project on time” (Nzikasi)*

*“...developers don’t finish their jobs on time” (Abigail).*

*“They are very slow to complete the rural project” (Queenstown Thornhill).*

*“The project takes long to be completed” (Versatex).*

#### 5.4.3 Corruption

Corruption is regarded as one of the most pressing challenges facing rural housing delivery. The current study found that there were instances where building materials were stolen by the beneficiary community members. On the administration side it was alleged that some houses were given to people who were not supposed to benefit from the programme. It was also reported that houses were sold to community members who did not qualify for the housing subsidy.

*“RDP houses are being illegally sold to non beneficiaries”  
(Ba-ga-Mothibi).*

*“Beneficiaries are stealing cement and other material for building RDP houses”  
(Mokgaetjie).*

*“There is theft of building materials and...”  
(Nzikasi).*

*“Qualified beneficiaries are sidelined during allocation.”  
(Libangeni Ward 16).*

*“Government official are inhuman because they are giving people who are already having permanent residential structure these RDP houses and this is unfair...”  
(Nodunga).*



#### 5.4.4 Structural defects

As already indicated the study revealed a high prevalence of structural defects in the projects that were evaluated. The defects included incomplete structures, cracked walls/windows, poor floors, and structures that were not water-tight.

*“There are houses that are not in good condition”  
(Versatex).*

*“Another problem is poor quality of houses and they are using fake materials for the implementation of these projects”  
(Mokgaetjie).*

*“Our houses are of poor condition”  
(Ndlhovini).*

#### 5.4.5 Inadequate Information Management System

For conducting impact evaluations of programmes, baseline data for each project in terms of number of units allocated; and total number completed is critical. However, data from the HSS was inadequate or not consistent with Provincial records.

#### 5.4.6 Institutional Memory Loss Syndrome

One critical finding of this study was a lack of documented information pertaining to the projects from municipalities. The main resource for information pertaining to projects was Community Development Workers (CDW) and community leaders, mainly councillors in this regard. Most of the project information was not documented and can easily be lost.





## CHAPTER 6

# CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

### 6.1 Conclusions

The Rural housing Programme is critical in addressing the housing needs of rural people in South Africa. Given the fact that a substantial number of South African households still reside in rural areas, housing development in rural areas is of vital importance in transforming the social and economic landscape of the country. The integrated human settlement approach ensures that beneficiaries not only have access to residential structures, but also ensures that beneficiaries are provided with adequate housing and tenure security; adequate sanitation; energy and other social amenities such as transport, health care facilities, schools etc.

The 2009/10 study revealed that the programme was successful in addressing the housing need for rural communities who typically lack a strong economic base and mainly depend on government grants for their household income. The study revealed that, through this programme, individuals who could not afford to build a house were provided with shelter, and in some cases, coupled with basic water, electricity and other related services.

The programme was, to a larger extent, able to address the housing needs of the most vulnerable groups such as people with disabilities, the aged, and women in rural communities. Women form the majority of people who benefited more from the Rural Housing Programme. Similarly, the aged constituted a higher proportion of the beneficiaries of the Rural Housing Programme.

The 2009/10 impact evaluation highlighted critical areas of concern with regard to the provision of housing in rural areas. The extent to which the programme is able to address the housing demand in rural communities leaves much to be desired. The Programme was only able to provide subsidies to a limited number of individuals within beneficiary communities. Hence there is still a dire need to increase the quantity of subsidised houses.

The evaluation has indicated that the quality of the houses constructed was a source of concern and needs to be reviewed in order to address the prevalence of structural defects (including leaking roofs, cracked walls/windows and poor floors) which are structurally dangerous to the beneficiaries.

Of critical concern is the lack of implementation monitoring activities which should ensure that projects are delivered on time and that structures meet the minimum norms and standards. The study found that the rural housing projects took a long time to be completed and in some instances projects were left incomplete. This left approved beneficiaries suspended in that they have been approved for a subsidy but no houses have been constructed for them or the structure is incomplete.

The evaluation revealed that there are no defined procedures for the reallocation of the subsidised units. It was found that in cases of beneficiaries vacating the property or in cases of death, children or relatives of the beneficiary tend to take over the property concerned.

It was further revealed that beneficiaries were, to a larger extent, involved in the planning of the projects. However when it comes to implementation beneficiaries were less involved. This left the beneficiary communities with limited skills to engage on similar projects in future. Hence the sustainability of the Rural Housing Programme largely depends on government providing funding for the projects as well as providing technical expertise thereof.

Measures to ensure that the Rural Housing Programme addresses its policy intent are still feasible. However, such measures will require the strengthening of the management framework for the Programme, appropriate planning with respect to municipal integrated development planning and improved access to funding for the Programme.

## 6.2 Recommendations

### 6.2.1 Synergy between Housing supply, Water supply and sanitation, and access to energy.

Investment in improving access to housing alone is not adequate for ensuring integrated human settlements as it requires strengthening synergy between housing supply, water supply, sanitation and access to energy. To facilitate such investment, the policy needs to be clear and relevant Departments will have to be actively engaged so as to ensure efficient coordination and non-duplication of efforts.

### 6.2.2 Monitoring and Evaluation

The National Monitoring and Evaluation Framework clearly defines the monitoring and evaluation mechanisms. In order to monitor the implementation of the programme effectively, the HSS will have to be updated continuously so as to ensure that it remains relevant and current. Secondly, the HSS should provide for the systematic assessment of trends in various projects (e.g. delays in the completion of the projects, projects that are dormant over a period of time). An 'early warning system' should be developed to identify vulnerable municipalities that would need support. This could be facilitated by a helpdesk, allowing project managers to report "adverse events".

Performance criteria for contractors will have to be integrated into the Monitoring and Evaluation Framework to promote a performance-based approach to housing delivery. In this regard, systems of performance grants will have to be established to reward organisations that are able to meet performance milestones and achieve specific targets.

### 6.2.3 Sustain project benefits

A high prevalence of structural defects in the form of leaking roofs, cracked walls; poor floors and incomplete structures, calls for a renewed effort in ensuring availability of safe structures to the rural population. This can be achieved through a functional partnership between developers, municipali-



ties, community structures, Provincial Departments with the support from NHBRC and the National Department of Human Settlements.

To ensure sustainability of project benefits, it is important that, on completion of each project, physical conditions of the infrastructure and sanitation are monitored, initially by the implementing agent with the concerned municipality and community structures so that timely corrective measures can be taken.

Following the findings of this study which revealed a high prevalence of structural defects in the projects that were evaluated the Department, in partnership with Provincial Departments and Municipalities should embark on a process of rectifying the structural defects that are dangerous to the beneficiaries.

The study revealed that the impact of the Rural Housing programme are minimal at community level since it was only a few individuals in a specific village that benefited from the project under evaluation. In order to maximise the project benefits at community level, the project design and funding could be structured such that it does not only provides for structures and services to few individual beneficiaries but also identifies and provides for a structure/service/facilities that will benefit the beneficiary community as a whole.

#### 6.2.4 Establish a data bank for baseline studies

On conceptualisation of each project it is important that baseline studies are conducted. This will be of importance in assessing results of the programme and in conducting impact evaluation studies. The National Department should, therefore, allocate resources for (i) conducting baseline studies in project designs, and (ii) establishing and actively managing the databases and baseline studies.

#### 6.2.5 Capacity development

The roles and responsibilities of various role players in the implementation of the Rural Housing Programme are clearly defined in the Policy. The implementation capacity of municipalities and Provincial Departments has a strong bearing on the success of the projects. Strengthening the capacity of municipalities and Provincial Departments has a potential to generate positive spin-off effects which can be valuable in the implementation of future projects.

The technical capacity of different role players will have to be strengthened. This will entail training interventions for Municipal and Provincial Departments' staff on planning, implementing, monitoring, and evaluating housing programmes, contract management, project management and budgeting. Special training programmes will have to be identified and streamlined accordingly. The capacity of community structures will have to be strengthened for implementing housing programmes. Intensive information, education, and communication campaigns will have to be developed and implemented to promote public awareness. The housing consumer education will have to be made an integral component of the Rural Housing Programme.

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