

https://dspace.org/

Assessing the role of subsidized housing in restructuring cities in democratic South Africa: the case of city of Polkwane

Tafita, Phasha Moshoane

2019
https://hdl.handle.net/10539/28551

Downloaded from a DSpace repository. https://dspace.org/

ASSESSING THE ROLE OF SUBSIDIZED HOUSING IN RESTRUCTURING CITIES IN DEMOCRATIC SOUTH AFRICA: THE CASE OF CITY OF POLOKWANE.

PHASHA MOSHOANE TAFITA

0412404D

UNIVERSITY OF THE WITWATERSRAND, JOHANNESBURG

SCHOOL OF ARCHITECTURE AND PLANNING

24 MAY 2019

DECLARATION

I declare that this research report is my own unaided work. It is submitted in partial fulfilment of the degree of Masters of Science in Development Planning at the University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg. It has not been submitted before for any other degree or examination at any other university.

…….

Phasha Moshoane Tafita

24 May 2019

DEDICATION

This research is dedicated to my late older brothers **Maesela "Letsakatsaka" Phasha** and **Sipho Maushe "Phaahle" Phasha** for the inspiration and support they have given.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Professor Aly Karam- for the supervision and guidance of this research and great input over the years as a student. The consistent effort shown is invaluable and will remain admired.

Polokwane Local municipality and Limpopo Co-operative Governance, Human Settlements and Traditional Affairs (Coghsta) - for opening their doors and granting permission to interact with various departments to collect information.

Family- my siblings **Modipadi Lesufi, Letago Phasha** and **Ernest Kgolane Phasha** for showing undying support over the years and commitment to seeing progress and facilitating resources to ensure this research is complete. My Parents **Bogotjadi and Phaahle** for everything.

My girlfriend **Lerato Selapa**, thank you for the contribution, support and love over the years.

Friends- **Mutshaeni Ndivuwo, Mankhapele Mogano** and **Podile Kgwete** for support and ensuring all necessary resources are in place to ensure completion of this research. **Jerry Moseri** for his input in generation of the maps, his love for Planning and GIS made the process bearable.

The enabler, **Jehofa** the creator of all things. Ke a leboga.

ABSTRACT

South African cities have been shaped mainly by colonial and apartheid systems, serving the interest of minority of the population before 1994. The apartheid city spatial legacy and development practices continue to dictate the urban spatial evolution of South African cities despite more than 20 years of democracy, it has produced spatial fragmentation and urban sprawl. The urban morphology of most cities in democratic South Africa are strongly classed based on face value and have generally remained the same since 1994.

There are government systems which have been implemented in order to reverse the various legacies of apartheid government. Subsidy housing became one of the development strategies of the post 1994 government in urban areas due to increasing urbanisation. The government put in place legislations, policies, programmes and entities to address housing backlog and the increasing housing demand. Various housing subsidy programmes created new settlements or extended old once and thus restructuring cities in different ways and City of Polokwane has been a recipient of subsidy housing since 1994.

This study is a desktop research exploring the role of subsidy housing in spatial reform and restructuring of the City of Polokwane. The municipality identified strategic open spaces and earmarked them as strategic development areas which were used to deliver various housing programmes. The findings of the study and its conclusion has been that through subsidy housing the city managed to restructure spatially. However, there is a need for housing policy that speaks directly to restructuring of Polokwane City apart from available strategies and policies. The report further recommended spatial policy reform, land disposal policy implementation and others as an effective intervention areas in addressing apartheid spatial legacy of fragmentation.

ACRONYMS

ARA - Affordable Rental Accommodation

BNG - Breaking New Ground

CAHF - Centre for Affordable Housing Finance

CoGHSTA - Department of Cooperative governance, human settlements and traditional affairs

DLG & HS - Department of Local Government and Human Settlements

DoH - Department of Housing

DoHS - Department of Human Settlements

EEDBS - Enhanced extended discount benefit scheme

FLISP - Finance Linked Subsidy Programme

GIS - Geographic information systems

GPH - Global Parliamentarian on Habitat

IDP - Integrated Development Planning

HA - Housing Association

HDA - Housing Development Agency

IHP - Inclusionary Housing Policy

IRDP - Integrated residential development programme.

IUDF - Integrated Urban Development Framework

KZNHS - Kwazulu Natal Department of Human Settlements

LIHTC - Low-Income Housing Tax Credit

MEC - Member of Executive Committee

NASHO - National Association of Social Housing Association

NDP - National Development Plan

NHSS - National Housing Subsidy Scheme

NPC - National Planning Commission

NSDP - National Spatial Development Perspective

NYU - New York University

PHP - Peoples Housing Process

PLK - Polokwane

PRASA - Passenger Rail Agency of South Africa

RDP - Reconstruction and Development Programme

SALGA - South African Local Government Association

SDA - Special Development Area

SDF - Spatial Development Framework

SHP - Social Housing Policy

SHRA - Social Housing Regulatory Authority

SOE's - State Owned Entities

SPLUMA - Spatial Planning and Land Use Management

StatsSA - Statistics South Africa

TPC - Town Planning Compliant

UDF - Urban Development Framework

UISP - Upgrading of informal settlements

USA - United States of America

VPADD - Voluntary Pro-Active Deal-Driven

TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATION ..... **i**
DEDICATION ..... **ii**
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS ..... **iii**
ABSTRACT ..... **iv**
ACRONYMS ..... **v**
Chapter 1: Introduction **1**
1.1 Introduction. 2
1.2 Background. 3
1.3 Problem Statement. 7
1.4 Research Purpose/Rationale (Significance of the Study). 8
1.5 Research Aim. 9
1.6 Research Objectives. 9
1.7 Research Question. 9
1.7.1 Sub-Questions. 9
1.8 Scope of the Research. 10
1.8.1 The case study of City of Polokwane. 11
1.9 Development planning in the context of Apartheid legacy. 12
1.9.1 Neoliberal policy framework and Housing the urban poor. 13
1.9.2 Compact city influence in Post- Apartheid Cities in South Africa. 14
1.10 Report Structure/Chapters. 16
1.11 Conclusion. 16
Chapter 2: Addressing Fragmentation and Restructuring Cities through Subsidized Housing. **18**
2.1 Introduction. 19
2.2 Urban models. 19
2.2.1 Concentric zone model. 20
2.2.2 Sector Model. 21
2.2.3 The Multiple Nuclei Model. 22
2.2.4 Apartheid City Model. 23
2.3 Subsidy housing in other cities. 25
2.3.1 Subsidy Housing in United States of America- New York. 25

2.3.2 Subsidy Housing in Netherlands-Amsterdam. 27
2.3.3 Subsidy housing in South Africa. 29
2.3.4 The differences between Subsidy housing in South Africa and international context (USA and Netherlands). 33
2.4 Restructuring Cities through Subsidized Housing: Impact of subsidy housing in shaping cities. 36
2.4.1 Subsidy Housing and New York's urban form. 36
2.4.2 Subsidy housing and Amsterdam's urban form. 38
2.4.3 Subsidy housing and South African cities' post-apartheid urban form. 40
2.5 Conclusion. 46
Chapter 3: Research Method 48
3.1 Introduction. 49
3.2 Research typology and Data approach. 49
3.3 Research method matrix. 50
3.4 Mapping. 52
3.4.1 Geographic Information system (GIS). 52
3.5 Ethical Considerations in the study. 53
3.6 Research Limitations. 54
3.8 Conclusion. 54
Chapter 4: Post 1994 national policy directive: housing policy and cities spatial restructuring. 55
4.1 Introduction. 56
4.2 The Post 1994 main economic policies and subsidy housing in South Africa. 56
4.2.1 The first decade of democracy: Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) and housing (1994-2003). 57
4.2.2 The second decade of democracy (2004-2017): Breaking new Ground and National Development Plan. 60
4.3 Spatial reform policy in South Africa Post 1994. 63
4.4 Observations on policy and cities restructuring. 64
4.5 Conclusion. 66
Chapter 5: City of Polokwane's Subsidy housing since 1994. 67
5.1 Introduction. 68
5.2 Subsidy housing and spatial rationale: Limpopo Province and City of Polokwane since 1994. 68
5.3. Challenges of subsidy housing in the City of Polokwane. 71

5.3.1 Scarcity of land for low-income housing- Land ownership within the urban edge of the city of Polokwane. 72
5.3.2 Strategic Development Area concept. 73
5.3.3 Local government housing delivery accreditation and assignment. 76
5.4 City of Polokwane's subsidized housing programme from 1994-2004 and 2005-2017. 78
5.4.1 First decade of democracy's subsidized housing (1994-2004). 79
5.4.2 Second decade of subsidized housing (2005 – 2017). 84
5.4.3 Summary subsidy housing programmes since democracy (1994-2017) within Polokwane City. 87
5.5 Conclusion. 90
Chapter 6: Conclusion and Recommendations. 91
6.1 Introduction. 92
6.2 Research Background. 92
6.3 Summary of research findings. 92
6.4 Conclusion. 95
6.5 Recommendations. 96
6.6 Future Research. 98
7. References 100

LIST OF TABLES

Table 3.1 Research design matrix.....50
Table 5.1: Subsidized housing details (1994-2004), around Seshego and Polokwane.....80
Table 5.2 Subsidized housing 2005 to 2017. 84
Table 5.3 The total volumes of subsidy housing delivered from 1994 to 2017.....87

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1.1 Rental Housing stock in Port Elizabeth. 6
Figure 1.2 Non- credited housing on the left and consolidated housing stock on the right. 6
Figure 2.1 The Concentric Zone Model 20
Figure 2.2: The Sector model 21
Figure 2.3 : The Multiple Nuclei Model by Harris and Ullman 22
Figure 2.4: Apartheid City Model 24
Figure 2.5 Location of Subsidized Housing in the City of New York totals 3579 properties by 2017 37
Figure 2.6 Percentages of subsidy housing in Amsterdam by 2003 per district. 38
Figure 2.6 Spatial locations of the HAs properties and welfare recipients within the 14 districts of Amsterdam 39

LIST OF MAPS

Map 1.1 The administrative borders of the city of Polokwane.....10
Map 1.2 The municipal map showing wards' boundaries within Polokwane Local Municipality with city of Polokwane encircled. 11
Map 5.1- Schematic view of Polokwane prior 1994.....70
Map 5.2 Locational map of Strategic Development Areas with Polokwane local municipality 74
Map 5.3 Developable land in phases within the Polokwane Urban edge.....75
Map 5.4 Location of subsidized housing in the first decade of democracy in City of Polokwane.....82
Map 5.5 Location of subsidized housing in the second decade in City of Polokwane.....86
.....88
Map 5.6. The spatial representation of subsidized housing from 1994- 2017.....88
Map 6.1 The townships located within town and those established within SDA- 1 93

LIST OF ANNEXURES

ANNEXURES 111
ANNEXURE A: REQUEST LETTERS 112
ANNEXURE B: LETTER OF AUTHORISATION 118
ANNEXURE C: SUBSIDY HOUSING IN LIMPOPO PROVINCE 122
ANNEXURE D: ABONDONED SUBSIDY HOUSING PROJECTS 124
ANNEXURE E: POLOKWANE LAND OWNERSHIP WITHIN URBAN EDGE AS OF 2017.....126

Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 Introduction.

Studies have shown that in developing cities around the world there is increasing population that live in informal settlements (Durand-Lasserve, 1998 in Durand-Lasserve, 2002). As a response to the increasing informal settlements many governments commissioned subsidy housing programmes to address the issues associated with informality and homelessness. The homeless phenomenon is also prevalent in developed countries, such as United States of America and other western countries. The subsidy housing solutions evolved over the years to address varying problems of squatter settlements and unauthorized land developments (Durand-Lasserve, 1998 in Durand-Lasserve, 2002). This situation varies from country to country, but informal settlements accounts for more than 50% of the spatial growth of developing cities in developing countries (Durand-Lasserve, 2002). Housing programmes and policies have been passed to address many problems emanating from the persistent informality and unregulated growth resulting in urban sprawl and inefficient city forms. In addition to this, there are additional issues such as lack of security of tenure and that is a persistent problem (Durand-Lasserve, 2002).

South Africa after 1994 experienced an increase in urbanisation primarily seeking better opportunities in urban areas, resulting in increase in informal settlements and high housing demand. The Country's cities have been shaped by apartheid and colonial planning which generated an urban fabric that is spatially fragmented and discontinuous centred on freestanding houses outside of city centres (Dewar, 1995 in Karam and Sihlongonyane, 2003). The cities were shaped by disconnected pockets of development separated by buffers such as open spaces and roads. As a result, people travel long distances for entertainment, shopping, work and others. In democratic South Africa, subsidy housing became one of the tools used politically and administratively through development planning to reverse apartheid spatial planning legacy.

This research report intends to critically analyse and unpack the role of the post-apartheid subsidized housing in spatial restructuring of the City of Polokwane. The assessment explores the post 1994 legislation, policies and programmes in South Africa and how that affected the urban morphology of the City of Polokwane. It studies how all various housing programmes have reversed the apartheid spatial planning legacy of the City of Polokwane to achieve a more inclusive and sustainable city as it would be envisioned in integrated South Africa. This is an introductory chapter that is structured as follows; Background, Significance of the Study,

Problem Statement, Research Aims and Objectives, Research Question, Scope of the research, Literature Review and conceptual framework, Research Method, Ethical consideration and Limitations.

1.2 Background.

By the year 2014, South Africa had delivered more than 2,8 million housing opportunities (Huchzermeyer and Karam, 2016). These has benefitted more than 12.4 million people and created over 875 000 serviced sites (African News Agency, 2016). This housing delivery resulted in an increase of formal housing from 64% in 1994 to 77% by 2011 (African News Agency, 2016). In 2016, Lindiwe Sisulu former Minster of Human Settlements indicated that according to the statistics of South Africa, the housing backlog was 2.2 million, attributed to increasing urbanisation (African News Agency, 2016). The 2014-2019 medium term strategic framework for the Department of Human Settlements aims to build over 1.5 million housing opportunities (President Zuma Speech, 2014).

The Integrated Urban Development Framework (IUDF) of 2016 indicates that South African cities and towns are shaped by the apartheid legacy. A legacy of social, economic and spatial exclusion that resulted in high "inefficiencies and wasteful use of scarce resources, precisely land and infrastructure networks" (CoGTA, 2016, 7). The spatial patterns have not been reversed largely, and therefore persist and continue to influence how cities grow (CoGTA, 2016).

"The United Nations estimates that 71.3% of the South African population will live in urban areas by 2030, reaching nearly 80% by 2050" (CoGTA, 2016, 7). About 64% of youth population of South Africa live in urban areas, and it is growing larger. Urban areas are where opportunities are concentrated, and the youth look for that, whereas the old (no longer economically active) population tend to migrate to more rural settlements and secondary cities in other provinces (CoGTA, 2016). This trend of urbanisation will continue as long as growth prospects in cities and towns are better, currently South African cities and large towns produce over 80% of the national gross value added. From 1996 to 2012 metros generated 75% of net jobs in the country, and have a higher average income compared to the whole country by 40% (CoGTA, 2016).

South Africa has been on a mission since 1994 to restructure and reverse the spatial and housing injustices which form urban spatial framework of South African cities (Fataar, 2016). The

country has since developed raft of legislations and policies to give effect to the constitutional right of access to adequate housing (Fataar, 2016). Development planners through subsidy housing and other tools have been at the centre of these programmes, policy and legislative commitments.

Housing subsidies are grants offered by government to beneficiaries for housing purposes. Majority of the subsidies are targeted for families and individuals who earn below R3 500 a month (South African Government, 2018). The purpose of subsidy housing is to cater for housing needs of various income groups of people who do not have access to private funding for housing. Private funding refers to access to mortgage or bond, loan or funds which are accessed through the formal finance system. The delivery of housing subsidy project has seen various partnerships undertaken with government by individual organisations either as donors or funders. In this study subsidized housing will cover all housing delivered by government through various programmes introduced since March 1994 to 2017. The Gauteng provincial department of human settlements have highlighted there are seven subsidy housing categories available (Ntsoko, 2017; DLG and HS, 2014) which are as follows;

- Individual- Credit/Non-Credit Linked Subsidy- it provides access to government assistance where qualifying households access an existing house or a vacant serviced residential stand. In this subsidy there are two types of beneficiaries who are Credit linked beneficiaries and non-credit linked subsidies. A credit linked subsidy is for applicants that can access loans but still qualify for a subsidy that can be linked with finance from a bank or financier. Whereas, A Non-credit linked subsidy is for beneficiaries who cannot afford and access mortgage loan finance, through this subsidy they can acquire an existing house entirely.

- Consolidation Subsidy- it is a type of subsidy designed for previous beneficiaries of serviced stands who earn below R3500 per household as a combined income. It has possible top up subsidy for construction of a house on the serviced property.

- Institutional Subsidy- this subsidy is given to a registered and approved housing institution by the Social Housing Regulatory Authority (SHRA). The housing institutions are registered and recognised to undertake housing programmes that assist

government in delivery of social/rental housing programmes. Their role is to build new or refurbish existing building stock for the purpose of housing, the role is further extended to oversee the and manage the tenants and collections of rentals and others after the completion of the building acquisition or building construction. The subsidy is made available to institutions that develop or refurbish for rental purposes. As a result no individual is attached to the property but institution and therefore gives beneficiaries an opportunity to move out and get something better if their economic opportunities have increased. Beneficiaries change because people move into and out of the spaces made for them.

- Finance -Linked Subsidy (FLISP) - this is a subsidy designed for applicants who earn more than R3500.00 and less than R15000.00 combined household income. It is used for bonded properties which have been financed through a bank or financial institution and the application is made by the financier on behalf of the applicant. Individuals and households who fall within this bracket are considered the gap housing market who mostly do not qualify housing finance in a bond or mortgage form but are also equally high earners and unable to qualify for the basic free housing subsidy scheme.
- Project Linked Subsidy (Integrated Residential Development Programme) - this type of housing subsidy is tied up to the income of the beneficiary, the beneficiary arranges to pay the balance of the total value of the property. The subsidy is mainly delivered by contractors who contracted by provincial departments and municipalities.

- Affordable Rental Accommodation (ARA) - this subsidy is for individual and household mainly staying in former housing arrangement referred to as Hostels. The subsidy form part of the hostel redevelopment programme which is an initiative to redevelop old housing facilities into modest rental units for family and individual units for rental purposes.

The housing subsidy schemes fall into two categories a non-finance-linked individual subsidy or finance-linked individual subsidy. The two housing subsidy categories are based on whether an individual or household can pay a certain portion towards the house or not and a suitable subsidy is determined from then. Subsidy schemes cover various housing programmes, in general the programmes include free-basic housing, incremental and upgrading housing programmes and rural housing programmes. The discussion on housing programmes is covered in depth in the coming sections with detailed focus on the Housing code. The

following picture compilation demonstrates in general what subsidy housing programmes have produced in South Africa.



Figure 1.1 Rental Housing stock in Port Elizabeth.

Figure 1.1 shows institutional subsidy housing under Imizi in Port Elizabeth, on the left is part of the rental housing units called Fairview and on the right one is called Walmer. This type of subsidy allows for people to move out and give others a chance to rent when their economic opportunities allow them to afford better housing. The property is attached to the institution not individual beneficiaries (Imizi, 2018).



Figure 1.2 Non- credited housing on the left and consolidated housing stock on the right.

Figure 1.2 above shows on the left free basic housing with solar water heating system which is predominant for many low-income earners (Brand South Africa, 2016). On the right is what is considered a consolidated subsidy scheme housing, an improved standard with different roofing (CAHF, 2018).

1.3 Problem Statement.

The historic colonial and apartheid engineered city planning has left cities in South Africa undeniably spatially fragmented and sprawling according to racial lines, that has impoverished most African people. Transformation of spaces and economy has been the goal of the government since democracy. This has seen the government since 2002 engaging in ambitious public space projects where infrastructure projects have been utilized to correct the apartheid legacy of inadequate transportation, housing and service in the urban areas (Findley and Ogbu, 2011).

Despite all the housing subsidies and programmes that the state has championed since democracy, the spatial frame of apartheid city persists (CoGTA, 2016). The government since 1994 has delivered millions of subsidized housing though various programmes. However, the apartheid city form persists and further influences the developments of cities in democratic South Africa. The Integrated Urban Development Framework (IUDF) states that there are four primary factors that maintain and prolong the existing patterns in urban areas. They are as follows (CoGTA, 2016);

- Existing property markets and land use.
- Unsustainable infrastructure networks and consumptions patterns.
- Continued segregated urban settlements
- Unequal income levels and access to services

The factors above indicate that urban morphology is defined by complex socio-economic factors which influence how development patterns of a city unfold over time. The persistence of the apartheid spatial legacy despite the government's investment and commitment to address it through subsidy housing is a testament to the fact that the development plans put in place are limited. South Africa's subsidy housing plan has limitations given the continuing pattern observed of apartheid city form clearly marked by development located far away from areas of opportunities, promoting spatial fragmentation and urban sprawl. South Africa's principal development plan, the National Development Plan (NDP) aims to transform Human Settlements by 2030. The plan commits that new developments will secede from the established old patterns and progress should be made in retrofitting existing settlements (NPC, 2012).

The NDP as a generic plan renews and affirms the commitment to reversing apartheid spatial planning legacy through housing. In the effort to achieve the development goals as stipulated in the NDP, a retrospective study has to be undertaken to be able to understand how efficiently housing can be used to achieve restructured cities in democratic South Africa. City of Polokwane has been a beneficiary of various subsidy housing programmes, an understanding of how these impacted spatial forms of the city is important to achieving the goals envisioned by the NDP. How is this study important to the urban morphology dialogue in South Africa? The following section addresses the need and value of this study.

1.4 Research Purpose/Rationale (Significance of the Study).

Durand-Lasserve (2002) indicated that informal settlements accounts for 50% of spatial growth in cities in most developing countries. South African cities with a spatial history of fragmentation because of apartheid policies are grappling with addressing the problems associated with the spatial fragmentation. Subsidy housing became a de-facto development strategy of South Africa after 1994, the government implemented various subsidy schemes to ensure there is adequate housing for all people.

Subsidy housing became one of the tools to be used to address issues of urban sprawl, fragmentation and enforce spatial restructuring and integration through various implementations (COGTA, 2016). The study seeks to understand and unpack how the City of Polokwane has through subsidy housing programmes driven spatial integration and restructuring to achieve a desirable city in democratic South Africa which is representative of the objectives of the new democracy. The rationale behind this exercise is to offer an opportunity to engage how subsidy programmes are implemented and to what extend have they contributed to the new urban form of cities in democratic South Africa.

The contribution of the study will assist the discourse on subsidy and urban restructuring mainly for urban planners, policy makers, researchers and other audiences in built environment. The extend of the contribution will improve the understanding of urban morphology in democratic South Africa by exploring gaps and promoting new concepts in subsidy housing development and urban morphology, spatial restructuring and spatial legacy of apartheid.

In consideration of the above what would then be the objectives and aim of this report? The following sections addresses that.

1.5 Research Aim.

The study aims to assess the role of subsidized housing in restructuring cities in democratic South Africa with specific reference to City of Polokwane.

1.6 Research Objectives.

The research objectives are as follows;

- Describe, analyse and determine how subsidy housing has reshaped the City of Polokwane.
- Recommend intervention areas to achieve NDP goals regarding human settlements.

Following the introduction of NDP there has been a recommitment to address apartheid spatial form. A detailed policy discussion is detailed in Chapter 4 of this report (titled Post 1994 national policy directive: housing policy and cities spatial restructuring). It is very important as built environment practitioners to determine and continuously review in-depth the efforts already undertaken to fruitfully carve cities of tomorrow. It is important to ask questions that are relevant and key to the future spatial form of cities in democratic South Africa as it is done in the following section.

1.7 Research Question.

The main research question is: What role has subsidised housing played in restructuring City of Polokwane from the apartheid legacy of spatial fragmentation and segregation?

To unpack the main question and ensure it uncovers in detail the dynamics involved, the following sub-questioned were crafted:

1.7.1 Sub-Questions.

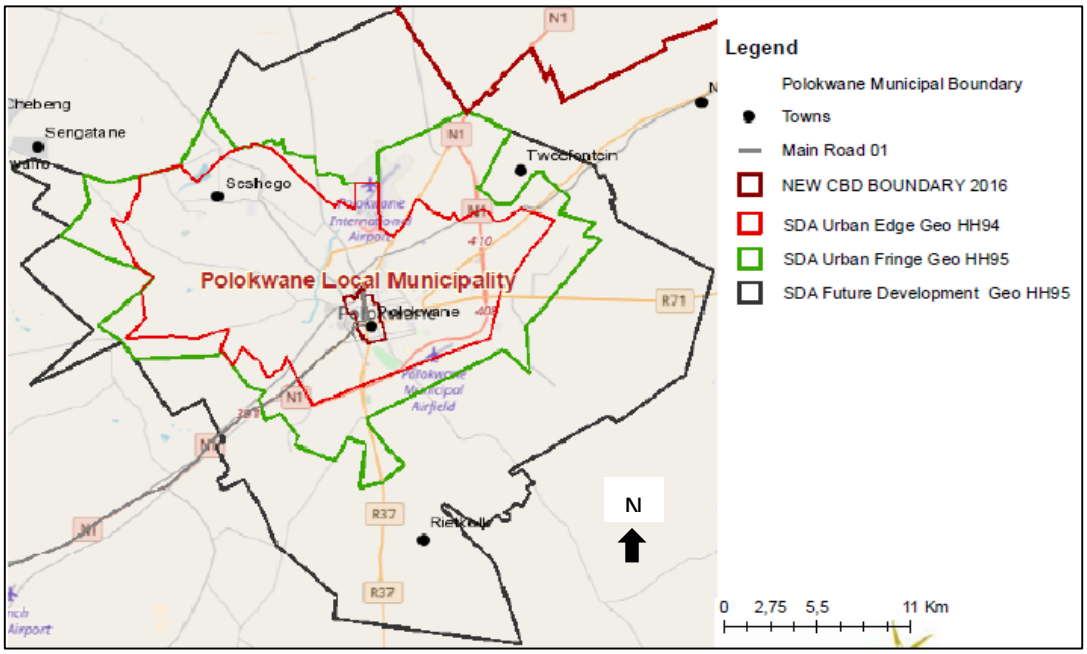
- What additional factors or agents play a role in restructuring cities through housing?
- How can subsidy housing and municipal spatial planning achieve city restructuring and help realize NDP objectives on human settlements?
- What subsidy housing and how has it reshaped the City of Polokwane's urban form?

1.8 Scope of the Research.

Subsidized housing in this research means any form of formal housing that is provided by the state on a full subsidy or partly funded. This includes all forms of formal houses ranging as follows (Transport and Urban Development Policy, 2017);

- RDP housing (Breaking New Ground housing) – there are for households with income between R0-R3500.
- Community residential units- designed to accommodate households with income between R0-R3500.
- Social housing- these are flats or apartments for household with income group between R2500 and R7500 to rent.
- Gap Housing (Financially Linked Individual Subsidy programme) - these type of housing is for households with income between R3501 and R15000 a month. These are households that are too high to qualify for RDP/BNG house but also cannot access bonded property on the open market. The government through FLISP can enable the household to access a house in the open market by issuing a deposit or transfer fees etc.

The research is carried out within the administrative urban edge boundaries of the City of Polokwane. This covers the city centre, suburban areas and townships around the city as demonstrated by the following map (Map 1.1).



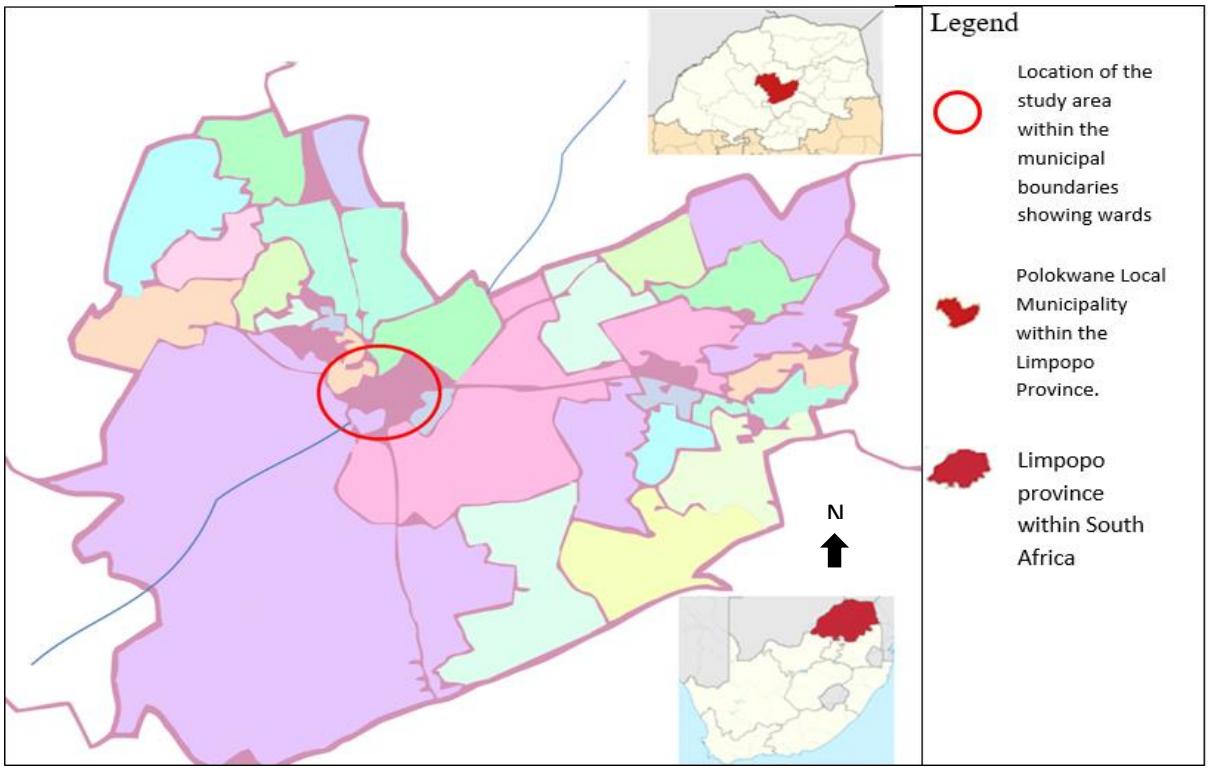
Map 1.1 The administrative borders of the city of Polokwane

Source: PLK GIS, (2017).

Map 1.1 shows that there are three levels of boundaries as shown on the legend, in red is the area of the case study called Strategic Development Area (SDA) urban edge and in green is the Strategic Development Area urban fringe while the black areas shows the Strategic Development Area Future development area. The research focuses on the red coloured area which is the strategic development area urban edge, where currently all development is spatially constrained to. The area within the urban edge covers farms, business district, suburbia, townships, airport and others.

1.8.1 The case study of City of Polokwane.

Polokwane is the capital city of Limpopo Province and is located in Capricorn District Municipality. It was founded in the gold rush of the 1880s and was known as Pietersburg and renamed Polokwane in February 2002 which means "Place of Safety" after incorporating Seshego Township as part of the town. It is the largest city in the province and is in Polokwane Local Municipality (Polokwane; 2016). The city covers an area of roughly 106 km^2 while the municipality covers an area of roughly 3400 km^2. There are about 630 000 people in the municipality and about 130 000 live in what is considered the urban edge of the city of Polokwane (Stats SA, 2011).



Map 1.2 The municipal map showing wards' boundaries within Polokwane Local Municipality with city of Polokwane encircled.

Source: Municipal Demarcation Board, (2016) Edited by Author 2018.

Map 1.2 shows through various colours and shading in the map the 38 wards within the municipality, circled red is the location of the administrative boundaries of the City of Polokwane. The wards differ in sizes given the various population densities in the municipality, with areas that have a high population partitioned geographically smaller sized wards and population dispersed areas have larger wards geographically. The other two inserts are locational maps of province and country (Municipal Demarcation Board, 2016). Polokwane local municipality is located within the Capricorn District Municipality. The district's seat is located within Polokwane City.

1.9 Development planning in the context of Apartheid legacy.

After 1994 the government policy approach was redress, the priority was to ensure equity to reverse the injustices of the past. This was the policy directive of the government of national unity through Reconstruction and Development Program (RDP) (Seekings, 2010). The policy directive bound all government departments' and entities including those responsible for subsidy housing. Given that there was housing backlog this approach neglected transformation (Turok, 2015). Due to pressure government aimed to deliver large quantities of subsidized housing as opposed to high quality subsidy housing in appropriate areas to transform the cityscape. Urban expansion thrived instead of compaction; housing became a "physical shelter" with less concern of an integrated human settlement. This reproduced "sprawling form of the apartheid city" (Turok, 2015; 5). Equitable access to land was also a central challenge, resulting in housing as a service growing to become an extension of apartheid planning. The state as a custodian of the housing provision has not yet contested extensively for land issues (Turok, 2015).

Housing programmes were the "de facto urban development strategy of South Africa", and intensified urban sprawl (Pieterse, 2009; 8). The ruling party did less to reverse this policy and come up with a strategy that alter spatial patterns and ensure better access to urban opportunities. It became a political instrument for municipalities to push numbers and speed up housing delivery. This is because it was a viable and useful tool politically (Pieterse, 2009).

During apartheid South Africa had delivered certain level of services to African townships, with less emphasis on financial recovery. After 1994 there was general emphasis on neoliberal policies central to urban infrastructure, housing and services. The privatisation of these municipal services to some degree increased inequalities in cities, because they are centred on principles of cost recovery. As a result, the de-commodification of services that happened

during apartheid did not transition into democracy, thus failing the new laws and objectives of new policies such as RDP and others (Seekings, 2010).

1.9.1 Neoliberal policy framework and Housing the urban poor.

Faintsein (2011, ix) indicates that since the 1980s there has been triumph of neoliberalism that defined the cities' "spatial, political, economic, and financial resources" to flourish economic growth at the expense of social benefits. Twenty first century cities are competitive and economically based on capitalism (SALGA, 2013, Khanna, 2014). The global neoliberal system is all about competitiveness of cities for investments. Like all cities in developing world South African cities are growing knowledge-based economies which seek to compete fiercely for investments and capital to ultimately become centres of economic power and dominant smart cities (SALGA, 2013). Smart Cities are the future, not just based on broadband technology but based on disruptive interventions and innovations in many areas of the city in order to make them functional and effective and creating new centres for growth and development (Khanna, 2014, Thwala, 2014). The areas could be any sectors such as energy, transport, health, waste, governance, water, safety and security and infrastructure (SALGA, 2013). As a result planning and development find itself having to cater for investments that ultimately seek to dictate the scope of development and growth path of cities (Pieterse, 2009). This compromise the social responsibility that planning departments must carry out. The exclusive development ideals that investors seek to achieve only create more divisive planning and in context like South Africa perpetuate apartheid planning system.

Despite the thriving global economy in the 1990s based on free market policies there was simultaneously deepening poverty and inequality all over the world. Housing policies globally were mainly based on the thriving free market system with a strong role for development banks (Gilbert, 2014). "The housing approach was based on the following principles; political endorsement and support, participation, needs driven, people centred, pro-poor, result oriented and comprehensive, based on partnership and sustainability" (Gilbert, 2014, 307). The approach to urban housing was becoming more centred on participatory roles of civil organisations, communities and individual beneficiaries. With the growing urban population and increasing demand for housing finance and infrastructure, there was urban growth which resulted in influential private sector that became the main source for funding for various issues of development (Gilbert, 2014,). Due to increasing poverty most people did not have access to

mortgage finance, public housing stock and others. As result most people in developing countries still resolved to find housing in informal settlements in cities.

Developing and developed countries responded in various forms to the housing informalities that came as a result of lack of access to affordable housing and finance. In most cases the programmes and policies sought to address housing issues mainly for urban land tenure purposes. The initial response to phenomenon of housing informality and security was addressed through conventional policies. The conventional policies focused mainly slum clearance and public housing, upgrading of dwellings and assisted self-help housing (Rondinelli, 1990). The system had limitations and as a result policy changes over time sought more participatory process in housing for the urban poor, the informal sector and the private sector role in housing sector (Rondinelli, 1990). Housing as an ideology of shelter and services for the urban poor evolved over the years to housing at right places with access to better opportunities and housing as a service that will unlock the potential of all citizens and alleviate poverty (Yeboah, 2005). Turner's concept of self-help housing has been debated and the role of government, corporate and civil society has been encouraged to be central because housing inadequacy is everyone's business.

1.9.2 Compact city influence in Post- Apartheid Cities in South Africa.

The compact city discourse objects "to an infinite expansion to the suburbs of urban area" as it results in car dependent society (Kaji et al, 2003; 8). South African cities after years of neglect and industrial collapse remained stagnant. It is only in the early 2000 that various cities started investing in renewal projects of inner cities regeneration in order to revitalise the economy and create viable neighbourhoods with sustainable housing. The compact city policy enables efficient use of land and energy enabling good delivery of social infrastructure and public service which creates active community relationships (Kaji et al, 2003). Donaldson (2009) states that the post-apartheid spatial policy framework intended to create in a context of a twenty-first century a new city identity for South Africa. Donaldson refers to this as compaction policies which are derived from compact city form which was highlighted earlier. According to Donaldson (2009; 3) "compaction policies promote a range of principles, such as urban regeneration, revitalization of the inner city, preventing of urban sprawl, higher densities (mainly residential), mixed land-use, promoting public transport nodes, improved access between employment, housing and services, corridor development and urban infill, which are the fundamental elements of contextualization". At the crux of the compact city policy is

increased densities with regard to housing. It is further argued that these urban form internationally is acclaimed to include includes corridor and integration development and mixed land-uses (Donaldson, 2009).

In South Africa the post-apartheid policy response in democratic period saw an introduction of various spatial and housing policies such as Urban Development Framework (UDF) in 1997, Breaking New ground (BNG) (2004) and Integrated Urban Development Framework (2016). UDF mainly focused on spatial integration of post- apartheid cities with less emphasis on subsidy housing. It is stated in Donaldson (2009, 3) the UDF sought to restructure urban areas and foster spatial integration through the following specific means:

- integrated planning;
- rebuilding and upgrading the townships and informal settlements;
- planning for higher density land-uses and development;
- reform of the urban and planning system;
- urban transportation; and
- environmental management.

BNG (2004) aimed to create development of sustainable human settlements with clear intention for spatial restructuring; in combination with National Spatial Development Perspective (NSDP) there was general turnaround and commitment to inform infrastructure investment and development spending to address the distortions of the inherited apartheid spatial history. One of the focus for BNGs goal was to support Urban Renewal and Inner City Regeneration which mainly focused resuscitating declining urban areas by focusing on housing to play an important role in inner cities and historical townships. But also focused more on medium density housing and informal settlements upgrading (Department of Human Settlements (KZN), 2016). The most recent policy that addresses issues associated with compact city notion is the Integrated Urban Development Framework (2016). It seeks to integrates sustainable human settlements, urban infrastructure and redress "the prevailing apartheid geography, restructuring cities, shifting ownership profiles and choices, and creating more humane (and environment-friendly) and safe living and working conditions" (COGTA, 2016; 9). One of the key objectives of the policy is that development should create equitable urban form that unlocks access to social and economic opportunities.

Detailed policy discussion regarding urban restructuring and subsidy housing is presented in Chapter 4 of this study. From the above it can be deduced that post 1994 Spatial Planning saw

drastic changes and commitment to compact city ideology which gave rise to rift of legislations and policies.

1.10 Report Structure/Chapters.

Chapter 2- Addressing Fragmentation and Restructuring Cities through Subsidized Housing. This chapter looks at the theoretical foundation and literature of the report as applicable, relevant and usable for the latter sections of the report. It discusses the evolution and debates relating to fragmented cities and subsidized housing and the general factors that perpetuate the phenomenon.

Chapter 3- Research Methodology. This chapter unpacks the research methodology adopted, detailing the research design, methods of data collection, analysis and presentation.

Chapter 4: Post 1994 national policy directive: housing policy and cities spatial restructuring. This chapter assess and notes the key housing policies since democracy, it discusses them periodically.

Chapter 5: City of Polokwane's subsidized housing case. This chapter is structured the same way as chapter 4. It looks at the subsidy housing volumes and their locations. It is divided in two sections with first section discussing the period of 1994 to 2003 and 2004 to 2017. The chapter also discusses other factors that are influential in restructuring the city. It critically discusses the observations and arguments, demonstrating the shifts in policy and implementation with maps and other tools.

Chapter 6: Conclusions and recommendations, this chapter sums all the issues in the report by capturing key observations which are used to build recommendations.

1.11 Conclusion.

This chapter introduced the study, it discussed the background of the research and the study's significance, research objectives, research problems, research questions and gave a synopsis of relevant planning literature. It projected arguments which are basis for the literature and

research methodology chapters. The following chapter focuses on literature review Chapter 2 titled: Addressing Fragmentation and Restructuring Cities through Subsidized Housing.

Chapter 2: Addressing Fragmentation and Restructuring Cities through Subsidized Housing.

2.1 Introduction.

The pre-apartheid government and apartheid government all played a key role in the shaping of cities in South Africa. In all instances governments passed legislations to serve the interest initially of the colonial system, the latter primarily to serve the interest of white minority race. The Union of South Africa passed notably the 1913 Land Act and Native Land Act of 1936, and the early years of the Republic of South Africa passed Group Areas act of 1950 and many Bantustans legislative pieces which were passed to define and enforce the separate development framework. Townships were developed for black people primarily as labour reservoirs for cities and towns (Karam and Sihlongonyane, 2006). However, the increase in migration resulted in illegal formation of informal settlements as extension of black townships or separately. The legislative framework of the preceding governments created a development system and culture that has proven to be difficult to reverse after 1994; the draconian planning laws haunt and continue to influence how cities and towns develop, (SA History, 2011).

This chapter reviewed literature guided by research objectives on urban morphology of South African cities, then unpacks how planning through subsidized housing could be used to reverse apartheid planning legacy and reshape cities. From early 1990s urban planners embarked on initiatives to reverse apartheid planning beginning a new discourse of planning to reconstruct apartheid city (Maharaj, 2002). On the backdrop of high urbanisation, poverty and constitutional right to housing, the government commissioned housing programmes to provide for those who cannot afford to house themselves. In multiple challenges facing post-apartheid cities in South Africa housing became one of the strategic necessities of most local governments. To broaden the understanding on role of subsidy housing in reshaping cities, this chapter is structured as follows; Urban models, Subsidy housing in other cities - looks at subsidy housing in New York and Amsterdam, Restructuring Cities through Subsidized Housing-looks at Impact of subsidy housing in shaping cities giving brief analysis of subsidy housing in New York and Amsterdam and analysis comparatively with South Africa.

2.2 Urban models.

Internationally there are three known urban models that helps understand the structure of cities as the basis for various cities structural form. They are Concentric Zone, Sector and Multiple Nuclei Model, hence to address the problem of post-apartheid cities it is ideal to understand these urban models (Scheepers 2014). South Africa has a unique spatial history, and that

created its unique urban model called Apartheid city model which was executed by Group Areas Act 41 of 1950 and other laws and to shape South African cities (Scheepers 2014). The purpose of the following section is to give background to global city structuring dialogue, by highlighting the main theoretical ideas of each model. The importance of the model discussion gives a synopsis into how cities develop, highlighting frameworks and concepts of city evolution. The following section discusses the four urban models including the apartheid city model.

2.2.1 Concentric zone model.

According to Global Parliamentarians on Habitat (GPH) Panel of Experts (2017) the Concentric Zone Model was developed by E.W Burgess in 1920. The theory explains the structure and the growth of the city. According to this theoretical model there are six land uses as illustrated below in figure 2.1 which are as follows: downtown (central business district (CBD) as the centre, factory zone, zone of transition, working class zone, residential zone and commuter zone.

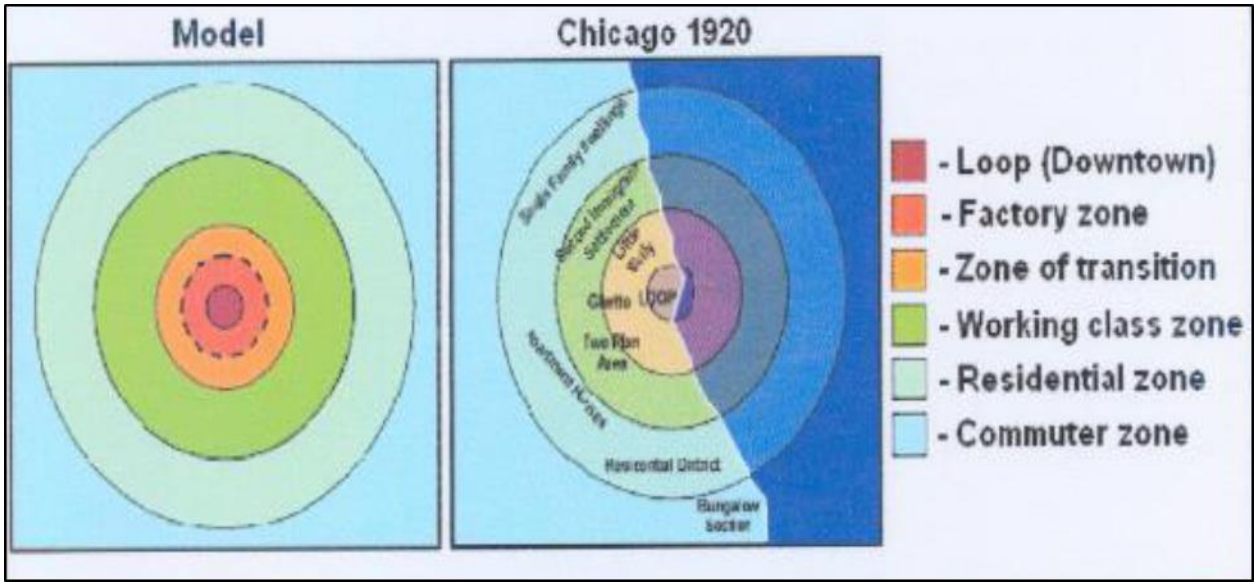


Figure 2.1 The Concentric Zone Model

Source: Rodrigue (1988).

Using Chicago as an example Burgers observed that when the city expands the inner rings will also expand outwards and form a series of concentric zones. This process is defined as invasion and succession which results due to push and pull factors. Invasion occurs due to the continual expansion of the inner zones into outer zones, while succession occurs when the area is dominated by the activity invading that zone (GPH Panel of Experts 2017). The model argued that there is a competition within the city among people for limited space. Only the wealthy being able to secure the desirable location for their business and homes. As the urban poor were

not able to afford the costs for commuting, where forced to locate in less desirable areas. The concentric zone theory reflects ongoing conflicts between the city dwellers and the peripheral villages (Scheepers 2014).

The model has limitations and has been widely criticised as it is based on North American cities and it is not universally applicable. Daniel & Hopkinson (1991) argues that the distortion factors such as technological improvements, human nature and topography can easily interfere with the distribution of zones in the model. Focus is only on ground floor functions, without taking into consideration different functions on different floors of multi-level buildings. The distribution of industry is largely ignored in the model. Boundaries between the different zones are precise and abrupt and do not make provision for gradual transition. Zones are portrayed as homogenous ecological areas (Daniel & Hopkinson 1991).

2.2.2 Sector Model.

Following Burgers, an economist H. Hoyt in 1939 developed the Sector Model as an alternative proposal of urban structure and its growth pattern. The theory focused on residential rent patterns in 34 American cities and impacts of transportation development. Hoyt theorized that cities will grow in wedges shaped patterns from the CBD and centered on major transportation routes (GPH Panel of Experts 2017). The figure 2.2 below illustrates different land uses in wedges: central business district, bulk retail and light industries, low-income housing, medium income housing and high-income housing (Scheepers 2014).

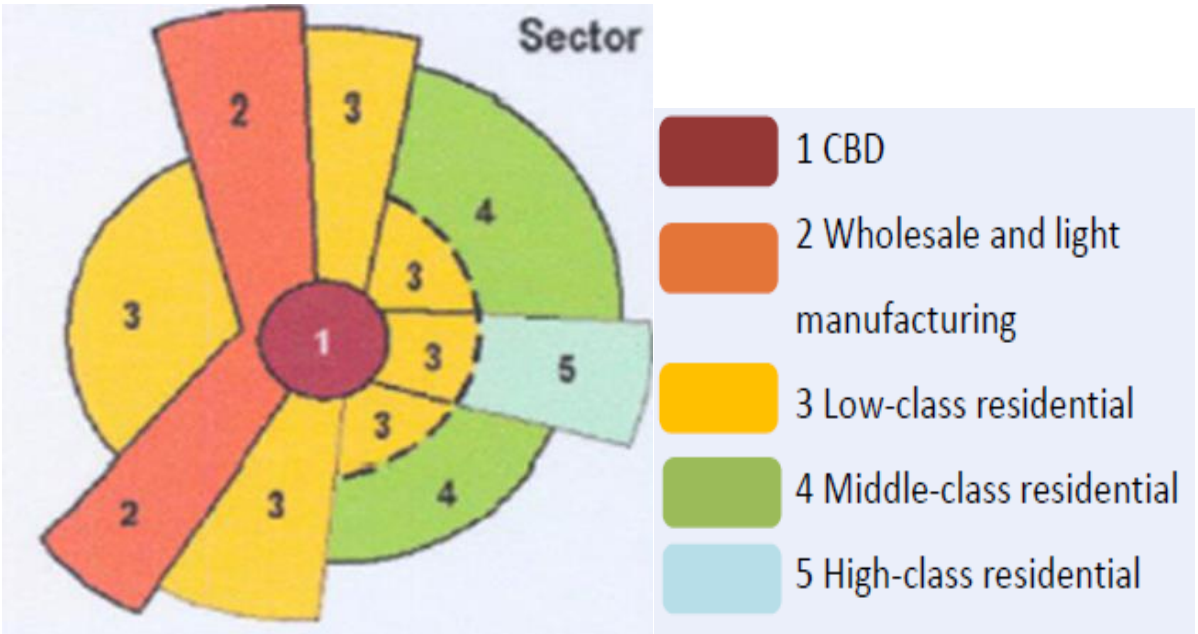


Figure 2.2: The Sector model

Source: (Carter, 1995).

The sectors theory is formulated from the concentric zone model in the sense that the sectors theory assumes that land rents change from sector to sector not in the form of concentric ring area (Daniel & Hopkinson, 1991).

2.2.3 The Multiple Nuclei Model.

This model was developed by C.D Harris and E.L Ullamann in 1954 and the theory focused on that cities "are not homocentric" but they can have many minicenters which will play a role in the development of a city (GPH Panel of Experts 2017). The model has the following land uses as illustrated in figure 2.3 below: central business district, wholesale light manufacturing, low class residential, medium class residential, high class, 12 heavy manufacturing, outlying business district, residential suburb and industrial suburb (Scheepers 2014).

The model differs from the earlier models, concentric zone and the sector model as it believes that cities has not developed around a single centre or CBD but instead it has a group of many minicentres (GPH Panel of Experts 2017). According to Daniel & Hopkinson, 1991 cited in Scheepers 2014 the model identified four factors which led to creation of separate nuclei as follows: certain activities have specialised requirements, certain activities are repulsed by other activities, certain activities have specialised requirements, and various activities have different rent paying capabilities.

Johnston 1971 cited in Scheepers 2014 stated that out of all the urban models discussed above Multiple Nuclei Model is considered the most realistic model as it emphasises the uniqueness of cities. The phases of development may be simultaneous or in different periods.

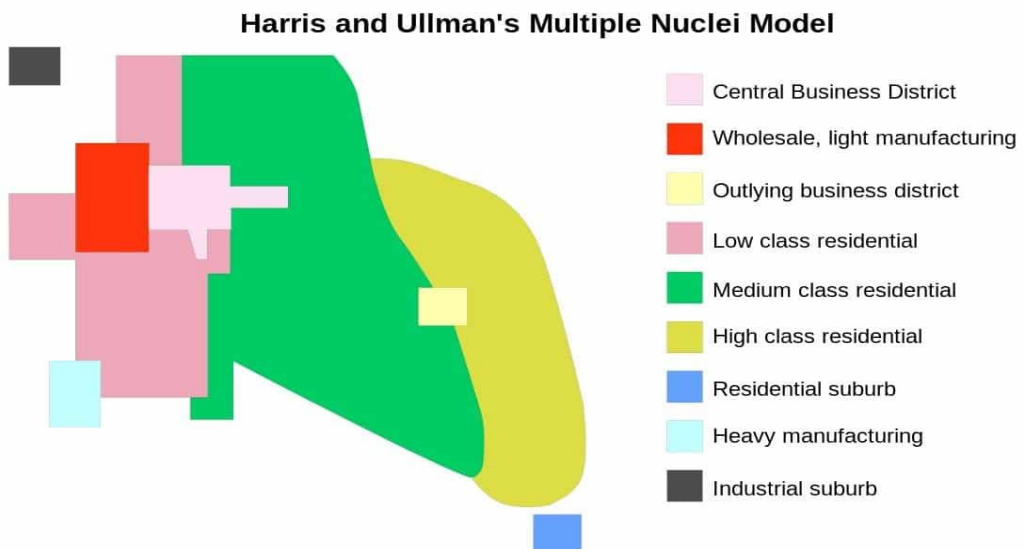


Figure 2.3 : The Multiple Nuclei Model by Harris and Ullman

Source: Planning Tank, (2017).

2.2.4 Apartheid City Model.

South Africa inherited its unique city structure from its imperial colonial British and Dutch history. The Apartheid City Model concept was coined in 1981 by R.J Davies explaining the unique spatial racial segregation of the time. The Group Area Act of 1950 is the founding legislation that was used to regulate or to structure South African cities and towns, producing legally enforced segregation in South Africa's towns and cities (van der Merwe 1998). According to Donaldson (2001,1) South African cities development during the apartheid period were known for "racially segregated suburbs, buffer zones separating suburbs, mono-functional land use, a dispersed city, characterised through low density urban sprawl and racially divided urban growth patterns". The concentric Zone, the Sector and Multiple Nuclei Models were influenced by economic and transport factors, whilst the apartheid city model was racial inspired model.

The Group Areas resulted in the inner city and suburbs being proclaimed for white while the colored, Asian and Blacks were located on the periphery (van der Merwe 1998). The areas were separated by buffer zones and vacant land. These fragmented layouts were a way to limit racial interaction and integration and to ensure that the superior pieces of land were reserved only for whites (Spinks 2001). Van der Merwe (1998) mentioned that the overall impression of the Apartheid city is one of decreasing socio-economic status and increasing density towards the periphery. The phenomenon is illustrated in Davies's (1981) apartheid city model in Figure 2.4 below.

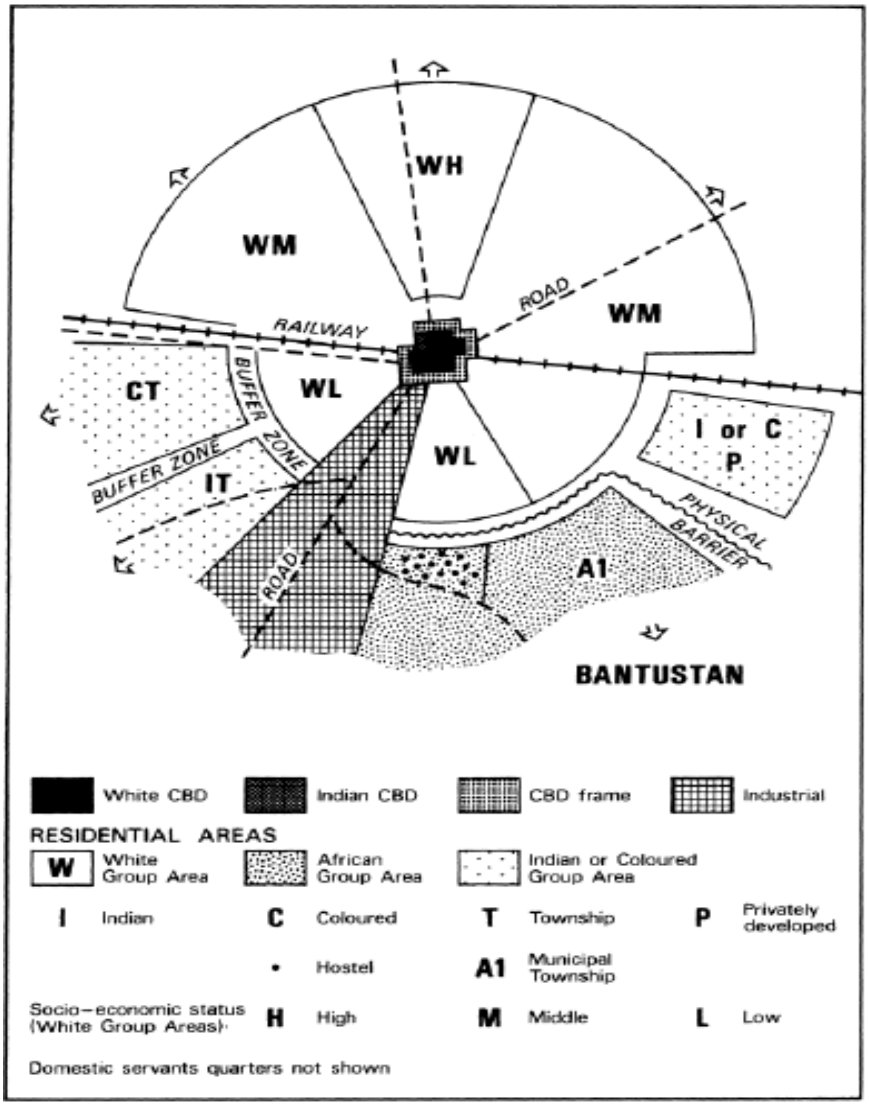


Figure 2.4: Apartheid City Model

Source: Simon, (1989)

The above figure indicates that during apartheid era large central areas in cities were by law and deed occupied by whites while population of colour were being located at urban periphery townships. The spatial pattern of the model contradicts Burgers model that only the higher income groups occupy the outlying areas (Spinks 2001). Comparing Apartheid City Model with the three models mentioned above shows that South Africa has its unique spatial pattern that was created by Group Areas Act (Scheepers 2014). The apartheid planning dictated the development patterns and separation of people according to racial categories which was not the adopted operational policy in developed western countries where majority of the discussed models originated. The apartheid city model exacerbated what actually was already a challenge

to spatially integrate subsidy housing in developed cities. The following section discusses the Subsidy housing in cities internationally and links it with subsidy housing in South Africa.

2.3 Subsidy housing in other cities.

Cities are agglomeration points of various activities dependent on each other internally but also shaped by location across geographic space. Agglomeration is the basic glue that holds the city together as a complex interactions of human activities that looks on various aspects beyond economic life and include issues such as "social, cultural and political or administrative dimensions of human life" (Scott and Scorper, 2014; 6). The city growth phenomenon resulted in increasing urbanisation that has inevitably created high demand for decent housing for many people in cities over many years. The following section discusses the subsidy housing models in City of New York (USA), City of Amsterdam (Netherlands) and South African Subsidy Housing model. It discusses the difference in the models of the three countries. The spatial impact on urban form by subsidy housing in City of New York and Amsterdam is discussed in detail in the later section which aims to show spatial manifestation of the housing subsidy models in the cities.

2.3.1 Subsidy Housing in United States of America- New York.

The United States government from 1930s experimented with different approaches to public housing for the poor by mainly looking at intervention which focused on supply side (subsidized housing production) and demand side of housing (through rental subsidies and others) (William, 2010). The primary objective of both the intervention mechanism was that supply side would increase supply through new construction, acquisition of existing stock and rehabilitation. Whereas the demand side policy approach argued that the issue is not the availability of housing but the affordability which advocated for sufficient funds to pay for private housing through rental subsidies or vouchers which in turn will stimulate the construction of private housing where necessary (William, 2010).

The United States of America since 1935 has implemented federal subsidy housing programmes in order to address lack of access to rental housing in various cities in the country. The federal programmes are as follows;

- Public housing- the oldest form of rental housing in the United States cities where initially the federal government funded the development of new public housing. The

housing stock was managed by local public housing authorities, over the years the federal government ceased the funding to new units. The programme intended that a tenant pays 30% of the household income on the rent while the government pays the difference. Amongst all American cities New York (compared to Los Angeles, Philadelphia, Houston and Chicago) has the largest amount public housing in terms of actual number and also in terms of the share of housing units which was 5% of the city's housing units by 2008 (New York University Furman Center, 2012). The reason for high portion for public housing in City like New York is mainly because other major cities demolished public housing in the past decades due to deteriorating conditions and high vacancy rates. As opposed to other cities New York has high demand and long waiting list for public housing. As a result the city devoted large amounts of resources in the development and rehabilitation of affordable housing more than any other city in the United States (Schwartz, 1999).

- Section 8 New Construction and Rehabilitation Program (Project Based Section 8) – it was started in 1974 and provides direct rental subsidy to private owners who house low-income tenants in newly constructed buildings or rehabilitated units. Tenants pay 30% of household income while the government pays the difference between that amount and the "fair market rent" for the unit. The programme was implemented throughout the United States until 1983 where a lot of the units gradually left the programme (It forms part of the housing choice programme currently); in this case the city of Chicago has the largest units (New York University Furman Center, 2012).
- The Low-Income Housing Tax Credit (LIHTC) program began in 1986 and is now the primary programme funding of affordable housing. The programme provide discount in federal income tax obligation for investors in low-income housing. The internal revenue service administers the programme but the credits for the discount are allocated by city and the state housing agencies. It should be noted that LIHTC programme is not meant for low-come housing but mixed-income developments which in most cases have housing units that are expensive mixed with affordable low-income units (New York University Furman Center, 2012).
- In addition to the above key or main federal programmes, it is indicated that New York City has historically used various local funds to support subsidized housing programmes, this is at least 170 programmes. For instance since 1959, the Mitchell-Lama programme subsidized development of apartments for moderate and middle

income housing; by 2008 it has financed 158 properties that in total had 97000 units. But most importantly the city of New York also has rent stabilisation law which controls rent increases. By 2011 at least more 1 million units were rent stabilised and that is about almost 50% of the rental housing stock in New York City. In the presence of strong market influence in New York City and United states in general, what can be noted is that the continuous innovative approach and support to subsidy housing programs in the city there is a unique success story when it comes to subsidy housing provision (New York University Furman Center, 2012). New Yorks success for housing programme support and rehabilitations works uniquely because of the severe shortages of low-income housing, but same programmes can be counterproductive in cities that experience population losses and other unique qualities that are not consistent (Schwartz, 1999).

2.3.2 Subsidy Housing in Netherlands-Amsterdam.

In the Netherlands the central government offered subsidies and loans from 1890 to 1980 for development of what is referred to as "social rental housing" (Aref, 2005). Through various laws and policies over years the Dutch government experimented with different innovations and creativity in this sector. Social rental housing in Netherlands means housing stock that was developed fully or in partnership with State, municipality or non-profit organisation (Housing Association). The Dutch housing model is highly regarded as a good example in Europe as it is self-sustaining and does not receive much subsidisation from government (Aref, 2005). By 2018 subsidy housing accounted for 31% of all housing stock in the country (Hoekstra, 2013).

Housing Associations (HAs) currently form central figure of what subsidy housing is in Netherlands, this is the case since 1980s. They are meant to be non-profit organisations which are given public responsibility to deliver housing in whole country instead of municipalities (Schuiling and Van der Veer, 2004). HAs initially were being financed by Government but in the 1980s it was observed that there was no quantitative shortage anymore but a growing need for quality (Aref, 2005). They were established in order to assist the government in delivering high quality and quantities as result of damages incurred during Second World War. As part of the change in financial model for HAs construction subsidies were ceased which enforced HAs to be financial independent and function on a revolving funding principle (Hoekstra, 2013). HAs grew innovative and entrepreneurial, using revenues from sales and rent income to deliver

new affordable housing, undertake refurbishments and further community investments, they also set up central fund for HAs to utilize in financial difficulty(Hoekstra, 2013, Schuiling and Van der Veer, 2004).

In Amsterdam after Second World War the subsidy housing stock grew from 18% in 1950 to 55% in 2002 replacing the private rented stock as dominant sector in housing (Schuiling and Van der Veer, 2004). Amsterdam Municipality owned large tracts of lands within the boundaries of the municipality which gave it a chance to influence the type of housing to be developed within its jurisdiction (Schuiling and Van der Veer, 2004). The pre-war neighbourhoods which were privately owned were demolished in 1980s and replaced by socially rented housing stock through urban renewal projects. This included construction of new housing blocks in prime areas of the city of Amsterdam, but also included the purchasing of private properties and their renovations. In Amsterdam municipality there are about 14 Housing Associations that own about 205000 dwelling units which is about 55% of the total housing stock in the city. Sustan Fainstein refers to the Amsterdam City phenomenon as an egalitarian city because of the classless housing system created where almost 25% of higher income groups occupy social rented dwellings (Schuiling and Van der Veer, 2004).

There are only two types of subsidies in the Netherlands offered to both the individual and HAs. Rent Subsidies are subsidies offered to households who pay a certain amount while the part of the rent will be paid by subsidy, this is individual rent allowance. The second subsidy is capital subsidy which was usually issued to individuals and HAs for building and managing social rental housing. It was abolished in 1995, although capital incentive contributions are available for expensive building locations (Acioly, 2007). The dwelling types over the years focused much on producing single dwelling units that accounted for 49.4% whilst multi-family dwellings with or without a lift accounted for 38.7%. These were all delivered through new affordable housing programmes or urban renewal projects (Acioly, 2007). In addition to this the Dutch government applied rent regulation policies which helped to diminish share of middle and high class income household in the social rental stock, payment of land lord levy and enhanced housing affordability because rent increase is dependent on the income of tenants (Hoekstra, 2016).

2.3.3 Subsidy housing in South Africa.

Statistics South Africa (2016) reported that the number of household living in formal dwellings has increased from 76% in 2002 to 80% in 2014 which is a result of state subsidized housing. In Limpopo Province formal housing increased from 82% in 2002 to 94% in 2014 (States SA, 2016). The contribution of subsidy housing to South Africa's housing stock by 2014 was 19.1% (States SA, 2016). Despite this contribution housing inadequacy is a central issue to many poor households and protests regularly in South Africa. As highlighted earlier there are about seven Subsidies which are government provided in South Africa which were discussed earlier. The South African subsidy housing experience evolved with various policies which are discussed in detail in the next chapter. In short the subsidy housing is encapsulated by the Housing code which a policy document that details the housing programmes and subsidies available, but also defined the roles and responsibilities of the spheres of government (Tissington, 2011). The first housing code detailed the nine housing subsidy programmes which the government intended to undertake. The code was further developed over the years into more chapters which among other programmes included emergency housing and upgrading of informal settlements both in 2004 and 2005.

The code highlighted there is no single formula to dealing with the housing problem in South Africa; as a result it is comprehensive policy that "must continually evolve within the context of positive change" (DoH, 2003). The Housing code is an evolving policy which is meant to be reviewed routinely, as a result the subsidies provided in it change overtime and that makes it hard to verify which housing subsidies were commissioned more and in what context. However, the most visible subsidy programme was the individual subsidy programme that is predominantly stand-alone housing units. Other notable subsidies were institutional subsidies administered through SHIs, and notably attempts on Peoples housing process. A revised housing code was published in 2009 after BNG indicated that it had to be realigned and cohere with the new housing policy in 2004. The code is a legislative requirement of Housing Act of 1997 and it is binding for both local and provincial governments (Tissington, 2011; Ehelbrecht, 2014).

The revision in 2009 of the housing code saw a number of programmes being introduced and others removed to make the code clearer and implementable. There are officially sixteen housing programmes and are as follows;

Table 2.1 Housing subsidies (Programmes) provided by the Housing code of 2009

Integrated residential development programme (IRDP). Upgrading of informal settlements (UISP). Provision of social and economic facilities. Housing assistance in emergency circumstances. Social housing programme. Institutional subsidies. Community residential units programme. Individual subsidy programme. Rural subsidy: communal land rights.	Consolidation subsidy programme. Enhanced extended discount benefit scheme. Rectification of certain residential properties created under the pre-1994 housing dispensation. Housing chapters of an integrated development plan. Operational capital budget (ops/cap). Enhanced people's housing process. Farm residents housing assistance programme.

Source: DoHS, (2010).

Table 2.1 displays the current housing programme as contained in the housing code. It is worthy to note majority of the programmes are more or less the same from the first housing code of 2000. Most of the programmes have been restructured but they target and have same objectives. Subsidy housing in South Africa is government lead, the involvement of other organisations is on donor basis and in partnership with the state agencies and departments primarily responsible for housing in the country.

In South Africa there has arguably been mainly only three subsidy housing delivery system post 1994; these are in-situ upgrading, greenfield subsidy housing and inner city regeneration programmes. These three housing mechanisms are discussed in the following below as follows;

i. In-situ upgrading (Incremental Housing) in Informal settlements.

Most recipients of subsidized housing in cities live or have lived in informal settlements because they cannot afford formal housing. Incremental housing is an option of housing known as integral urban development process in which there is participation of all stakeholders to build housing for communities. It is a slow consultative process which is referred to in many names such as "starter house, phased developmental-house, owner-driven house" (Goethert, 2010; 23). It accounts for more than 70% of urban housing in developing world, making it most viable option to dealing with housing deficiency (Goethert, 2010). This is what would be

referred to as in situ upgrading in South Africa although it also carries many names and variations. In situ upgrading in South Africa involves various technical processes. In some instances it could involve some elements where people might have to be relocated while sometimes upgrading will take place while they are on site. The process also involves elements of formalisation as seen in normal township process (Joburg, 2009).

Despite in situ upgrading being law and policy, due to other various systemic problems it has not been widely accepted and practiced in many cities in South Africa (Huchzermeyer, 2006). This is because central to informal settlements and in situ upgrading there are issues of tenure. People in informal settlements are almost in permanent state of legal-social insecurity (Joburg, 2009). Despite this argument there is administrative recognition for in situ upgrading that ultimately results in greater security of tenure. This allows residents to enjoy basic benefits of accessing land including "increased levels of service, the possibilities of access to microfinance and economic opportunity" (Smit and Abrahams, 2010; 31). This opens up more possibilities for the provision of infrastructure services, social facilities and others. There are other forms of tenure securities which can form part of in situ upgrade. One of them is regularisation, which is considered to be tenure system that relies on legal recognition and individual ownership as a form of ownership (Smith and Abrahams, 2010). Tenure security is very important in order to enforce the right to housing and protection against evictions, it is very critical in in situ upgrading. The government has been reluctant in embracing because of fear that it would encourage land invasions. It can safely be argued that it will take something extraordinary for government to start commissioning in situ upgrading on large scale.

ii. Greenfield subsidy housing.

These are newly built subsidized houses on piece of land that was never utilised for anything before (Ogunsanya, 2009). The apartheid government in its establishment of black townships used greenfields development because most of them were located on affordable land located far from white areas. The post 1994 National housing programme continued this legacy undisturbed, especially through the stand alone RDP houses which were delivered as new or extensions of the old apartheid townships (COGTA, 2009). The advantage of this as opposed to in situ is that it " affords the professional team the scope and efficiency to design, execute and construct a workable layout plan, from the onset, for the social housing scheme" (Ogunsanya, 2009, 6). It is disadvantageous as opposed to in-situ upgrading where people choose wherever they decide to camp and that often is dictated by the availability of opportunities at walkable distances or good locations with transport opportunities (Ogunsanya,

2009, 6). Due to high prices for land, most greenfield subsidy housing are located far and therefore disabling any chance of restructuring cities. Unless there is deliberate effort to change the government's traditional one stand model greenfield subsidy housing will not transform city spatial patterns unless the development plans are for horizontal expansion or strategic development on certain locations. Other typologies of subsidy housing should form main stream greenfield housing subsidies.

iii. Inner city regeneration programmes (Inner city renewal programmes).

Inner city regeneration programmes are long term on-going programmes designed to reverse the economic decline in various sectors in cities by " improving the physical structure, more importantly revive the economy of those areas….public money is used as an attempt to pump prime private investment into the area" (Weaver, 2001). The main goals of the programme primarily deal with unemployment and crime, low and moderate income housing, education and poor health, encourage and enhance private investments (Weaver, 2001). Urban regeneration which interchangeably is called urban renewal, turn around old abandoned sections of a city in to a centres of activities. Buildings which initially were used for industries and have since closed become renovated and used as schools or cultural centres or social housing. They become new neighbourhoods with different offerings and all new economic activities.

The idea of urban regeneration in South Africa came as a result of the urban decay, and the decentralisation of urban governance and administration. This gave way for an opportunity to address issues of urban restructuring which are very important in post-apartheid South Africa. Addressing low density and urban sprawl, spatial fragmentation and segregation and city connectivity looking at public transport; a number of policies were introduced to give effect to this (HDA and NASHO, 2013). For instance, the 2005 social housing policy was directed at restructuring objectives which included among others spatially reversing the apartheid spatial model, economic revitalisation by job creation and also social improvement at neighbourhood level by addressing crime and others (HDA and NASHO, 2013). In the city of Johannesburg this has to some level been a successful programme, today it boasts of various sections such as Newtown, Maboneng precinct, Fashion district boasting of economic activities and various subsidized housing options all over town.

In-situ and urban regeneration delivery systems seek to maximise on the existence of the settlements and infrastructure in place but also spatially reduce the expansion phenomenon. Although they have been implemented in various cities of the countries, there are associated

risks involved such as encouraging land invasion and illegal occupation of buildings. As a result there are reservations to a certain degree regarding the two mechanisms which explains why most of the subsidy housing projects in South Africa have been largely greenfield that has arguably enforced apartheid spatial plans of expansion and fragmentation.

2.3.4 The differences between Subsidy housing in South Africa and international context (USA and Netherlands).

The US federal government has used various legislations and policy pieces as far back as 1930s to address issues of homelessness in various cities. The Netherlands government has since 1901 (over 100 years of subsidy housing experience) used legislations and policies experience which is unique and has incomparably achieved. South Africa's government has only over 20 years' experience with inclusive subsidy housing programmes despite the experience of subsidy housing under apartheid which was mainly used to enforce apartheid policies. All these governments have delivered housing stock into millions respectively targeting the housing inadequacy in their cities.

The US Federal and Dutch governments implemented a subsidy housing programmes that are mainly anchored in rental models, subsidies were issued to individuals, companies and housing associations to deliver various housing scheme meant to cater for different rental bracket dependent on individual household incomes. While the South African government subsidy model has been based on models that range from individual ownership to rental; as a result it the subsidy housing programme is comprehensive and is designed to cater for different context with its own housing challenges.

In 1968 United States' Department of Housing and Urban Development introduced Fair Housing Act to address housing segregation in cities. The crux of this act was that every area and development should accept a fair share of low income housing units. This is called the "Quota Policy", a policy that has been replicated all over the world, demanding that local governments ensure correct mix of housing typologies within existing and new developments to change the composition of area (Huchzemeyer, 2003). The quota housing policy is implemented in exchange of various incentives such as lower land costs, affordable transaction costs, and others (Nair, 2015). The quota policy in South Africa is equivalent to the Inclusionary housing policy this study which is discussed in detail chapter 4 that focuses on housing policy.

The subsidy housing model of the United States of America in anchored on both the private sector and the local housing authority which the government grant funding to develop and accommodate low income housing within developments. This allowed the housing authorities to be able to accommodate low income tenants and also enforce rent regulations within the housing sector. And most importantly the federal government through Internal revenue services, the state and local housing authorities is able to offer tax relieve to private developers through Low-Income Housing Tax Credit (LIHTC) program which offer tax relive to private developers who undertake mixed income housing developments. In addition the ability of American cities to create funds primarily for development of subsidy housing offers the Federal government ability to deal with shortages of housing in an effective manner as that creates financial reserves in addition to the existing housing stock and role of private sector to be able to provide subsidy housing. The Dutch Government with its long history of subsidy housing and the fact that cities like Amsterdam owned large tracts of land within their borders allowed them to be able to offer subsidy housing not only for low-income households but also be able to offer the same to high income households. But in addition, this allowed the states to be able to impose rent regularisation measures in order to protect low-income households. The US federal government and Dutch government ability to implement rent regulations and contain the strong forces of free market in both New York and Amsterdam offers the states an opportunity to ensure inclusion of low income households as beneficiaries in the regeneration projects or gentrification projects. The precise and streamlined process for subsidy housing in USA and Netherlands is what lacks in South Africa.

South Africa offers extensive options in subsidy housing which is the main reason it has managed to deliver at least 2 million houses in such a short period of time since 1994. However, the Fuller Center for Housing indicates there are contextual differences that make South Africa distinct from the rest of the world. The Fuller Center for Housing (2014) indicated the following;

- Severe housing shortages- it was estimated that in 1994 the housing backlog was 2.2 million with at least 204000 annual increases in cities due to urbanisation. Urbanisation in Netherlands and USA are different to South Africa recent urbanisation dynamics. Urbanisation in both Amsterdam and New York took place during the late 19th century and during the first half of the 20th century under no economic conditions such as those that existed from the dawn from democracy in South Africa. By 1994 there was a severe

shortage to housing and an economy that was bleeding jobs while the rate of urbanisation was increasing.

- Lack of affordability due to high unemployment and low average income levels. Majority of South Africans cannot be able to provide their own housing needs.
- Fragmented housing and administrative systems, at some points in South Africa there was 15 departments responsible for housing with additional national and state institutions doing the same. All of them were implementing same at least 20 different subsidy schemes. This is not the case in the United States of America and the Netherlands, where rental housing subsidy is the only option and there are effective institutional system in place responsible for subsidy housing consistently all the country. In South Africa "… the key built-environments functions such as housing, transportation, land management, energy, environmental planning, economic development, and so on are awkwardly split across the three levels of government, which reproduces highly problematic outcomes" (Van Donk and Pieterse 2006 in Pieterse, 2009; 5). There is confusion in terms of boundaries of power and responsibility between spheres government, it has proven to be very difficult to align the responsibilities of the various spheres. The lack of integrated delivery system has over the years produced neighbourhoods that are inadequate with sites that are meant for other utilities remaining undeveloped for a very long time (Charlton, 2003).
- Non-payment of housing loans and service payment boycotts- the South African civil society organisation has historically boycotted bonds, rental and services during apartheid government. This culture has in turn overlapped in to democracy where people are hesitant to pay for many services as a result affecting the collection ability of the state, municipality and other institutions. This affects ability of various sectors to be self-sustaining and to further extend services to other households. Ultimately this creates lack of options when it comes to End user financiers, and a general attitude for financiers to not be willing to lend low-income families. "The problem is made worse by phenomenon such as redlining and discrimination, poorly designed credit instruments, and lack of willingness to save by households" (Fuller Centre for Housing, 2014;4).

In addition historic development realities such as lack of zoning laws in former black townships and Bantustans affect lands markets in historically former black areas. Former black township or homelands areas find it difficult to have any significant

investment with conventional mortgage system (Huchzemeyer, 2003). There is minimal funding of housing finance from private sector in former black townships; as a result most housing developments are facilitated in conjunction with the state through subsidy housing (Haggard, 2015). However, there has been a total shift and transformation in terms of retail development in former black townships and rural areas. There has been a surge in terms of commercial retail centres in almost all major townships of most big cities in South Africa (Haggard, 2015). Nedbank Corporate and Investment Banking indicates that despite the low income profile of the customers in these areas, the retail centres target mostly food, building supplies, fashion and furniture sectors occupancy which makes them sustainable (Haggard, 2015). In contrast to commercial developments, housing does not receive high scale private sector investments.

- Insufficient land- it is argued that there is slow land identification process which are further complicated by complex development processes. But most importantly it should be noted that land is sufficient but in cities it is not state or municipal owned while in Amsterdam the municipality has historically owned large tracts of land which gave bargaining power in influencing decisions.

2.4 Restructuring Cities through Subsidized Housing: Impact of subsidy housing in shaping cities.

Earlier in this chapter there was a discussion of urban form and engagement into various models considered to be important to development of cities including the development the apartheid city which is the basis of this study. Subsidy housing as a service for the poor households forms part of any urban form. How has subsidy housing manifested itself spatially in the New York and Amsterdam as the chosen comparative case studies? This section seeks to demonstrate how subsidy housing has spatially shaped the urban form the two cities who have respectfully since 1930 and 1901 been engaged in subsidy housing, and how is it in general in relation to South Africa's subsidy housing in cities. Has housing shaped cities in any form and in South Africa has it theoretically assisted in restructuring apartheid city?

2.4.1 Subsidy Housing and New York's urban form.

From 2003 to 2017 the City of New York had more than 3300 properties that were part of New York City housing production program. The subsidy housing experience in New York is

spatially is everywhere due to capital program or zoning incentive program. About 34% of the properties are located in Brooklyn, 33,4% are located in Bronx, 29,7% in Manhattan, 2,4% in Queens and below 1% is located in Staten Island (NYU Furman Center, 2018). The subsidy housing make up in New York City includes various financial programs, zoning and tax incentives in existence to make available to housing affordable in New York City.

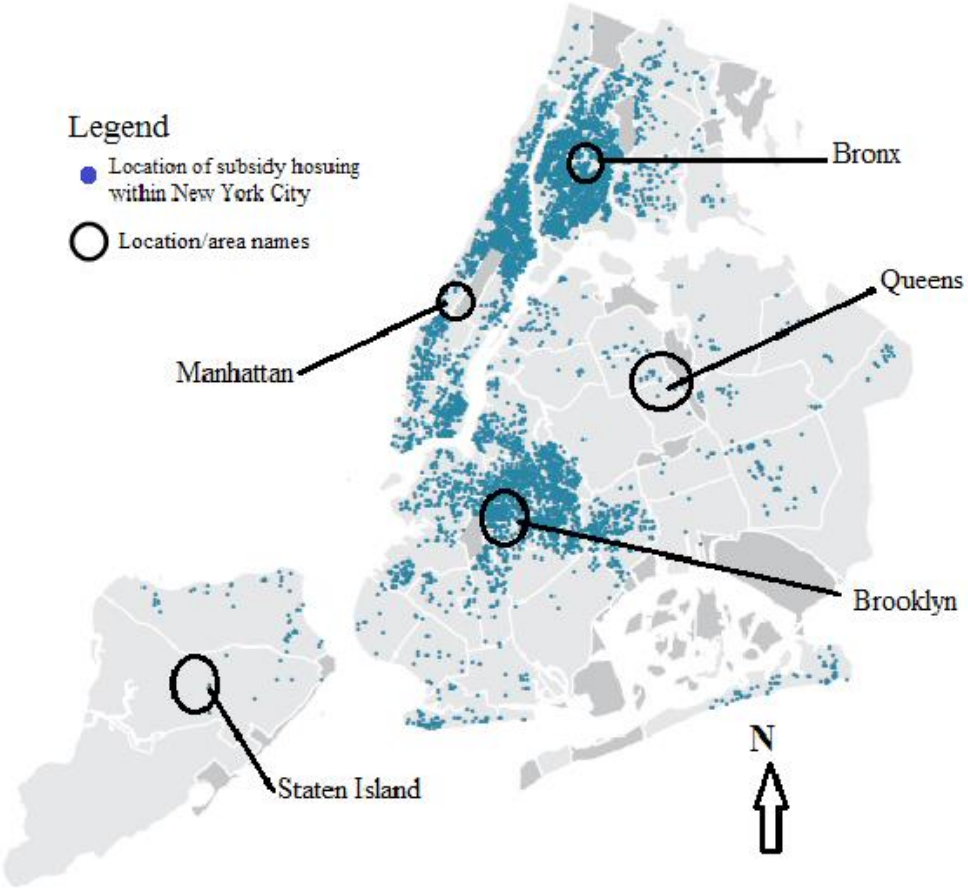


Figure 2.5 Location of Subsidized Housing in the City of New York totals 3579 properties by 2017.

In the above map if a property has more than one subsidy it is displayed as a single point. The properties may include both affordable and market-rate units (Sourced from Fuller Center for Housing, 2018- adjusted by Author).

Figure 2.5 shows that subsidy housing form the urban fabric of the building landscape of the city of New York. There is higher concentration of subsidy housing in mostly four sections of the city of New York being Brooklyn, Queens, Bronx and Manhattan. The almost 90 years of experience in subsidy housing in New York has created an urban fabric that is inclusive of subsidy housing as part of urban morphology of the city of New York over the years. Subsidy housing is well spread spatially throughout the city, indicating that the City of New York is

committed to addressing homelessness but most importantly delivering the subsidy housing units is spaces that are economically active.

2.4.2 Subsidy housing and Amsterdam's urban form.

By 2004 city of Amsterdam had about 763562 with 374952 dwellings. Of the 374952 housing stock about 206310 were subsidy housing and only 14 housing associations available (Schuiling and Van der Veer, 2004).The following table shows tenure split over the years in Amsterdam.

Table 2.1: Changes in tenure split from 1982 to 2012 in Amsterdam municipality

	owner-occupied	private rented	social rented
1982	6.3	52.1	41.6
1992	11.7	34.0	54.3
2002	19.6	25.4	55.0

Source: Schuiling and Van der Veer, (2004).

Amsterdam had 14 city districts with 14 HAs, each district had it fair share of subsidy housing even the high income areas such as Oud Zuid had 30% subsidy housing stock and all post World War II neighbourhoods had larger percentages of subsidy housing (Schuiling and Van der Veer, 2004). The following map demonstrates the share of subsidy hosuing in various districts of Amsterdam.

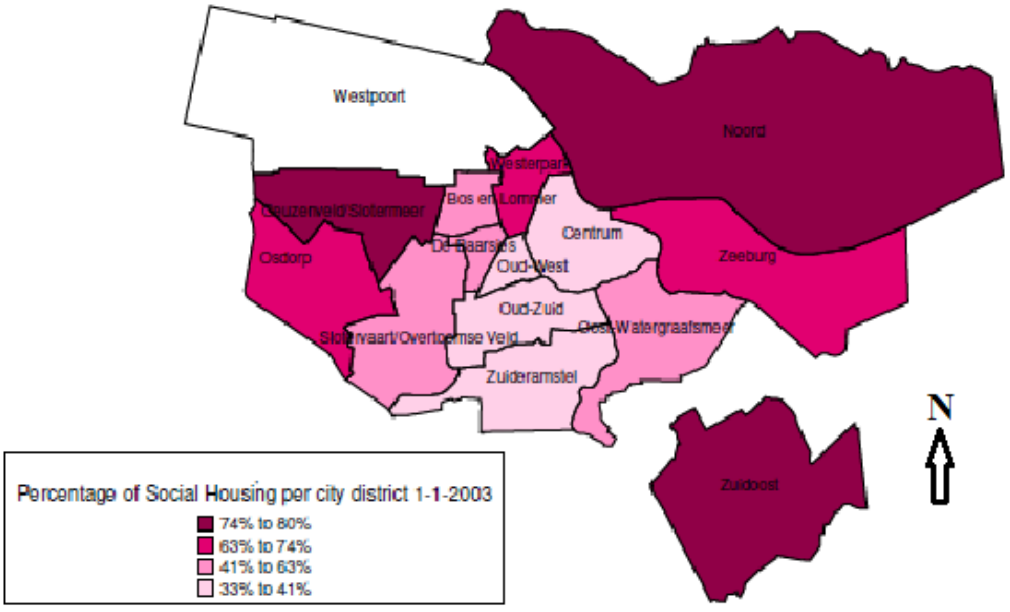


Figure 2.6 Percentages of subsidy housing in Amsterdam by 2003 per district.

The above figure shows integration of subsidy housing in all the districts of Amsterdam municipality, this includes the old neighbourhoods of Amsterdam (Schuiling and Van der Veer, 2004, map adjusted by Author). It is a demonstration of what Susan Fainsten called Amsterdam

"the Egalitarian city" due to the availability of subsidy housing availability for all income groups in Amsterdam.

The following figure further demonstrates in details concentration of subsidy housing in Amsterdam. Showing various properties under HAs and welfare recipients by 2016.

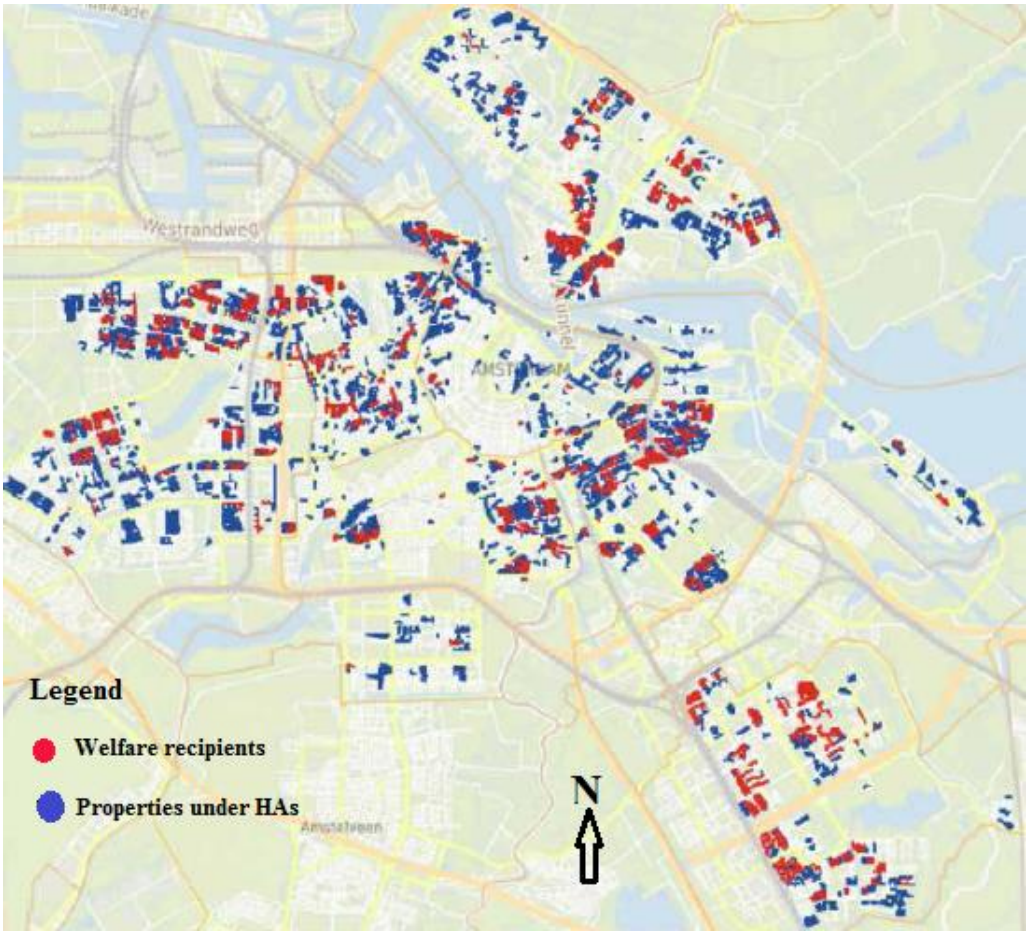


Figure 2.6 Spatial locations of the HAs properties and welfare recipients within the 14 districts of Amsterdam

Source: Van der Veer, (2017).

The above shows extensive integration of subsidy housing in Amsterdam's urban form. This is a manifestation of over 100 years of programs and policies which sought to make housing accessible to all income groups in the city. As indicated earlier about 25% of high income households in Amsterdam have occupied subsidy housing. This is because within the boundaries' there are fewer alternatives when it comes to property ownerships (Schuiling and Van der Veer, 2004). It is a city where location and market do not influence the value of the rent because 75% of Amsterdam housing market is regulated and only 25% of housing the real

market applies (Schuiling and Van der Veer, 2004). Subsidy housing policy in Amsterdam had for many years informed the spatial growth of the city prior to World War II and after. The reconstruction process of the city after World Warf II entrenched the subsidy housing phenomena in all neighbourhoods despite the income disparities of households.

2.4.3 Subsidy housing and South African cities' post-apartheid urban form.

Housing the urban poor was priority for the post 1994 government given the urbanisation and need for housing in most cities. The occurrence of exploding informal settlements and illegal housing in cities which was experienced by most sub-Saharan Africa was also the case in South Africa (Yeboah, 2005). The number of housing need in cities increased annually and debates into forms and approaches to affordable housing were explored. Developing and developed countries responded in various forms to the housing informalities that came as a result of lack of access to affordable housing and finance. In most cases the programmes and policies sought to address housing issues mainly for urban land tenure purposes. The initial response to the phenomenon of housing informality and security mostly initially started at conventional policies (Rondinelli, 1990). The conventional policies focused mainly slum clearance and public housing, upgrading of core dwellings and assisted self-help housing but it was later realized with experience and time that this all have limitations. The policy changes over time sought more participatory process in housing for the urban poor, the informal sector and the private sector role in housing sector (Rondinelli, 1990).

One of the first key policy interventions in South Africa post 1994 was introduction of spatial policies such as Urban Development Framework (UDF) in 1997 mainly focused on spatial integration of post- apartheid cities. The apartheid city form represented no values or principles of the new democratic dispensation. The UDF sought to restructure urban areas and foster spatial integration by integrated planning, rebuilding and upgrading the townships and informal settlements, planning for higher density land-uses and development, reformation of the urban and planning system, urban transportation and environmental management. A detailed policy discussion regarding urban restructuring and subsidy housing is captured in Chapter 4 of this study. Donaldson (2009) indicates that that the post-apartheid spatial policy framework intended to create a context of a twenty-first century a new city identity for South Africa. Donaldson (2009; 3) refers to this as compaction policies which "promote a range of principles, such as urban regeneration, revitalization of the inner city, preventing of urban sprawl, higher

densities (mainly residential), mixed land-use, promoting public transport nodes, improved access between employment, housing and services, corridor development and urban infill, which are the fundamental elements of contextualization".

In South Africa traditional approaches to spatial planning predominantly aligned land use planning with infrastructure planning. Infrastructure planning in South Africa had its own spatial logic which ultimately became more powerful in shaping the spatial structure of cities than spatial planning as envisioned by what comprehensive spatial plans stated (Todes, 2008). The Council for Scientific and Industrial Research and Human Sciences Research Council undertook a modelling project to understand relationship between spatial planning and infrastructure planning. The modelling initiative in combination with international experiences showed that effective spatial planning will work where there is political buy-in but also based on "spatial demographic and economic trends and patterns, and property market analyses" (Todes, 2008;6). The delivery of subsidy housing is infrastructure dependent and has always been during apartheid. Infrastructure planning is important to how subsidy housing play a role in restructuring cities but more importantly attention to socio-economic dynamics in spatial planning can transform urban form of post-apartheid cities in South Africa tremendously.

Spatial integration as a concept speaks to ideology of compact city form that has advocated for high-densities in order to deal with sprawl and fragmentation (Todes *et al*, 2016). Pro compact city plans include among others urban containment with increase in densities and transit oriented development (Todes *et al*, 2016). The proponents' of compact city form indicates that cities are more sustainable and efficient because they have less development footprint and as a result land closer to cities could be used fruitfully for farming and preserving the ecosystem (Todes *et al*, 2016). Compact urban form enforces better use of the environment and enables "better use of public infrastructure, lower the costs of providing infrastructure, improve access to services, and reduce the energy demand for transport by enabling better provision and use of public transport, allowing a shift away from reliance on the private cars" (Todes *et al,* 2016; 6). It is also less dependent on private car usage and encourages other uses of transport while also given the proximity of utilities it is convenient with travel cost and times and also facilitates better access to opportunities (Todes *et al*, 2016).

The post 1994 spatial planning and housing policies both at national, provincial and local government level adopted strategies, guidelines and policies which were influenced by

compact city notion to reverse spatial legacy of apartheid city. The post 1994 spatial planning South Africa focused on nodes, corridors, densification and infill developments (Todes, 2008). But critics highlight that compact development policies creates exclusive and unsustainable city form that produce costly land, overcrowded spaces, pollution, crime and strains environment and resources (Todes *et al*, 2016). The critics indicate that sprawl is an indication that people prefer to have sufficient space as individuals because of affordability and increase in income. The counter argument against urban sprawl is that urban sprawl is indication of affordability and ability for cities and developers to cater households with their preferred homes at distances which are complemented by effective public transport.

Critics have pointed various weaknesses about the post-apartheid standard spatial planning that it had missed many aspects about urban way of informal activities and how they organise spatially at a local level and how they might be supported. It "… make implicit assumptions about the nature of employment, livelihood and movement patterns that may not be borne out by a closer analysis" (Todes, 2008; 2). The problem about the post-apartheid spatial planning system is dictatorial and fails to "understand how people use space, how movement patterns occur, and to question how spatial planning might respond appropriately" (Todes, 2008; 2).

South Africans housing subsidy is known mainly as supply-side subsidies in which a project produces standardised houses and beneficiaries who have been on waiting list are handed the keys. Demand side subsidies earlier in the 1990s formed a small portion of the national housing subsidy, but it is an impactful subsidy because it allows for beneficiaries to purchase an existing house in the market. It is argued that if the demand side subsidies formed bigger portion of the housing subsidies South Africa could have dealt better with the high segregated spatial form of its cities. The supply-side subsidies were anchored more on single plots model which costed more and had little impact spatially (SHSUP, 2015; Huchzemeyer, 2003). The model was supposed to allow for more vertical development models that shared services and facilities, "savings on the land area per unit could have compensated for the cost of located land" (Huchzemeyer, 2003; 222).

"Building and rebuilding cities and new communities is a complex and challenging endeavour under the best of circumstances" (Corrigan *et al*, 2005, v). It cannot be done in solitude where only government is exclusive implementer and custodian. Public Private Partnerships (PPP) are a critical ingredient of good governance with involvement of relevant and interested

stakeholders. PPP became central to public governance in western countries as a response to dealing with multidimensional problems and like all forms of relationship it has evolved overtime (OECD, 2012). In terms of housing and spatial fragmentation in cities, in the 1980s the city authorities ceded the housing problems to private developers and investors to deliver urban regeneration projects. This to some level worsened the fragmentation problem (Harrison, 2003). But the PPP conception of latter years saw equivalent involvement in regeneration projects by public, private and community bodies. In South African PPP are contracts between a public and private sector institutions in which the private party takes a meaningful financial, technical risks often including building and operation of a project (Lombart, 2012).

The South African experience of PPP has been wide ranging, in relation to restructuring cities it has notably been through some of the urban renewal or regeneration programmes. Urban regeneration projects have assisted notably most South African metropolitan municipalities in revitalising cities which experienced relocation of business and people to the suburban areas. The Cities undertook a couple of projects which saw conversion of old office blocks in to residential units and creating economic nodes within cities. The two classic examples within City of Johannesburg (CoJ) are Maboneng Precinct and Fashion District in downtown Johannesburg which at some point in the 1990s and early 2000s were considered dangerous places (CoJ, 2007).

Urban management should take into cognisance the complex socio-spatial relationships within cities; these are the networks and social capital within communities (Harrison, 2003). There are interconnected economic networks and spatial organisation of factors such as community ties, personal networks, social norms and trust that form community. This networks and social capital enable a thriving community and civic organisation (Harrison, 2003). Policy development processes, plans and activities should be done cognizant of these dynamics and in consultation with these structures (Harrison, 2003).

Scheeper (2014) pointed out that South Africa after 1994 delivered 3 million houses but the current backlog is much more than before 1994. According to Pieterse (2009) and Scheepers (2014) there are various factors or agents that perpetuate the apartheid city form and underpin limitations of subsidy housing spatially. As highlighted earlier rebuilding cities cannot be excusive role of government, hence there are other factors that play a role and impact on subsidy housing. They are as follows;

- Immunity of private investment to governmental spatial priorities.

Local government (Cities) are centres of productivity and growth, in South Africa after 1994 the general development policy approach became market oriented. It became obvious that despite the redistributive policy agenda there is a need to guard and ensure there is economic growth in cities. This method meant in its "crudest form ….doing which we perceive big investors would like us to do, whether this might involve privatisation of service or removal of squatters" (Harrison, 2003; 18). Private sector does not intimately follow the governments' aims and plans in terms of how development should happen or what is targeted as the most important priorities of local government. Private development or investments follow where the wealthy live and the public investments follow where the urban poor live in cities (Pieterse, 2009). It is understandable that the private sector investments yield much needed benefits for cities. These are the tax and rate collection base for local government (Pieterse, 2009). These coupled with the constitutional protection of individual right over communal rights had seen communities or individuals forcing or objecting to potential developments that would alter the apartheid city form (Pieterse, 2009). .

This is primarily because communities in suburban areas are mostly middle income and are resourced; well organised through ratepayers associations and have access to legal expertise to litigate, block and intervene in government's plans (Pieterse, 2009). New developments are platforms for restructuring cities, often housing developments intended for low income house they are met with objections. This is popularly known as Not-in-my-backyard (NIMBY) sentiment which argues that subsidized housing affects the property values of nearby houses (Du Preeze and Sale, 2011). These coupled with other practical and organisational limitations such as local government's lack of incentives or disincentives for developments further make low income housing the distaste for most communities in affluent suburbs (Pieterse, 2009). Incentivisation or Dis-incentivisation for developments has not been practiced as part of development culture in how local government orient development. Incentives for those private developers willing to incorporate low income housing units within their developments can go long way and alter the culture of development and structure of cities. Last lack of political determination, political elite have benefits directly or indirectly with private developers. Lack of executive and political will to fully embark on programmes to

restructure cities result in fewer changes and therefore no blocking, redirecting or sanction of undesirable private investments (Pieterse, 2009).

- Limited amount of land for development- costs of land in viable places in most cities is priced very high. The South African problems of spatial form are further underpinned by land issue which is fundamental to subsidy housing. Former deputy chief Justice Dikgang Moseneke indicated that "We have not found a satisfactory solution to spatial apartheid, equitable access to land, and housing and basic services" (Moseneke, 2014 in Turok, 2015; 5). The state has not been resolute regarding private and public land ownership which is a critical factor to how subsidy housing and development planning unfolds in cities and ultimately plays part in restructuring them (Turok, 2015).

- Political interference and dependency on the state- the state is the main source of funding for all aspects relating to delivery of subsidy housing. There should be bigger role of other stakeholders beside state and political players.

- Affordable land often has geological and topographical restrictions therefore increasing building costs. As a result projects are located far from employment opportunities with insufficient public transport.

- The range of subsidies made available is sufficient. However, most in implementation are not high density residential units which accommodate more units. Although increased densification is a compact policy approach. The counter argument advanced by urban sprawl advocates are that urban sprawl encourages nodal development that enforces existence efficient transportation and infrastructure. But in addition they take places as Greenfield development and therefore take place in less priced land. The creation of satellite nodes points unlocks economic potential in various places (Todes *et al*, 2016). Therefore, densification can be appropriate in other cities, while also expansion can be appropriate in others. A healthy balance of the two is needed which means that comprehensive and complex decision should be made in case of South African cities in order to reverse apartheid planning legacy in cities and deliver reformed patterns in cities.

- Huchzemeyer (2003, 216) indicates that segregation of low-income housing in various parts of the world has been addressed with range of policy mechanisms. Policy and legislative review of old town planning schemes and zoning laws, building regulations, land taxation and tenure forms as they are applied to low income and middle class areas which normally are recipients of housing subsidy.

What emerges from the interrogated literature is that there is no one factor that determines spatial morphology of a city. It is a combination of factors that play part in the growth dimensions of a city but also in addition an interplay of variables such as politics, role of civil society, development issues such as planning mechanism (town planning schemes, zonings and densities), value and prices of land and unmanageable amount of subsidies in the case of South Africa. The impact of subsidy housing in South Africa theoretically has been limited, the literature exposes that in general there has not been any changes to established apartheid urban form which was structurally designed to deny majority of non-white population opportunities. Although spatial integration programmes have been widely encouraged all over the country in term policy, the measures put in place to effect it are weak and therefore not effective in enforcing spatial restructuring or integration of South African cities.

2.5 Conclusion.

This Chapter reviewed literature on urban models, subsidy housing case studies at international and local levels. This helped in identifying the different contexts of subsidy housing and its role in restructuring cities.

The pattern from literature review shows that fragmentation and segregation in cities is complex to resolve, in combination with a historical political system in South Africa the effort to restructure cities has been undermined by various entrenched systems which were highlighted in this chapter. Subsidy housing in the West has less stigma; the government, developers and community at large take part in subsidy housing programme as part and parcel of the city life and the impact spatially is immense. Consequently, subsidy housing forms an integral part of the urban form in various sections of cities.

Subsidy housing is a key instrument to which cities in South Africa can use as an instrument to address problems of spatial fragmentation as demonstrated by the City of Amsterdam and City of New York. Increasing demand for housing has caused most South African cities to look

at housing as a defacto urban development strategy in which housing dictates how cities grow. Various policies and legislative forms in South Africa have been implemented since 1994 to address issues of spatial fragmentation by all spheres of government. The following chapter discusses the legislative and policy evolution of subsidy housing and spatial integration in cities by the South African government and its entities, looking first from 1994-2004 and 2005 till 2017.

Chapter 3: Research Method

3.1 Introduction.

Based on Strauss and Corbin (1998) research method is instruments or tools and techniques that the researcher employs to collect, analyse and interpret data. According to Bailey (1994) methodology is a philosophical process of research that includes the assumptions and values that serve as the rationale the researcher uses for collection and interpretation of data and reaching conclusions. In De Langen (2009, 51) Parahoo states that research method is a plan that describes "how, where and when data are to be collected and analysed". The purpose of this chapter is to present a discussion on how, where and what data was collected to execute the study and inform its findings. The chapter is structured and discusses the following, research typology and data approach, research matrix, mapping, ethical considerations in the study and conclusion.

3.2 Research typology and Data approach.

This study is explanatory research. Explanatory research is meant to unpack and understand extent of cause-and-effect, in that the researcher tries to explain what is taking place. These are studies designed and applied to assess impacts of specific changes on existing situation or explain patterns of variables of a specific problem (Van Wyk, 2009). Explanatory research in this study attend to the how question, (what is the role of subsidy housing the urban morphology?) in order to explain a phenomenon over a period and unpack the spatial trends of the city of Polokwane over specific period. It is appropriate research in that it allows reflecting on the other factors that are causal to the urban morphology of the City of Polokwane captured in Chapter 5 of this study.

The study is desktop based, which is a method of collecting data without field work that excludes field survey, interviews or group sessions. The method of carrying out this is dependent on secondary data which is mostly sourced from libraries, archives, internal data within organisations, government departments, internet and other online databases. All the data gathered in this research did not involve interviews or any primary data (B2B International, 2018). The study applies qualitative research which involves the process of constructing and validating theory using data analysis (Kelly, 2016). Why qualitative research for this report? Generally, a qualitative is a process of investigation that collects evidence and produces findings that are not determined in advance and the findings can be applicable beyond the immediate boundaries of the study. The rationale behind this research approach is the nature of the topic at hand, which demands assessment of the literature, policies and legislation which

have been backbone of subsidized housing in the country. The process also looked in to how the city has transformed over the years through subsidy housing programmes assessing where the units are delivered and how that affected the spatial form of the city. The following research matrix discusses the data collection process and gives clear understanding into how the research data gathering occurred.

3.3 Research method matrix.

This section gives a synopsis of the various methodological techniques and tools that were adopted to achieve the main research objectives of the study. Table 3.1 shows a research design matrix and it gives a breakdown of the objectives, research questions, data collection category i.e. primary and secondary, the targeted group.

Table 3.1 Research design matrix

Research objectives.	**Research sub-questions.**	**Data collection tools.**		**Sources/Target Group and purpose.**
		Secondary data collection method	Analysis and presentation of data	
1. Describe, analyse and determine how subsidy housing has reshaped the City of Polokwane	What subsidy housing and how has it reshaped the City of Polokwane's urban form?	Municipal records on housing, planning and GIS shapefiles.	-Pictures. -Graphic Mapping and GIS Mapping. -Text. -Percentage. -Tables.	Polokwane Municipality and COGHSTA- to specifically pinpoint how housing has been a tool to achieve spatial restructuring or spatial integration of the city.
2. Recommend intervention areas to achieve NDP goals regarding human settlements.	How can subsidy housing and municipal spatial planning achieve city restructuring	- Municipal records on housing, planning and GIS shapefiles. -Articles	-Text -Tables	Polokwane Municipality and COGHSTA- to recommend how subsidy housing and municipal spatial planning can

	and help realize NDP objectives on human settlements?	- Books		crucial in achieving objectives of the NDP.
	What additional factors or agents play a role in restructuring cities through housing?	-Books. -Online Articles-Newspapers& Magazines	-Text. -Percentage - Pictures	Polokwane Municipality and COGHSTA- to identify subsidy housing programs implemented within Polokwane local Municipality.

Source: Author 2018.

Table 3.1 shows how research questions were created to achieve the research objectives and using which tools to generate response. It shows that there has been information that was collected from Polokwane local municipality and Department of Cooperative Governance, Human Settlements and Traditional Affairs. The process of collecting data in this study was done by obtaining documents that have records regarding subsidy housing. At COGHSTA the documentation obtained was the information that offer the general status quo of Subsidy housing in the province from 1994 to 2017. The documentation specifically indicates how many houses were delivered each year since 1994 and how many sites were serviced each year. This information has been appended in Annexure C. Polokwane local municipality gave the specific records regarding the subsidy housing within the municipality. A key document that was obtained is a presentation that was made to council in the last quarter of the 2016/2017 financial year which shows the number of housing delivered since 1994, with extension names, title deeds issued, number of beneficiaries missing and others. Additional documents and files obtained were spatial development frameworks dating back to early 2000 to the latest, land use management schemes from 1981 to the latest and density policy. In addition ArchGIS shape

files were obtained which permitted the researcher to work from existing files that show township extent, urban edges, land marks, nodes, transport infrastructure and others. This was acquired so that it enables the study to capture evolution of issues in the city accurately.

3.4 Mapping.

There are several maps within the study report which are designed to assist in demonstrating various ideas. The purpose of the mapping is necessary to spatially locate where the subsidy housing has been delivered within the urban edge of the city (i.e. study area) so that reasons or motive for spatial integrating can be advanced. The maps are in two forms, there are those which are graphical and those that are realistic and scaled produced by GIS. Map 1.2 and Map 4.1 are graphical, they have been generated by Corel Draw software that allows to achieve and demonstrate certain features of an area which an actual map cannot. The purpose of the graphic maps which have been done mainly seek to help the reader visualize and understand the ideas which an actual map (i.e. GIS map, Google Maps) might not achieve because the area is too large.

3.4.1 Geographic Information system (GIS).

Geographic Information System (GIS) is a "computer application designed to perform a wide range of operations on geographic information…from acquisition and compilation through visualization, query, and analysis to modelling, sharing, and archiving" Longley et al. 1999 cited in Goodchild (2007,1). As a computer application it can be organized in a variety of ways to perform many functions which among others include input, store, visualize, export, and analysis (Goodchild, 1998). Deakin (2011; 242) states Geographic Information System is "a system for capturing, storing, checking, manipulating, analyzing and displaying data that are geographically referenced. GIS can be applied in numerous contexts, as is evidenced by the ever-increasing availability of specialized extensions to GIS software packages."

ArcGis software was used to generate the maps that show subsidy housing in Polokwane local municipality since 1994. Polokwane local municipality's GIS Unit shared the relevant shapefiles to be used in creating the maps and in conjunction with other data used to generate the maps. The following steps were undertaken to create Polokwane subsidized housing maps of 1994-2017 (*Geographic Information Systems Practical Guide: University of Johannesburg).*

3.5 Ethical Considerations in the study.

The research as indicated is a desktop study; it has not in any way involved any individuals or subject any office bearers to any interviews. It has not involved any persons who are vulnerable or at risk. The data collection process has been archival, looking and reviewing stored data. The collection process involved making the relevant officials aware that it is solely for academic purposes and will not be used for anything else. The office bearers were fully aware that all information was to be used in partial fulfilment of a degree in Master of Science in Development Planning at the University of the Witwatersrand. The officials have not been coerced in to doing anything or inform or give an opinion that informs the research.

The Director for Development Planning at Polokwane local municipality and Director for research and policy at COGHSTA after the first contact with the researcher requested that there should be authorisation before any data will be given out. They both advised that the University or faculty should through the Supervisor or Head of School write letter requesting assistance for the student undertaking research in the municipality. They indicated that then there will be official response letters from Municipal Manager of Polokwane Local Municipality and the Director of Research and Policy at COGHSTA which will help in releasing the required information from the different units within the municipality and the department.

As a result, the researcher secured the School of Architecture and Planning authorisation letters from Supervisor and handed them to both Municipal Manager at Polokwane local municipality and Director for research and policy at COGHSTA. Both Polokwane local municipality and COGHSTA responded positively to the official request in writing. The letters of request and letters of authorisation to collect data are all attached here in the Appendices section both as Appendix -A for the request letters and Appendix-B letters of authorisation.

3.6 Research Limitations.

Given the limited resources the researcher took note research process became constrained by basic factors such as time and finances which form part of the data collections process. It is a long and unpredictable process which can be inspiring and sometime not. The following have been practical limitations to the research;

- Government Officials have in several cases refrained from sharing documentation due to policy and legislative barriers, as a result there was repeated exercise of giving them assuring documentation and going through various processes to be cleared to obtain documents. This has in turn stalled the data collection process on several occasions. All efforts and necessary steps were made to collect the data in time; and several trips had to be made to the case study area to forge relations with relevant departments or units. This made the process of compiling the report at a certain point impossible given extreme costs associated with the trips.

- Time given to carry out data collection of the study is limited. It could work in the advantage of the researcher to be given at least between one to three months for data collection. This can ultimately affect the quality of the report intended to be produced.

- Polokwane Local municipality's GIS system (shape files) is outdated, there is systems upgrade and integration underway. This has made it difficult to trace the township established with subsidized housing within the study area. Therefore, the maps produced have about 5 townships missing and not highlighted due to the GIS system upgrade, but some are due to their unproclaimed status.

3.8 Conclusion.

This chapter described in detail the research methodology that was adopted in this study to obtain all the relevant data and tools used in establishing the findings. It discussed the type of data collected, methods of data analysis and the sources of the data. It also discussed in detail the ethical consideration adhered to an indication that the research has fully considered all the necessary ethical aspects of a study of this nature.

Chapter 4: Post 1994 national policy directive: housing policy and cities spatial restructuring.

4.1 Introduction.

South Africa's post-apartheid development policy has been based on free market and strong role of the state as a custodian of development (Makgetla, 2004). South Africa's right to housing is enshrined in the constitution which has been inspired by various international treaties. The Constitution in Section 26 states that "everyone has the right to have access to adequate housing" (Constitution of Republic of SA, 1996; 11). The constitution further states that the state has a duty to ensure legislatively all measures are in place to realize this obligation (Constitution of Republic of SA, 1996). The housing and spatial development policies since 1994 have been evolving and are anchored on main economic policies dictating economic aspirations and development of the country. This chapter aims to discuss main economic policies, development frameworks and development plans which have informed subsidy housing and spatial planning since 1994 to 2017. The engagement will be limited to policy, development plans and frameworks, but for practical purposes there will be reference to legislation in order to create links and synergies in the discussion.

This chapter is arranged in a manner that assists in seeing the evolution of the housing and spatial policies, plans and frameworks of South Africa. The discussion starts by focusing first in the first decade from 1994 to 2003 and engages subsidy housing of that period. It then discusses subsidy housing policy from 2004 to 2017 (which has additional four years above a decade) it looks at main development plans, frameworks and policies of that period. Then focuses on spatial policy of South Africa since 1994. The latter sections focus on observations and lastly the conclusion.

4.2 The Post 1994 main economic policies and subsidy housing in South Africa.

Following democracy in 1994, South Africa commissioned various policies and instruments to address multitudes of problems which had plagued the country as a result of segregated development policies of the previous regime. An inclusive and responsive government in democracy meant promulgation of legislations and policies that are ethically sound and promote the constitution but also create an environment for efficient redress overtime. Since 1994, the government introduced three main economic policies and two plans. However, this report will limit discussion to only two, one being a policy and the other a plan and are as

follows: Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) (1994) and the National Development Plan (NDP) (2013).

4.2.1 The first decade of democracy: Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) and housing (1994-2003).

During the government of national unity in 1994 the white paper on RDP was tabled and in the preamble President Nelson Mandela stated government aims to "effectively address the problems of poverty and the gross inequality evident in almost all aspects of South African society" (Government Gazette, 1994; 4). The preamble further states "the Government's RDP activities therefore should not be seen as a new set of projects, but rather as a comprehensive redesign and reconstruction of existing activities" (Government Gazette, 1994; 4). Looking at the eight principles of RDP the government clearly first and foremost prioritised at transforming the government itself and how it operates. This was to ensure that democratisation, accountability, nation building, peace and security and others are central and key to setting up democracy as a system of the new government (Government Gazette, 1994).

Legislatively, South Africa through its draft white paper (1994) on housing highlighted a number of key housing issues which are important to city restructuring. The white paper in South African context is a tool used to table issues constructively prior to the report becoming a bill (Parliament RSA, 2018). It is a discussion document made available to all stakeholders to comment showing how government intends on addressing complex issues such as housing, roads and others. The white paper on housing indicated that "the historical and existing patterns of land use and allocation, as well as the legislative and policy framework associated with land, provides an immense challenge and constraint. A fundamentally different approach will be required to make the housing programme a sustainable reality" (Whitepaper, 1994, 15). The white paper stated that South Africa had a wasteful settlement structure that produced inefficient and inequitable cities and committed to a whole new equitable policy approach, land use and planning process to avoid wasteful land use practices, and allow for innovation and increase in densities (Whitepaper, 1994).

The white paper on housing indicated "there is no single formula for solving South Africa's housing dilemma" (Whitepaper, 1994, 22). It introduced a limited number of housing subsidies

which are ownership and collective subsidies, rental and social housing subsidies. It introduced key aspects of housing policy, land use practice and legislation that would among many objectives achieve the following which impacts on established urban patterns (Whitepaper, 1994). It sought to ensure that the location of residential and employment opportunities is in close proximity to or integrated with each other, optimise the use of existing physical and social infrastructure, provide for a diverse range of land uses at all levels (local and regional), discourage urban sprawl, develop compact settlements, towns and cities. One of its key main objectives was to contribute to the correction of the historically distorted racial and spatial pattern of South African towns, cities and rural areas. And ensure that housing as land use should not be subordinated to other land uses such as industrial, business and others. It further encouraged both provincial and municipal spheres of government to identify parcels of land which would be used for housing and highlighted the need for disposal of public owned land for housing.

The legislative framework provided RDP as a comprehensive policy rebuilt South Africa. RDP as a policy was multidimensional but mainly focused more on creating a strong economy that had large welfare component. The welfare system included among others subsidized housing that grew to be known as RDP housing. The subsidy housing programme under RDP policy produced mostly freestanding houses located mostly in settlements outside cities where mainly Black, Indian and Coloured people lived (Pernegger and Godehart, 2007). In practice the RDP policy did little to transforms the spatial patterns which had existed for decades. Due to high urbanisation and increasing demand in subsidized housing, implementation of most subsidies housing programmes were delivered same way as in apartheid South Africa spatially. Tissington (2010) indicated that despite the implementation of various housing policies and legislation, most programmes were quantity oriented and there was lack of complementary services. As a result developments continued on the periphery of towns and the delivery of housing had limited effect on poverty alleviation. They were spatial extensions of existing townships. According to Wray and Kibirige (2004) RDP had weakness outcome of re-creating apartheid spatial geography, as it located subsidy houses in sites far from the economic opportunities. The identical units provided throughout the projects was also criticized and in combination with infrastructure which was only provided after the top structure being completed raised concerns because it was land intensive and purely residential.

Despite the objective intentions of the RDP and the white paper on housing, the implementation and effects in terms of subsidy housing was not fully a success. The greater importance of housing politically and administratively overly undermined other services such as transport, infrastructure and others. This contributed to poor policy alignment and less impact of subsidy housing in cities during RDP policy (Turok, 2012). Failure of broader policy aspirations to align with sectoral programmes, in combination with poor capacity in government and corruption undermined any efforts of subsidy housing reversing apartheid spatial legacy in cities (Ngwenya 2016).

In addition, over the years there was introduction of various legislative pieces that refined the state's role in Subsidy housing and how other stakeholders would play a role and assist in delivering the housing. The following section briefly discusses the legislative and policy developments.

i. The Housing Act and Housing Policies in the First Decade.

The Housing Act 107 of 1997 set principles for housing development in three spheres of government namely National, Provincial and Municipal, but most importantly defined the role and responsibilities of all spheres of the government in housing (Tissington, 2011). It lacked material content to spatial restructuring of cities. Other additional housing policy adopted was Peoples Housing Process (PHP) which was introduced in 1998 as a self-help housing policy which was put in place but was not widely practiced. PHP programme was based on partnership with Non-Governmental Organisations and local communities; despite this being the policy it has not been well accepted and has not been widely practiced (Newton, 2013).

The last significant policy introduced was the Social Housing policy (2003). It was introduced at the background of well-established fragmented social housing practices during apartheid which were influential even in democracy. The policy committed to ensuring that a new social housing policy establish new practices and programmes that will commit to the "overall objective of the creation of sustainable human settlements" (DoH, 2003; 3). Underpinning this objective were a set of principles which among them was Inner city regeneration and rental housing provision. The policy looked at establishment of Social Housing Institutions (SHI) as a vehicle and a driving mechanism to ensure that there is effective implementation of social housing. It highlighted that by 2003 there was roughly

about 60 SHI in South Africa which were mostly dependent on limited funding from international sources and thus compromised the effectiveness of the institutions (DoH, 2003).

Most South African cities centres in the late 1990s were dilapidated; inner city regenerations programmes were a positive sign and an opportunity to review the land uses of various properties. Regeneration programmes allowed for building alterations and for change of land use in various properties. Urban regeneration programmes were catalytic as they enable renovation of city nodal points. The advantage placed by already existing infrastructure meant less expenditure on infrastructure as opposed to Greenfield housing subsidy programmes.

4.2.2 The second decade of democracy (2004-2017): Breaking new Ground and National Development Plan.

The second decade of democracy (has additional 4 years in to cover the extra years till 2017) saw a shift in housing policy with introduction of Breaking New Ground (BNG) in 2004. BNG became a transition policy, in which the government gave a policy directive that subsidized housing delivery cannot be done same way and have to a tool to alter human settlements (Tissington, 2013). It was brought to supplement the existing housing policies and programmes. It focused on effecting change on the process of housing delivery by placing emphasis beyond housing delivery and looking at the long-term housing sustainability. It acknowledged the challenges of accessing well located land resulting in further development on land outside of urban areas (Tissington, 2011). It called for "the transfer of land, owned by state and parastatal institutions, to municipalities at no costs, a new strategy to acquire privately-owned land, and a new funding mechanism to finance land acquisition" (Ehelbrecht, 2014, 75).

BNG was designed as demand driven policy, it gave local government an opportunity to take a leading role in the delivery of housing and allowing municipalities to determine the "location and nature of housing to link the demand for and supply of housing" (Tissington, 2011). BNG policy advocated for housing accreditation and a stronger role for local government in order to house housing delivery function. The Policy also further advocated for inner city regeneration and creation of affordable inner-city housing, primarily rental housing and creation of non-racial and integrated society (Tissington, 2011).

Subsequent to BNG policy, there was introduction of Inclusionary Housing Policy (IHP) in 2007. IHP was a Social Contract for Rapid Housing Delivery signed by minister of housing and housing industry stakeholders. The policy was a commitment by housing development stakeholders that given the unfair practises of the past and the outcome of racially divided cities of South Africa all developers are committed to building a new future in which all private development will quota their developments to include low income housing (Tissington, 2011). The goal of this policy was to "incentivise or compel the private sector to provide accommodation opportunities for low-income and lower-middle income households (often black households)" (Tissington, 2011, 71).

IHP policy applied the following two mechanisms: Voluntary Pro-Active Deal-Driven (VPADD) component and Town Planning Compliant (TPC) approaches to private housing developments. The two mechanisms encourage win-win situation for all parties. The VPADD is based on individual projects in which 30% will be low-middle income units. In return the government will commit to providing public investment by incentivising developments with bulk services and infrastructure (Tissington, 2011). In TPC approach benefits could be that the development takes place on state land but with increased densities and relaxed building lines but inclusive of low income housing units (Tissington, 2011). In all approaches the local government plays a critical part to create an enabling environment to ensure that private led housing developments play active part in addressing the legacy of apartheid planning.

Despite BNG being very direct and clear about addressing the spatial legacy of apartheid by creating settlements that move away from the practices and philosophies of the past it has not achieved much. It emphasised on principles of the White paper on housing, the only key important aspects which were new is the greater role of local government for housing programmes (Musvoto and Mooya, 2016). The critiques of the policy such as Tissington (2010:42) and Charlton and Kihato (2006:259) argue that the BNG is disappointing in that it lacks clear strategic policy direction and fails to address key weaknesses within the previous policies. BNG intended on integrating the society and placing previously disadvantaged people near the economic opportunity. But clearly this has not been achieved because post-apartheid businesses moved from city centres and abandoned the CBDs and moved to new centres. As a result previously excluded races took over the inner cities. The creation of new centres doesn't create an inclusive city in any form because the city structure remains unchanged and

fragmented (Charlton and Kihato, 2006). This results in weak landscapes and environmental degradation, continuously difficult to access work and services. This also does not make a change as it causes dislocated or missed market opportunities. As a result South Africa's economically active centres are continuously contested spaces as the availability and cost of well-located land for subsidy housing is still a key challenge (Trusler 2009).

The government in 2013 introduced National Development Plan (NDP) as a long term development plan. NDP is considered a blueprint for poverty elimination and reduction of inequality by 2030 (Government of SA, 2018). Its vision 2030 is a roadmap to vision 2050 where South Africa will no longer have poverty traps in rural or township areas. As highlight earlier in chapter 1 the NDP's Chapter eight (8) highlights two (2) key fundamental issues regarding housing in South Africa since 1994 which are as follows (NPC, 2013; 235);

- That RDP goal of using land reform to break down apartheid geographies and create compact cities with viable public transport has not been realised.
- That housing is not an isolated issue, there are other critical areas that need interconnected interventions in order to alter the state of housing in urban areas, the interventions areas include "economic solutions, institutional reforms, changes to land use management systems and infrastructure investment".

Although land is a highly contested issue in South Africa; the ineffectiveness or no concern on land restitution in urban areas exacerbated the apartheid spatial legacy phenomenon and the problem of subsidy housing delivery in remote places (Parliamentary Liaison Office, 2015). The longevity of some of the cases, the myriad and complexity of land ownership in urban areas make land reform almost impossible in urban areas (Parliamentary Liaison Office, 2015). This undermined and rendered governments housing programmes not effective in terms of spatial transformation. As a result, communities in townships or areas around town who could benefit meaningfully from various development programmes do not benefit because subsidy houses continue to be delivered away from opportunities.

One key weakness about NDP despite it being a plan it is identical to previous national policies because it echoes similar commitments of addressing the issue of apartheid spatial legacy. As a plan it at least puts timeframes as opposed to previous policies but does not divert and introduce a new approach or mechanism of dealing with spatial legacy of apartheid but

suspends the solutions to long terms plans. It is a plan void of technical know-how in addressing spatial apartheid legacy which is long overdue in the third decade of South Africa's democracy.

4.3 Spatial reform policy in South Africa Post 1994.

The national response to spatial restructuring was first captured in the 1997 Urban Development Framework (UDF). As a framework it was drafted based on the tenets of RDP and to achieve the objectives of GEAR. The aim of the framework was to create a consistent urban development policy approach in terms of strategies and actions for the country (DoH, 1997). UDF was crafted to envision and give footprint of what cities and towns should be looking like specifically in 20 years period (DoH, 1997). It had two key relevant objectives which were to reverse the previous government's legacy of segregation, fragmentation and inequality (DoH, 1997). And secondly improve the housing and infrastructure, this involved upgrading and construction of housing, restoring and extending infrastructure and designing habitable urban communities (DoH, 1997). After 20 years of the introduction of this framework city restructuring and reversing is minimal, although there is visible integration in some cities with low-middle income housing (Musvoto and Mooya, 2016).

Over the years the structure of the government changed and therefore development planning legislation and policies also changed. Notably the Development Facilitation act of 1995 (DFA) was "first step to a new spatial planning framework" (Du Plessis, 2013; 5); it established development planning commission and development tribunal at provincial level (Berrisford, 2011 in Musvoto and Mooya, 2016). Most subsidy housing developments which were delivered mostly in townships developed under the DFA which is a provincial development planning legislation (Musvoto and Mooya, 2016). It is the first spatial and development planning legislation which emphasised the effort to desist from development practices that expand apartheid spatial geographies.

In 2016 after a couple of years' consultation the government introduced Integrated Urban Development Framework (IUDF). The IUDF echoes same objectives as stated in UDF of 1997. IUDF is meant to direct "the development of inclusive, resilient and liveable urban settlements, while squarely addressing the unique conditions and challenges facing South Africa's cities and towns" (CoGHSTA, 2016; 8). The goal is spatial transformation in cities as intended by NDP, retrofitting the existing city footprints and produce compact and coordinated cities using

transportation and urban planning strategies (CoGHSTA, 2016). Its lever 3 focuses on integrated sustainable human settlements and covers a number of areas which are about housing. The areas are decentralising of housing functions to local government, informal settlements upgrading, inner city regeneration and renewal, multisegmented rental housing (including backyard rentals), and access to basic infrastructure and services in new developments (CoGHSTA, 2016; 64). There are fewer differences between UDF and IUDF, both intended for spatial transformation of South African cities and so far that has materialised less.

In the second decade of democracy there was visible development plans especially attached to 2010 world cup of infrastructure and bulk service provisions in many cities in South Africa. Part of this programme was public transport system which gave rise to substantial transit oriented development that happened along major routes around cities. Although this helped redefine cities it however fell short in that majority of the housing projects were still alienated towards the peripheries of the cities.

4.4 Observations on policy and cities restructuring.

From period of RDP to BNG policy, various spatial frameworks and to currently NDP there has been improvement in policy directive and spatial reform in cities to which much of it can be attributed to the introduction of BNG. The combination of BNG and Inclusionary housing policy gave local government an opportunity to play a critical role in reshaping cities and thus for the first time allowed local government through land use management and spatial development framework comprehensively integrate the prospects of subsidy housing. The policy improvement was realised further with the revision of the national housing code which introduced more housing subsidies or programmes in 2009. The revision allowed local government to be responsive to the housing needs of various groups within the society with different circumstances.

Currently both NDP and IUDF highlight the importance of reversing the spatial legacy through subsidy housing but also indicate other key issues such as how local government can play critical role through the decentralisation of housing functions. Following the NDP there was approval of Spatial Planning and Land Use Management Act (SPLUMA) which empowered the local government to be the custodian of land use management and development. This legislation gave specifically local government power and first priority decision upon any land

development application. This role has been contested previously with the provincial government under the DFA. A possibility of housing decentralisation when considered with SPLUMA can give local governments power to redefine the urban form of most cities in South Africa. SPLUMA as a national policy ushers a new era of development planning in the country with a transformative planning agenda that seek to employ social and spatial drivers for change. As a legislative framework that seeks for spatial justice in both urban and rural areas of South Africa it offers basis for deeper and robust transformative local government by-laws which can assist in the spatial transformation of cities in democratic South Africa.

However, the first experiences of promulgated SPLUMA by-laws in various local municipalities have focused mainly on the development application processes and less on spatial reform for urban and rural areas. This has been limiting to the spatial restructuring agenda which is a priority for the democratic South Africa as encapsulated by the NDP. The restriction projected by legislative framework that is not highlighting the importance of spatial reform and urban spatial restructuring plays a role in exacerbating the spatial legacy of apartheid planning in South African cities. Legislation has historical been used openly by the apartheid government to achieve the spatial and social disintegration of many cities in South Africa. The reversal of spatial fragmentation of South Africans cities will be feasible with clear and binding spatial reform legislative framework. At the current pace of legislative transformation at all levels of government, it can be argued spatial restructuring sand transformation will be less.

Studying the housing policies, acts, spatial frameworks and plans it can be argued that there has been strides in housing and development process in the country. What seem to lack is that there is clear void in terms of consistent spatial policy to deal with apartheid spatial urban form at local government level. The spatial frameworks that existed have been at national and provincial level. In this case the UDF in 1997 and IUDF in 2016 at national, and at provincial level the policies such as Limpopo spatial rationale. There is lack of consistent and enforceable spatial policy at local government level to address the apartheid urban form. The existing spatial development frameworks are too generic to deal with something as specific as apartheid urban form.

4.5 Conclusion.

This chapter discussed the key policies that informed subsidy housing and city restructuring policy since democracy, and most importantly assessed their impact on restructuring spatial form and reversing apartheid city form. It highlighted and discussed the period of RDP, BNG, NDP and IUDF. It has shown that despite the various housing policies, plans and frameworks there has been void in local government spatial policy and lack of policy alignment.

The following chapter looks at the City of Polokwane's experience in subsidy housing since 1994 and how it has reshaped the city form over the years since democracy. It seeks to connect the policy discussion in this chapter with housing stock delivered in City of Polokwane. It is a display of how policy has evolved and its effects on spatial changes on the ground and how that has affected the city's old apartheid form over the years.

Chapter 5: City of Polokwane's Subsidy housing since 1994.

5.1 Introduction.

Polokwane Local municipality is predominantly rural; by 1994 70% of its population resided in rural areas and currently at least 63% of its population reside in rural areas (SACities, 2017). As a city, Polokwane has been desegregating at a faster rate compared to other cities in South Africa after 1994 (SACities, 2017). The suburban areas around the city have been "more accessible to low-income blacks and foreign migrants; a transition which did not present any signs of conflict" (SACities, 2017; 23). However, these are mostly private residential areas located far from most subsidized housing settlements. Following the democratic transition in 1994 and integration of 2000 of the Seshego Council and Pietersburg Council into Polokwane local Municipality there has been a large number of subsidized housing delivered in the municipality at large.

This chapter aims to discuss subsidized housing in the City of Polokwane specifically focusing within the urban edge and how that affected the apartheid structure the city had. It first gives a preview of housing within Limpopo, then focus on the City's spatial and development goals through the analysis of strategic documents. It then covers the details of townships established or extensions over time through subsidized housing, by splitting the past 23 years of democracy into two periods between 1994 – 2003, and 2004-2017, and the lastly the conclusion.

5.2 Subsidy housing and spatial rationale: Limpopo Province and City of Polokwane since 1994.

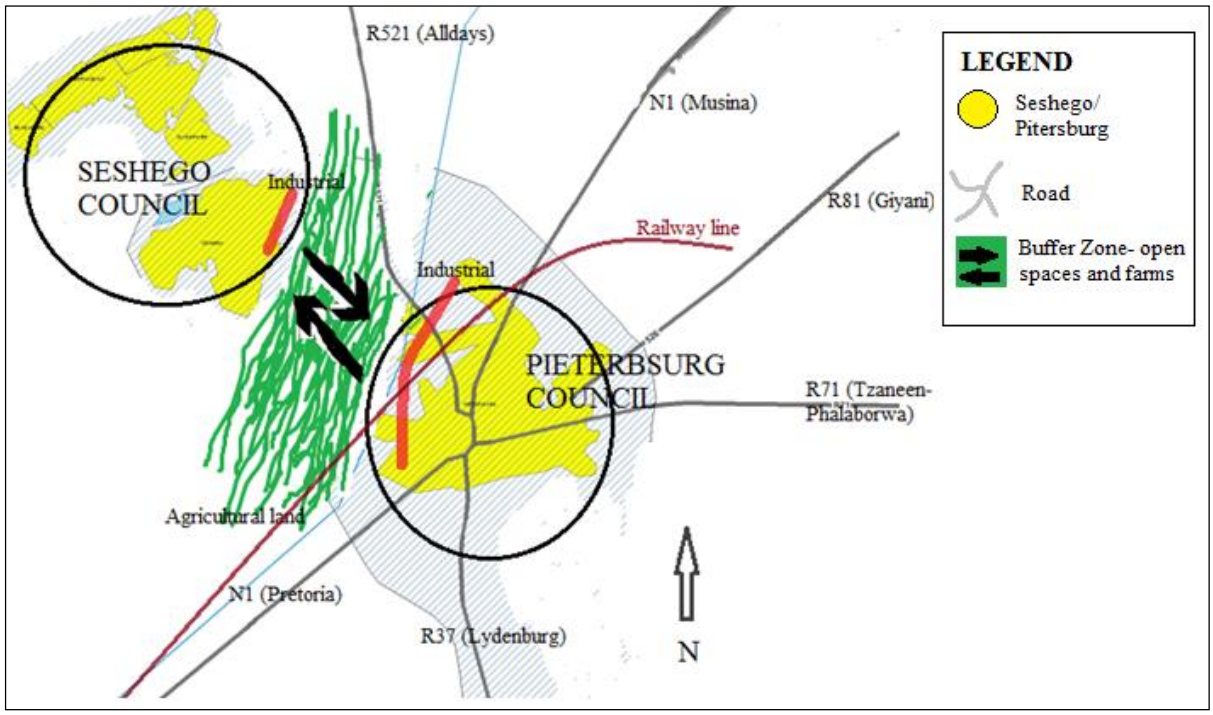
Limpopo province's large population still reside in rural areas, in 2007 90% of Limpopo's populations resided in rural (Kriger, 2007). This makes the province a unique case in that most of the housing needs would be expected to be largely in rural areas which is different compared to other provinces such as Gauteng and Western Cape. Limpopo CoGHSTA indicated in 2011 that demand for housing was 155 375; by that time roughly 56 946 households lived in informal settlements in the province (Parliamentary Monitoring Group, 2016). Majority of the informal settlements are located in what is referred to as "Special Economic Zones and economically viable towns" (Parliamentary Monitoring Group, 2016). These are the towns such as Steelpoort-Burgersfort, Makhado- Musina, Polokwane and others. As of 2011 the number of households qualifying for subsidy housing had increased by 192% since 1996.

Annexure C shows Sites and Subsidy housing delivered since 1994 in Limpopo Province (Source: Limpopo COGHSTA, 2017). It shows the amount of sites earmarked and subsidized housing delivered per year since democracy in Limpopo Province. Although the table has missing information it gives an understanding of how the Limpopo Human Settlement Development Grant has performed in terms of subsidized housing since democracy. The total amount of subsidy housing units and sites delivered in Polokwane local Municipality is 44305 (Limpopo COGHSTA, 2017). But for the study area the total subsidy housing units and sites delivered is 37796; this is 19308 housing units and 18488 sites. The remainder of the housing units delivered is located in other townships and villages. They are in total 6509, it is made up of 4237 sites and 2272 housing units (Limpopo COGHSTA, 2017). This means Polokwane local municipality is a recipient of about 15% of all subsidy housing in Limpopo province since democracy with a population of 628,999 and 63% of that still reside in rural areas. It is thus expected that most of the subsidy housing delivered has to be largely rural subsidies, which are implemented on communal lands where there are informal land rights. The rural subsidy scheme is normally applicable to households located on state owned land under the custodianship of a Chief or an Induna (KZNDHS, 2017).

The evidence shown by Annexure C puts the province as a recipient of at least 10% of all the subsidy housing delivered since 1994 in South Africa with a population of 5.8 million people in 2016 (StatsSA, 2016). Annexure C indicates that a total of 313801 sites and subsidy housing units have been delivered since 1994 in Limpopo province (Limpopo COGHSTA, 2017). This figure shows that the province has been a fair recipient of the post-apartheid redistribution of housing to people. Stats SA (2016) indicates the province has "the highest proportion of households living in formal dwellings (88.9% or 1.4 million) and the lowest number of informal dwellings (4.8% or 77 371) in the country". It further stated roughly 5. 1% (81 747) of households stay in what is considered traditional dwellings. The province also has highest proportion of "owned and fully paid-off" homes in South Africa at 65.4%, with about 7.5% of households owing the houses but paying off the bond. At least 11.4% stay rent free in properties that do not belong to them and about 9.8% rent their homes (StatsSA, 2016).

Post the local government restructuring which saw amalgamation of various councils into single municipalities, the provincial Limpopo government introduced Limpopo Spatial Rationale which became a key spatial and economic policy. The policy was designed to influence the strategic development policy in Limpopo province post the 2000's official

amalgamation of the various separate councils. The policy established specific norms and standards on hierarchy of settlements within municipal boundaries. A number of areas were identified for development and investment through this policy as provincial, district and municipal growth points (PLK, 2007). Within the Polokwane local municipality areas such as Seshego and Polokwane town were identified as the provincial growth points (PLK, 2007). The provincial rationale set in motion the first integration efforts of the two former separate councils, i.e. Seshego Council and Pietersburg Council which existed separately priori to 1994. The following graphic map represents the spatial separation of the two councils.



Map 5.1- Schematic view of Polokwane prior 1994

(Map generated by Author, 2017, portions Sourced from PLK SDF, 2010).

Map 5.1 above shows the two different municipal councils before 1994 which operated separately. Seshego Council was a black administration which means most of the development took place under the apartheid Bantustan regulations while Pietersburg functioned fully as a city with exclusive legislation and development process applicable to white areas. Like all the apartheid cities there were natural and man-made buffer zones between the two areas. In between the then Pietersburg and Seshego there were farms (highlighted in green on map 5.1) that enforced the separation of the two areas and a couple of valleys and ditches. In addition to this, the city lined up land uses such as industrial (highlighted in red) at the edges, railway lines to spatially and physically separate the two areas as demonstrated by Map 5.1.

5.3. Challenges of subsidy housing in the City of Polokwane.

Polokwane local municipality's SDF of 2010 indicated in general that Polokwane has the following challenges regarding housing (PLK, 2010):

- Uneconomical utilization of land resulting from 450m² individual erven with 40m² residential units on these resulting in excessive urban sprawl. The municipality needs to enforce and implement the density policy which will create subsidy housing which is 2 and 3 storey walk-ups to increase the residential yield on developable land.

- Land ownership in traditional authority areas like Mankweng is a problem. Within state owned land the challenge has been the allocation of state land for development or expansion of settlements without involvement of the municipality. Given the nature and role of traditional Authorities the matter requires urgent attention from the Department of Local Government and Housing to intervene.
- Growing informal settlements, land invasion, and households with informal dwellings/backyard shacks. Informal housing units within Polokwane local municipality was around ± 6959 in 2010, that has likely increased to a much higher figure due to urbanisation.
- Unoccupied or missing beneficiaries for subsidy housing and illegal occupation of completed low-cost houses. Despite success in delivery of subsidy housing, there is constant threat of illegal occupancy or failure to locate the beneficiary. The waiting list for subsidized housing by 2010 was 30500 applicants of which 22 693 were within the Seshego and City area.
- Polokwane Housing Association was established to efficiently operate the limited Social housing/Rental housing stock in the city. However, it cannot efficiently collect the rent due to various other factors, as a result it affects the rate at which the rental subsidy is produced within the city.
- Scarcity of land for low-income housing development. This is land ownership in the city by the municipality. This aspect is discussed in detail in the following section.

The above factors have played role in determining the success or obstacles of subsidy housing projects; there are a number of projects that were blocked and are displayed in Annexure D in the appendices section. Annexure D shows the detailed figures in terms of abandoned housing projects in various areas within the Polokwane local municipality. These areas are townships

or villages with higher concentration of population. In addition to the above listed challenges the City of Polokwane's bulk infrastructure needs replacement. The infrastructure backlog has enforced the municipality to be slow in approving a number of development proposals whether they are private or public housing townships (SACities Network, 2013). The lack of assurance for bulk service provision and other support systems has limited the city's prospects of growth as bulk is a big determining factor (SACities Network, 2013).

5.3.1 Scarcity of land for low-income housing- Land ownership within the urban edge of the city of Polokwane.

Land ownership in cities is a complex and very influential factor in how cities develop and grow. "Land and its improvements represent the most durable economic assets in an economy" (Turnbull and Papageorgiou, 2005; 273). There are packs of benefits in having private and public ownership of land. Private ownership offers the relevant state organs ability source of local government finance and a revenue base (Youngman, 1996). State ownership of land enables representation of the poor whose voice might not normally be heard and allows for better representation of the public interests and a better control of how land as a resource is utilized. A better and more functional private and public balance in terms of land ownership is preferable as it enables for a consultative process. The IDP of 2012 (PLK IDP, 2012) indicated that the municipality owns large number of properties. However, it has been a challenge to dispose of some of the properties for subsidy housing, the least the municipality has done is to issue long term leases to private entities.

The city's property ownership is demonstrated by Annexure E which shows the ownership details and locations. Annexure E (Sourced from PLK GIS, 2017) shows that large tracts of land within the urban edge are mainly privately and municipal owned. There is no exact number in terms of percentage regarding land ownership because there has not been a land audit or study for that purpose. There are other land owners such as national government especially within Seshego, closer to the airport and north of Seshego. Interestingly other land owners are state owned entities (SOEs) such as Passenger rail agency of South Africa (PRASA), Eskom, Telkom and others within the urban edge. It is hard to determine what happens on land owned by SOEs, but some are properties located closer to railways or industrial properties. Some of the SOE's owned properties are open farm lands like the one located to the South of

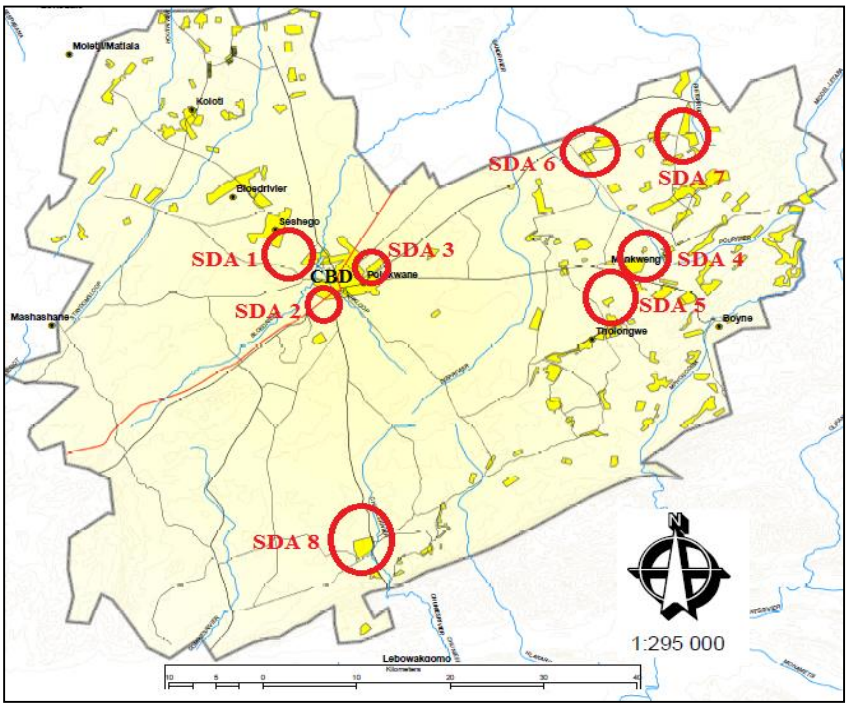
the City. The Municipality owns large portions of land but they largely are located outside the City which cannot contribute positively to city restructuring. Failure to exercise land disposal for the purposes of subsidy housing by the municipality has limited its ability to play critical part in spatial restructuring of the city.

5.3.2 Strategic Development Area concept.

After the year 2000 and the successful amalgamation of various councils in to Polokwane local municipality. The municipality earmarked areas around and within the city of Polokwane as "Strategic Development Areas". The idea of Strategic Developments areas was first put in place in late 1990s, primarily to reverse the spatial and economic effects of the apartheid planning. The initial plans were captured as early as 2000 through strategic plans such as "Framework Plan for the areas between Pietersburg and Seshego: Strategic Development Area 1 (SDA 1)" (Davel Consulting, 2007; 19).

The strategic development areas identified are eight (8), and were as follows; (PLK, 2017);

- SDA 1-Seshego-Polokwane area
- SDA 2- Ivydale AH
- SDA 3- East suburbs
- SDA 4- Mankweng/Badimong
- SDA 5- Mankweng South West and Laastehoop
- SDA 6- Sebayeng
- SDA 7- East of Sebayeng/ Dikgale
- SDA 8- Southern part of the municipality/ Chuene.

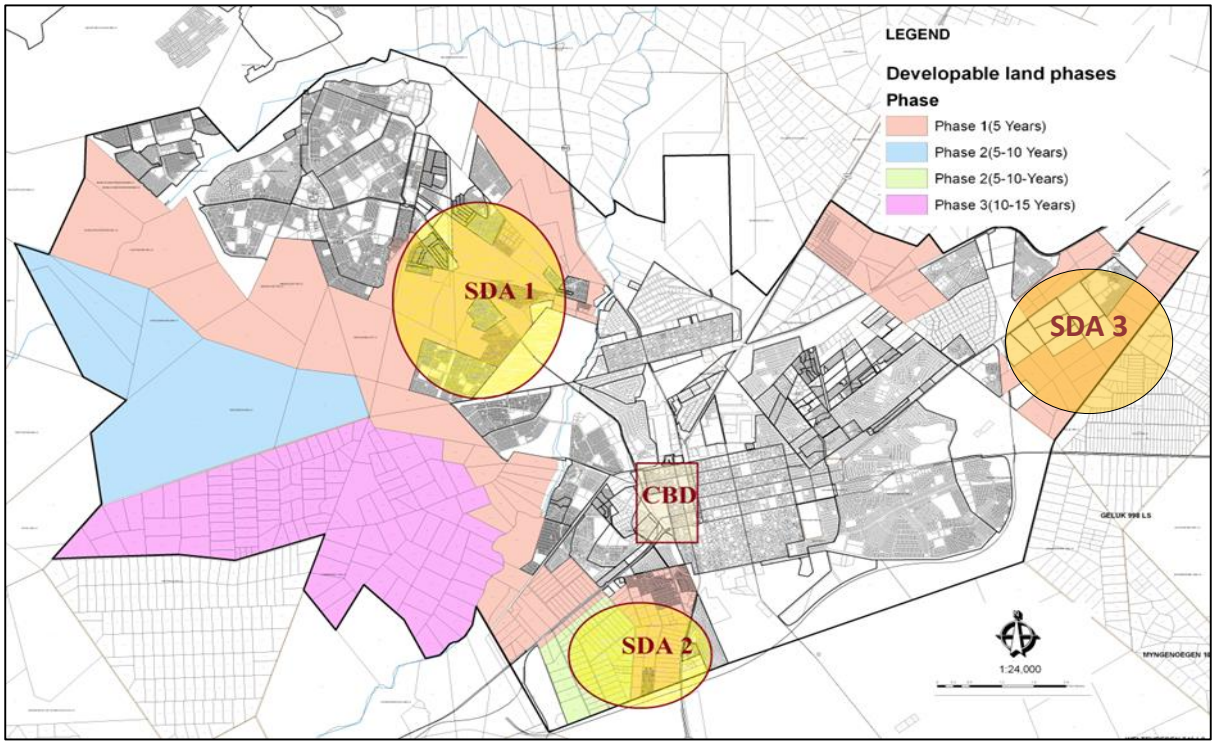


Map 5.2 Locational map of Strategic Development Areas with Polokwane local municipality

(Sourced from PLK, 2010; edited by Author 2017).

Within the urban edge there are SDA 1-Seshego-Polokwane area, SDA 2- Ivydale AH and SDA 3- East suburbs. SDA 1 is the identified land gap between Polokwane town and Seshego, while SDA 2 is mainly privately owned land (agricultural holdings) which is mostly used private residential complexes located in south of Polokwane east and SDA 3 is the east suburb located towards Mall of the North/Bendor (located in the North) and is predominantly privately owned land. As part of its development planning objectives Polokwane local municipality identified SDA 1 as critical for housing and creating linkages between the two areas. SDA 1 became targeted area for higher concentration of subsidized housing. The municipality showed commitment to develop SDA 1 but did not commit the same with other SDAs located within the urban edge of the city (PLK, 2010). Government led subsidy housing projects especially uncredited subsidy housing schemes were developed in the area within SDA 1 or as part of extensions of Seshego. Over the years, SDA 1's development process displays progress, the area boasts of both of privately funded residential developments and government funded subsidy houses in various township extensions of Seshego and Polokwane. There are notable areas such as Madiba Park and Jewel of Africa which have been privately developed and are bonded houses. The main focus for SDA1 was residential development (low- medium income housing / institutional and government finance investment) and it has achieved it (PLK, 2010).

SDA 1 was earmarked to assist in addressing the housing backlog of 22 000 residential units and has capacity to provide at least 28 000 residential units (PLK, 2010).



Map 5.3 Developable land in phases within the Polokwane Urban edge

(Sourced from PLK, 2010; edited by Author 2017).

Map 5.3 above shows the developable land within the city's urban edge. It shows that SDA 1, SDA 2 and SDA 3 were earmarked for development as part of phase 1 which is the first 5 years. But the subsidy housing which is clearly indicated for SDA 1 is not consistently applied to other SDAs within the urban edge. The lack of consistency in commitment to ensure spatial integration through subsidy housing in SDA 2 and SDA 3 as compared to SDA 1 displays lack of political will to ensure spatial integration happens throughout the city. SDA 2 and SDA 3 provides an opportunity for high density residential development which the municipality and COGHSTA as competent authority for housing should have earmarked for different types of subsidy schemes for these areas as part on spatial integration programme through subsidy housing that yields higher units. Spatial integration happens in various forms and with subsidy housing the government has opportunity to introduce different schemes with increased densities ideal for areas that have comprehensive private developments and increased prices of land. Polokwane local municipality by intensely ensuring SDA1 is strongly developed with subsidy housing but the same lacks in other SDAs within the city's urban edge has on strategic

level created a class based society with higher income earners separated from low income earners. This cannot be condoned from policy perspective and should be revised.

5.3.3 Local government housing delivery accreditation and assignment.

The Social Housing Act 16 of 2008 "defines the functions of the national, provincial and local spheres of government in respect of social housing" (South Africa yearbook 2012/2013, 341). The act established the Social Housing Regulatory Authority (SHRA) to oversee, regulate and give statutory recognition to social housing institutions. It works in conjunction with the Department of Human settlements in governance and regulation roles, enforcing social housing policy. Over many years social housing institutions received public funding from government, partially one of the roles of SHRA is to assist the Department of Human settlements in holding the institutions accountable (South Africa yearbook 2012/2013). The act lays out the expectations of all the spheres of government stating that national government's role is to provide the "legislative, regulatory, financial and policy frameworks that will enable the sector to grow further" while provincial role is to " approve, allocate and administer capital grants…as well as administer the Social Housing Programme", and the local government's role is to enable "access to land, municipal infrastructure and services for approved projects in designated restructuring zones" (South Africa yearbook 2012/2013; 341).

Legislatively the function of housing lies with the national and provincial government, it is through the provincial government that the municipality can be accredited certain roles or assigned housing function. Municipalities roles is mostly limited ensuring they "set aside, plan, and manage land for community developments in line with the housing priorities identified in their integrated development plans (IDPs)" (Treasury, 2002, 68). Municipal housing accreditation and assignment is enshrined in the constitution in section 156(4) that states " the national government and provincial governments must assign to a municipality, by agreement and subject to any conditions, the administration of a matter listed in Part A of Schedule 4 or Part A of Schedule 5 which necessarily relates to local government, if (a) that matter would most effectively be administered locally; and (b) the municipality has the capacity to administer it" (DoHS, 2012, 6). This provision is emphasised further in other legislations, Housing Act and the 2006 Division of Revenue Act that highlight for provincial housing departments can possibly accredit municipalities.

Municipal housing accreditation is defined as a process by which provincial MEC of human settlements in the province indicate that a municipality has met certain criteria and standards to carry housing delivery but " requires additional support and capacity prior to assuming full responsibilities for the administration of national housing programmes", (DoHS, 2012; 7). The accreditation allows the municipality to carry out certain functions whilst further capacity is being developed but the financial accountability for these functions is still at the province. It is stated "Accreditation in itself does not transfer legal and financial accountability for functions from one sphere of government to another. Legally, accountability for functions can only be transferred from one sphere of government to another through assignment" (DoHS, 2012; 8). The process of formal transfer of functions of administering national housing programmes happens through "assignment" which is a constitutional and legal framework requirement. It is a process by which there is a formal shift "of planning, financial and legal accountability from the assigning to the receiving authority". The full assumption of functions includes among others "the right to directly receive the funds and the assets necessary to perform the function" " (DoHS, 2012; 8). Therefore accreditation is a "progressive process of capacitation, evaluated against pre-agreed criteria, leading to eventual assignment of all the functions related to the administration of national housing programmes" (DoHS, 2012; 8).

The Municipal Accreditation Framework of 2012 indicates that there are two levels of accreditation for municipalities namely, level 1 and 2. Accreditation for level 1 responsibilities amongst other includes the following;

- Subsidy budget planning and allocation; housing subsidy budgetary *planning* functions across national housing programmes and projects and subsidy/fund allocations.
- Priority identification and administration; project identification functions, priority programme management & administration manage beneficiaries and manage stock.

Accreditation for level 2 carries the above responsibilities but more focus is on programme and project evaluation and approvals; contract administration; subsidy registration; programme management including cash flow projection and management and technical (construction) quality assurance functions. In level 2, there is more emphasis in focusing on the furthering and improving capacity (DoHS, 2012). Polokwane local municipality is a level 1 accredited municipality, as demonstrated above it is limited in terms of role the municipality plays as compared to level 2. However, the municipality filed application to MEC for Level 2 accreditation and outcome is pending, level 2 accreditation gives the municipality "power to approve and manage housing construction programmes and ensure technical quality assurance"

(Local government Action, 2017). Post the level 2 accreditation the municipality or MEC of human settlements in the province can initiate the application process for the municipal assignment for housing" (DoHS, 2012). Upon formalisation of the municipal assignment for housing the "Executive Assignment agreement must be entered into between the relevant MEC responsible for Human Settlements and municipality" (DoHS, 2012, 31). The municipal assignment for housing is a critical phase for Polokwane local municipality because it gives the local government an opportunity to receive budget from treasury but most importantly it's a total control of how subsidy housing influence and dictate how the city grows. The role of other state departments and entities is on advisory level which allows the municipality to independently enforce the spatial restructuring programmes in the city.

The following section focuses the spatial growth of the city through subsidy housing, showing in detail the names townships and location of the subsidized housing within the urban edge of the city.

5.4 City of Polokwane's subsidized housing programme from 1994-2004 and 2005-2017.

This section is divided into two, in order to enable tracing the housing subsidies implemented since 1994 to 2017. The purpose for splitting into two is mainly to trace impact of the policy transition and manifestation from RDP (1994 -2004) to BNG (2005 -2017) to date. This section covers details relating to subsidy housing sites and units delivered, their location and names of township established or extensions created as a result. The first section covers the housing subsidies delivered in the first period which starts from 1994 - 2004 and the second section will cover the housing subsidies delivered 2005 to 2017. The details are covered through tables indicating various aspects such as names of the townships or settlements, proclamation status of the townships, number of sites allocated, number of units allocated already, number of title deeds issued and number of title deed remaining. The second part is the mapping of the same townships within urban edges of the city, demonstrating the urban morphology that the housing programmes have brought to the City form.

The tables in both periods of 1994-2004 and 2005-2017 display inconsistency in terms of number of sites allocated vs. number of units, title deeds issues vs. allocated units. There are outstanding units in some cases, unissued title deeds etc. There are various reasons for status

as reflected on the tables, based on the report the following circumstance normally could be the situation for some of the figures visible in Table 4.1 and 4.2 (City of Polokwane, 2017):

- Flood lines, some of the units were earmarked to be built on land that was later determined to be on flood lines. For instance in Polokwane Ext.40 Erf 13545 about 107 units was relocated to be built in Mankweng which is located east of town.
- Geotech, some units could not be built primary because of the rock formation on the surface. For instance in Polokwane Ext.76, about 3 units were never built because of this.
- Title deeds, there are certainly few titled deeds issued to beneficiaries. It could be any of the following reasons (City of Polokwane, 2017):
- Deeds of donation are yet to be finalised with relevant Department or State owned entity.
- Some of the units are rental, e.g. Annadale, Garena etc.
- Conveyancers' unable to issue the title deeds to beneficiaries because some are working in other provinces, and in some cases beneficiaries are untraceable.
- Subdivision not yet registered. e.g. Seshego Zone D Ext. Bikopark.
- Projects are blocked, sometime incomplete.
- Verification of beneficiaries not yet done or done but appointment of conveyance pending, e.g. Seshego Zone C Ext. Mokaba Park and Molepo Park.

5.4.1 First decade of democracy's subsidized housing (1994-2004).

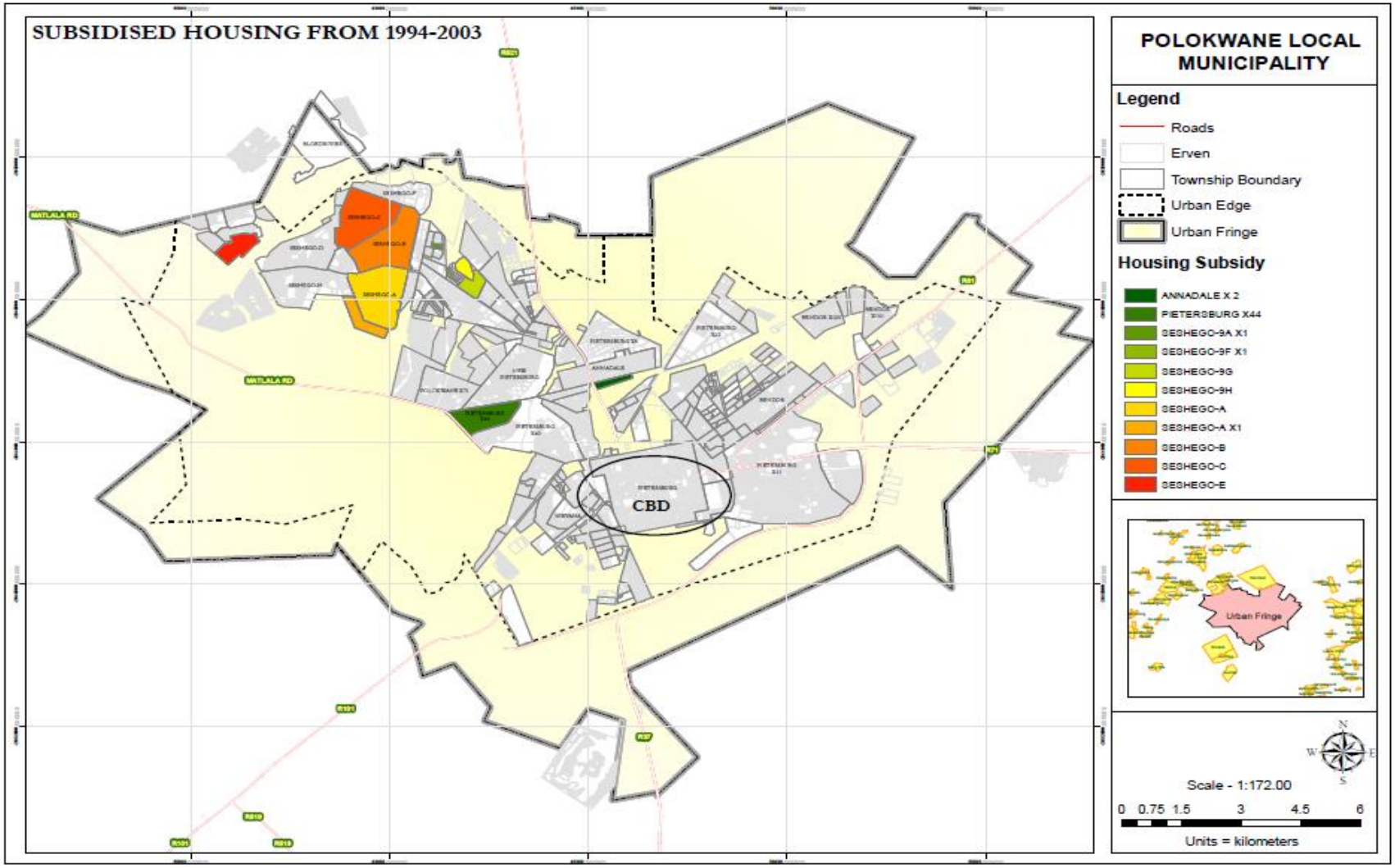
The following tables shows the details of the housing programmes which were delivered from 1994 to 2004 which resulted in a number of townships established, some as extension of existing once while others as new townships. There is a total number of 18 townships established and are listed with names in the area section of the table below. Looking at this it can be seen that both after the integration of the two councils (Seshego Council and Pietersburg Council) into Polokwane local municipality there was much effort to cater for the growing housing needs in the urban area of the municipality.

Table 5.1: Subsidized housing details (1994-2004), around Seshego and Polokwane.

AREA	PROCLAMATION STATUS	NUMBER OF SITES	NUMBER OF UNITS ALLOCATED	NUMBER OF TITLE DEEDS ISSUED	NUMBER REMAINING
Polokwane, Westenburg Ext.3	Proclaimed	973	968	958	10
Polokwane Ext.44	Proclaimed	1768	1500	1400	100
Seshego Zone A Ext.1	Proclaimed	746	738	575	163
Seshego Zone E Ext	Proclaimed	2627	816 (Approved on HSS)	579	237
Seshego Zone H Ext.1479/00	Registered in PLK municipality ‘s name	24	21	0	21
Seshego Zone 6A (8148)	Registered in PLK municipality ‘s name	273	240	0	240
Seshego Zone 6B (8147	Registered in PLK municipality ‘s name	97	54	0	54
Seshego Zone B Ext.(Lepakeng) Erf:8188	Proclaimed	130	93	0	93
Seshego Zone A Ext. (Mphonegele) Erf 9060/00	Proclaimed	16	12	0	12
Seshego Zone D Ext.(Biko Park)	PTN 0-33 registered in Polokwane municipality although PTN 1 is a private property erf 1400 privately owned 1788 not registered.	420	165	0	165
Seshego Zone C Ext. (MOKABAPARK)	Proclaimed	86 Portion 2091	73	0	73
Seshego Zone C Ext. (MolepoPark)	Proclaimed	41	29	0	29
Seshego Zone C Ext. (Samuel Thema)	Proclaimed	Portion 2092- 15 Portion 2090- 122	11 90	0 0	11 90
Seshego Luthuli 9A	Proclaimed	526	517	511	6
Seshego Luthuli 9F	Proclaimed	243	240	228	11
Seshego Luthuli 9G	Proclaimed	407	300 + 2 Donation	290	12
Seshego Luthuli 9H	Proclaimed	215	212	194	19
Annadale X2 (Ladanna)	Proclaimed	18	18	18	0
TOTAL		8747	6099	4753	1009

Sourced from Polokwane Local Municipality, (2017).

Table 5.1 indicates in the first ten years there was a total of 8747 sites earmarked for subsidized housing and only 6099 were allocated to beneficiaries with only 4753 title deeds issued and 1009 title deeds remaining. How then has this impacted on the urban morphology of the City of Polokwane? The following map plugs in all these areas within the urban edge to demonstrate the transition spatially.



Map 5.4 Location of subsidized housing in the first decade of democracy in City of Polokwane

(Source: Author, 2017).

Map 5.4 shows that the first decade proclaimed Pietersburg X44 in the middle of Seshego and CBD of Polokwane. However it is notable that large townships were proclaimed extending Seshego away from town which shows that it was likely the original growth plan of the apartheid councils which were never reviewed but carried out during first few years of democracy. This is a demonstration that there was no change in terms of development plans, in the first four years there was Transitional local councils (TLC) in place and much of development plans carried out in that period before the year 2000 were planned during apartheid. Therefore the transition to democracy did not mean development plans of various local governments had to be reviewed. The above map is a demonstration that political transition didn't manifest in to other aspects such as developmental issues.

5.4.2 Second decade of subsidized housing (2005 – 2017).

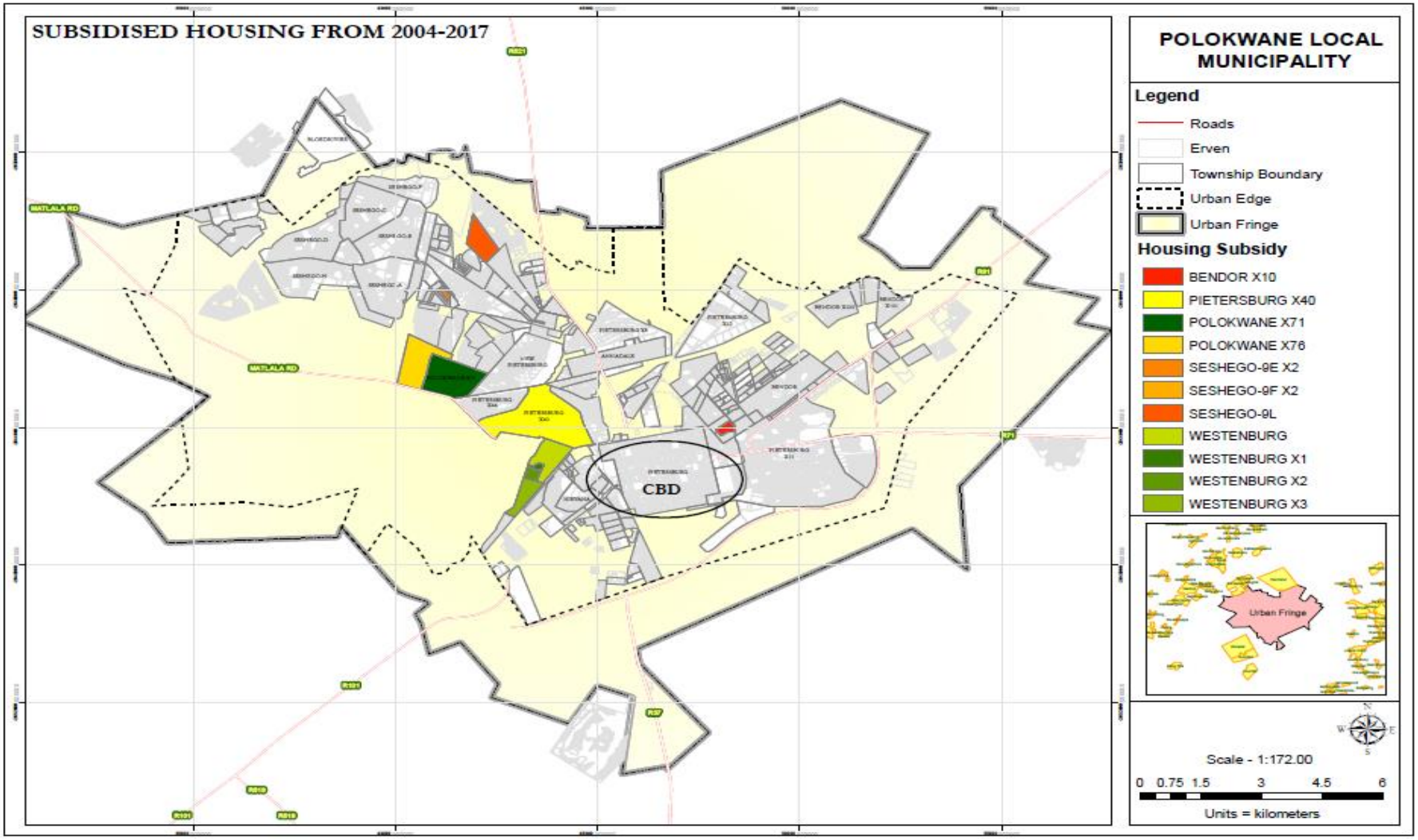
Table 5.2 Subsidized housing 2005 to 2017.

AREA	PROCLAMATION STATUS	NUMBER OF SITES	NUMBER OF UNITS ALLOCATED	NUMBER OF TITLE DEEDS ISSUED	NUMBER REMAINING
Seshego Ext. 2- Hospital View	Not Proclaimed	511	477	0	477
Polokwane Ext.40 Erf 13545	Proclaimed	698	500 (393 built)	0	393
Polokwane Ext. 71	Proclaimed	1539	1150(1109 built)	1061	48
Polokwane Ext. 73	Proclaimed	797	569	469	100
Polokwane Ext. 75	Proclaimed	500	500 (492 built)	463	29
Polokwane Ext.76	Proclaimed	1345	1330 (1327 built)	1213	114
Seshego Ext 106- Student Accommodations	-		5500	0	0
Polokwane Ext .78- Disteneng	-	3000	1719	0	-
Seshego Luthuli 9L	Proclaimed	1087	1032	959	73
Polokwane. Westenburg	Proclaimed	263	263	197	66
Polokwane- Bendor Ext.100	Proclaimed	1	169 of 669 for low income currently being build.	-	-
TOTAL		**9741**	**13209**	**4362**	**1300**

Sourced from PKL (2017)

This shows an increase in terms of units' allocated overhaul but a drop in terms of townships established (Polokwane Local Municipality, 2017).

Table 5.2 indicated that there has been an increase in almost all aspects in terms of subsidized housing provision in the second decade as compared to the first decade of democracy. The increase in terms of units allocated is a demonstration of the City of Polokwane's commitment to addressing homelessness in the city. Spatially in the second decade 2004-2017 there has been less amount of townships established with only eleven formally established, it has affected the urban structure as demonstrated by the following map.



Map 5.5 Location of subsidized housing in the second decade in City of Polokwane

(Source: Author, 2017)

Map 5.5 shows establishment and proclamation of townships that are mostly extensions of Polokwane the city. The township as also seen on the table are few, but in terms of size they are larger and as a result they produced many housing units. The city almost doubled the units produced when compared with the first decade.

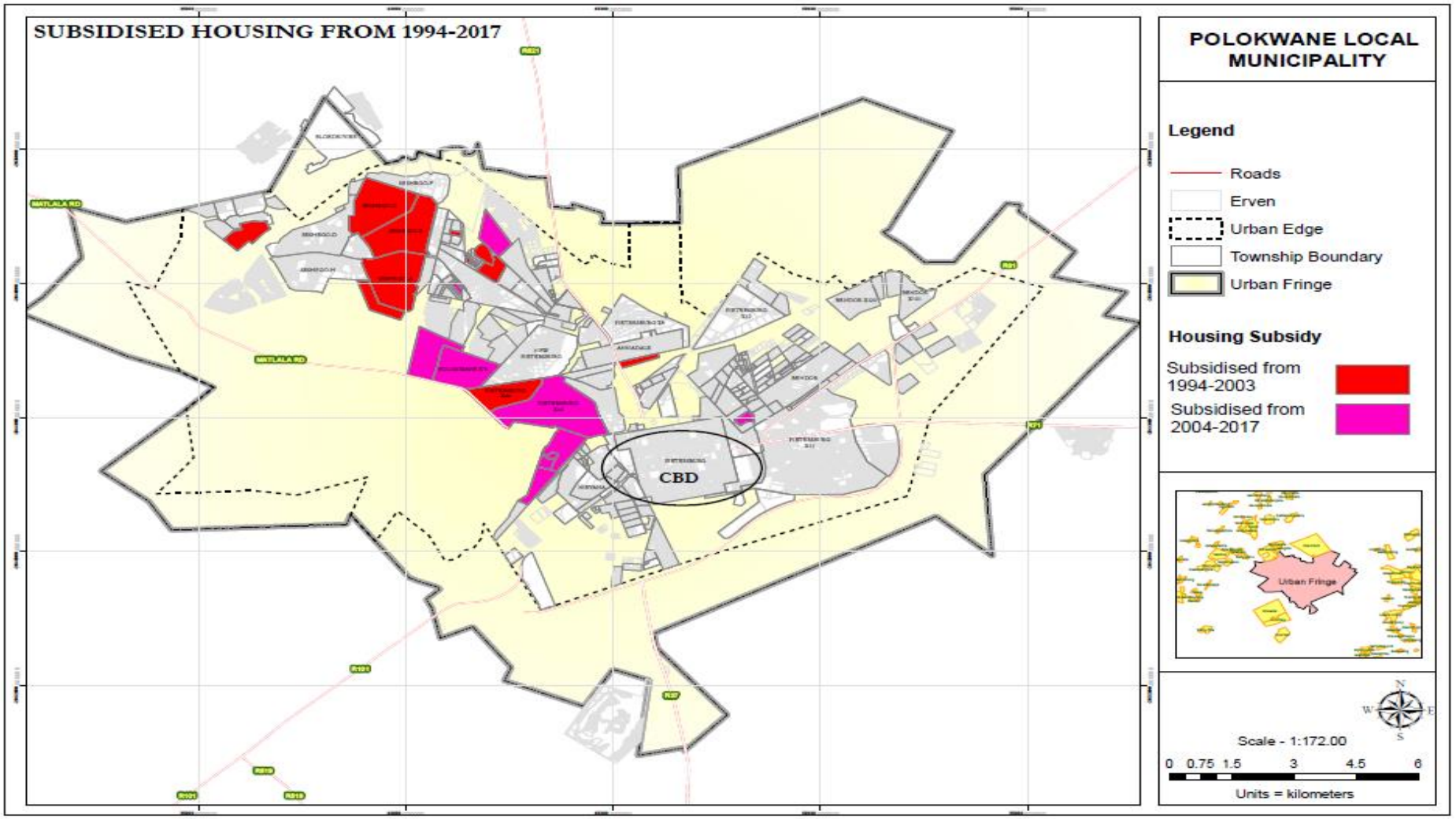
5.4.3 Summary subsidy housing programmes since democracy (1994-2017) within Polokwane City.

Table 5.3 The total volumes of subsidy housing delivered from 1994 to 2017

AREA	NUMBER OF SITES	NUMBER OF UNITS ALLOCATED	NUMBER OF TITLE DEEDS ISSUED	NUMBER REMAINING
Polokwane Urban edge- 1994- 2003	**8747**	**6099**	**4753**	**1009**
Polokwane Urban edge- 2004-2017	**9741**	**13209**	**4362**	**1300**
% increase/(decrease)	11.4%	116.6%	**-8.23%**	**28.4%**
TOTAL	**18488**	**19308**	**9115**	**2309**

(Source: Author, 2017).

An increase of 11.4% in terms of number of sites from 8747 to 9741, an increase of units allocated of 116.6% from 6099 to 13209, but a decrease of -8.23% in terms of number of title deeds issued and lastly an increase in number of outstanding title deeds remaining to 28.4%. These are the verifiable figures of all subsidised housing delivered within the urban edge of the city of Polokwane as it changed over time. Although there has been a number of abandoned township establishment projects which were catering for subsidized housing (PLK SDF, 2010); this shows that Polokwane City is one of the big beneficiaries of government housing effort in Limpopo Province. The map below demonstrates how these volumes have affected and shaped the urban layout of the City since 1994.



Map 5.6. The spatial representation of subsidized housing from 1994- 2017

(Source: Author, 2017).

The above map 5.6 shows the integration of the two periods from 1994 to 2017, covering only subsidy housing. The other townships within the SDA-1 are privately developed, they are bonded housing that the government has been encouraging in order to enforce spatial integration. From the above map it can be argued housing not just subsidy housing has been used to restructure this city.

Polokwane local municipality like all municipalities with large rural communities have implemented few subsidies. The housing projects within the urban edge were mostly what have been described as follows;

- Low-cost housing (Individual- Credit/Non-Credit Linked Subsidy) - these are four roomed houses of what is known typically as RDP housing. These are the predominant subsidized housing in Seshego zone 1, Bikopark, Lepakeng, PLK X(44,71, 73, 75 & 76), Luthuli 9 (G & L) etc.
- Enhanced extended discount benefit scheme (EEDBS)- these are renovated old four roomed houses built by apartheid government. These are located in Westenburg and Seshego mainly.
- Community rental units/Social rental housing- these are old renovated hostels which are refreshed and then leased again to tenants. These are located in Annadale X2 (G arena) and Seshego Old hostel.
- Financially Linked Individual Subsidy Program (FLISP)- Bendor X100, these are high rental apartments complexes that are mixed use areas with various housing categories which some are private. Some of them they have been developed as Capital Restructuring Grant like Polokwane X107.
- Rural housing subsidies. Large numbers of the rural subsidies delivered are mostly in rural communities which are located far from the city like in Sebayeng-B, Mankweng D, F and others.

From the map demonstration it can be safely surmised that Polokwane Local municipality have tried to fuse the subsidy housing within its restructuring efforts of the past apartheid city. This is well represented the by the vast development or establishment of townships within SDA1 and other places such as Westerberg and Bendor. This has taken place despite the fact that the same effort to fuse subsidy housing was not afforded to other priority areas of development in the city, some of these areas experienced only private residential developments.

5.5 Conclusion.

This chapter's presented the subsidy housing development over the years in Polokwane Local municipality. It also gave an in-depth discussion and demonstration about how it has overtime reshaped the city. It can be observed that Polokwane as a city has been largely a beneficiary of the subsidized housing programmes within the province. The interesting observation has been in the first decade where the municipality established and proclaimed 18 townships as compared to the second decade where it established and proclaimed 11. Despite the proclamation of these townships in the first decade they had less number of units as compared to second decade. What can be deduced from this is that the subsidy housing provision experience gained in the first ten years became useful in the second decade. Therefore, has subsidy housing played any role in spatially restructuring the city of Polokwane after 1994? The following chapter answers this question and concludes on the findings of this study.

Chapter 6: Conclusion and Recommendations.

6.1 Introduction.

This chapter presents the summary of the research findings from the analysis provided in chapter one to five. Suggestions and recommendations are made based on the identified major findings. The conclusion drawn here, therefore, is in line with the stated objectives of the study. The objective of this research was to uncover how subsidy housing has been used to restructure cities in democratic South Africa and address urban sprawl and fragmentation which are characteristic of apartheid planning.

The chapter is structured as follows: first section focuses on the research background, second section on summary of research findings, third on conclusion, fourth is on recommendations and last section is on areas of future research.

6.2 Research Background.

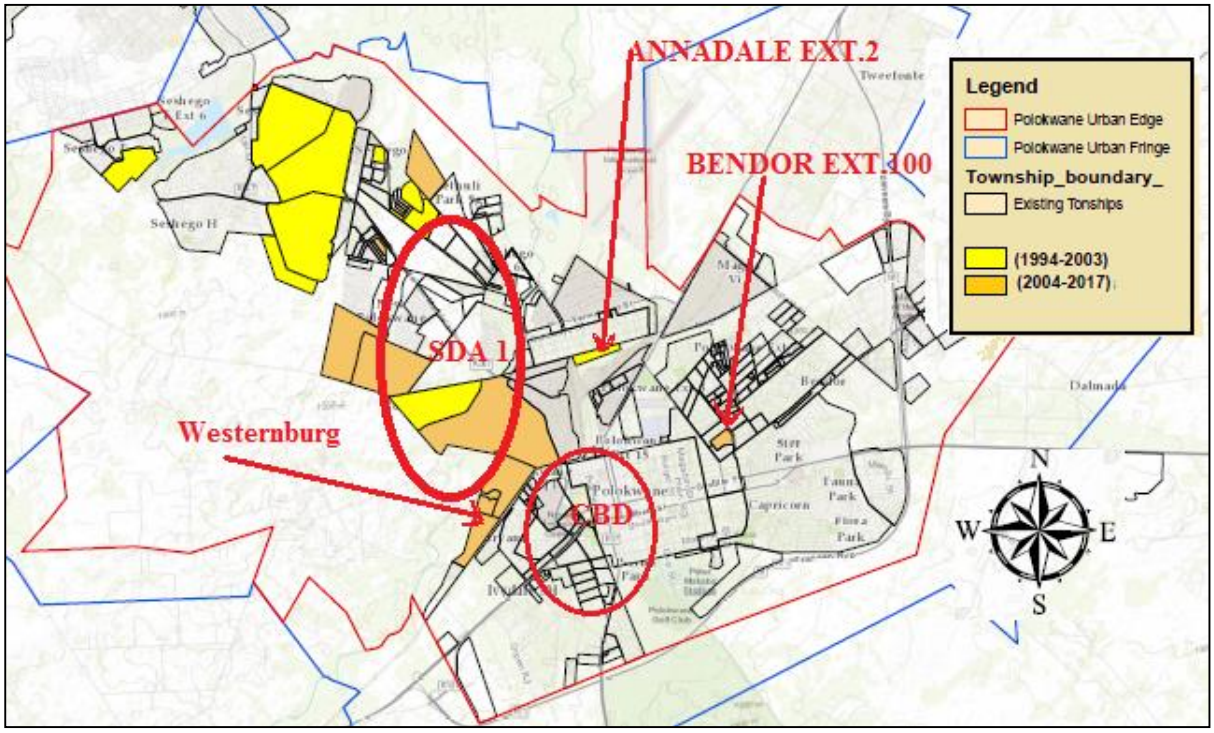
The end of Apartheid in South Africa meant political liberation which is meant to translate into comprehensive and wide material gains for all citizens of South Africa. The gains of this liberation were to materialise in various mechanisms employed to deconstruct the fundamental constructs of apartheid systems. Improvements and changes were earmarked to focus on various issues pertaining to the structuring of the economy, industry and development. These various sectors had all shaped the cities of South Africa and gave it what is popularly known as the "apartheid" city form. The apartheid city form was implemented to achieve and enforce the developmental and economic policy objectives of apartheid South Africa. As a result the new democratic dispensation which aimed to create a South Africa for all embarked on a program to deconstruct the urban form that exists in its cities and persists.

6.3 Summary of research findings.

Polokwane city through its development plans earmarked certain sections around the city as Strategic development areas which would serve as integration zones and development areas for many years. Prior to the housing code in 2009, the policy Breaking New Grounds was adopted in 2004 and gave a policy directive that subsidized housing will be delivered differently and should be used to further address the spatial distortions created by apartheid policy in cities to create integrated cities. In the period of the BNG, the city of Polokwane saw a shift in development direction with various townships being established or approved for the purpose

of integration of both Polokwane City and Seshego through SDA 1. SDA 1 is various portion of old farm which were initially used additionally as buffer zones to further separate the black and white areas. Polokwane City encouraged mixed development at SDA1 which is located between Seshego and Polokwane city. Through SDA 1 the city managed to attract private residential developments while others are government led subsidy housing developments. The city has leveraged on the existing bulk services but further providing bulk services in the area around SDA1 to ensure there is successful integration programmes which were spearheaded by both the private developers and government.

There are about 27 settlements or townships which have been established since 1994 within the urban edge in the city of Polokwane through subsidy housing. Some of the townships were established as extension of old apartheid townships while others were started from scratch after 1994. Although SDA 1 area is symbolic to integration in this study, it is worthy to note that majority of subsidy housing has been delivered in other areas such as extensions of Seshego, Anndale and Westenburg; lately Bendor area through Bendor X100. Within SDA1 there have been about 7 townships established since democracy, four in the first decade of democracy and three in the last decade as indicated in the map below.



Map 6.1 The townships located within town and those established within SDA- 1

(Source- Author, 2018). The map is not scaled.

Map 6.1 shows that old townships of Annadale Ext. 2, Westenburg (All extensions) and Bendor Ext. 100; these townships have been established on subsidized housing and are located in what is considered old boundaries of Polokwane. Most of the beneficiaries were residing in informal settlements, rural areas or backrooms in townships closer to the city. What worked ideally for City of Polokwane as opposed to cities like Johannesburg is that the mining dumps which act as buffer zones between the city of Johannesburg and the former black townships do not exist. The former buffer zones which existed were not hard spaces but natural environment in the form of farms and that worked easily for spatial integration of the two areas.

Polokwane local municipality has implemented five housing subsidy schemes. This is due to the fact that about 63% of the population still reside in the villages around. The municipality implemented the Individual- Credit/Non-Credit Linked Subsidy, Enhanced extended discount benefit scheme (EEDBS), Community rental units/Social rental housing, Financially Linked Individual Subsidy Program (FLISP) and rural housing subsidies. As noted earlier, a portion of the units delivered since 1994 is not accounted for in this study because it has been delivered as part of the rural housing subsidy in other locations within the municipality. The rental subsidy units are also in limited in number and only found in former hostels and some new units located around Seshego and Annadale (Ladanna). FLISP and EEDBS are mostly located in Seshego and one that is still under construction located in Bendor Ext. 100.

Chapter 5 highlighted that there are additional factors which played a role in determining rate at which restructuring takes place in the city of Polokwane. The discussion was important, it sought to bring forth to the reader that there are other additional key issues which have played role in addressing the legacy of apartheid planning. Issues of land ownership and how it affects the rate of change necessary and municipal housing accreditation. These all displayed that subsidy housing is key to a developmental city, but there is a milieu of other factors that need consideration in order to enable subsidy housing in general to reshape and restructure the post-apartheid Polokwane city.

City models which have been discussed earlier in the report have been fundamentals to many city spatial patterns and growth. However, what the case study has shown is that there is drive for smart city concept which evolved over the years. Smart cities encourage integrated development whilst prioritising public transport and smart mobility. The City of Polokwane is orientated towards the smart city concept in order to remain competitive as the capital city of

the province. It has introduced the Bus rapid transit in one of its corridors which is to be extended to other areas. This is an indication that there has been evolution of city modelling and a need to adapt towards smart city concept that encourages smart economy, mobility, energy and other.

6.4 Conclusion.

The international subsidy housing experience in USA and Netherlands have shown that subsidy housing forms part of the spatial formation of the city and is a key component of the total housing stock in the city. The subsidy housing models and funding structure in both respective countries is less reliant on government and is designed to be self-reliant and sustainable in long term. There are various factors that inform these structural differences between these two countries and South Africa. These are land ownership dynamics, unemployment rate, social customs such as stigmatisation of subsidy housing and others. The two countries have lower unemployment rate which allows people to afford housing, whilst simultaneously the cities administrations and national government own portions of land in premium locations in cities but additionally mechanism in place such as tax relief for developers and others. The urban form of the two cities evolved out of developmental policies which aimed to integrate all income groups since early 20th century in Amsterdam and since 1930s in New York. Therefore, it should be made clear there was deliberate effort to ensure subsidy housing is one of the pillars of housing within the city which ultimately assisted in ensuring it is spatially located appropriately.

The South African national policy directive for urban spatial reform as discussed in chapter 4 is superficial. The subsidy housing policy and spatial planning policy have not addressed the apartheid spatial legacy despite the efforts of the government through various policies introduced since 1994 to 2017. The policy limitation has negative effect on the impact of subsidy housing. In addition, despite the special development area concept in the city of Polokwane which was introduced in the early 2000s, City of Polokwane implemented mainly five subsidy schemes. The extensive implementation of the Individual- Credit/Non-Credit Linked Subsidy shows institutional limitation on the part of the local government. Failure in implementing variety of subsidy housing schemes shows lack of innovation or sense of creativity on the part of the City of Polokwane. The limited exposure in schemes that focus on rental and failure to experiment with others clearly cement the point.

It is limiting to realize the findings are mostly institutional reform issues instead of technical urban spatial reform as the study sought to find out. It is however, positive in that it shows there has been effort in the local government policy to reverse apartheid planning although it has been limited to a certain degree. It is encouraging to see the progress which City of Polokwane has managed to successfully address fragmentation through the strategic development area concept and the subsequent development that materialised within the areas.

6.5 Recommendations.

The post 1994 government of South Africa has implemented various policies and programmes to deconstruct the apartheid spatial legacy. The manifestation of the intention to address the old apartheid spatial injustices by providing low- and moderate-income households with housing in well-located parts of cities has partially been achieved. The spatial re-configuration effort of cities has not resulted in notable urban spatial reform, in contrast the subsidy housing schemes have largely reinforced the apartheid geographies in some instances. How can subsidy housing and municipal spatial planning achieve city restructuring and help realize NDP objectives on human settlements? There are interventions areas which can expedite the process to achieve NDP goals and are as follows;

i. Local government Policy Void- Urban spatial reform policy.

The South African government has introduced comprehensive housing policies anchored on progressive legislation and constitution. But in contrast the government has not employed the same rigorousness on spatial planning policy in specific reference to urban spatial reform to deconstruct the apartheid city form. UDF and IUDF at national level and spatial rationale (Provincial Spatial development framework) at provincial level offer direction but it has no impact if it is not supported by legislative or policy consistently applicable at local government level.

Therefore, there should be urban spatial reform policy applicable at local government level. Although there are Spatial Development frameworks at local government level, their primary purpose is to promote sustainable functional and integrated human settlements and maximise resource efficiency. They are too generic as they give effect to the vision, goals and objectives of the municipal Integrated Development Plans. However, a specific policy can create an enabling environment and make it priority for local government to work intensely towards

deconstructing the apartheid urban form. The deconstruction of apartheid spatial form is equally important as any other reform policy and should be afforded resources and commitment in order to build a nation that is truly integrated in all forms.

ii. Municipal Housing Delivery Accreditation and Housing Assignment.

Polokwane local municipality is level 1 housing accredited municipality. The municipality has applied for level 2 accreditation with the provincial MEC for human settlements. Most of the subsidized housing delivered within the municipality is through the provincial government, the Department of Cooperative Governance, Human Settlements and traditional affairs (COGHSTA). Housing accreditation level 1 gives the municipality a small role to play in the housing delivery but level 2 will enable it to be involved extensively in delivery of subsidy housing schemes. Above level 2 accreditation there is municipal assignment for housing delivery. Municipal Housing assignment will be convenient for the city's restructuring process as the involvement of any other sphere of government will be limited to advisory role. The constraint placed upon the municipality by level 1 accreditation plays negative impact on its ability to carry out subsidy housing programmes in its own way. Therefore; it is critical for Polokwane Municipality to finalise accreditation for level 2 and file for municipal housing assignment in order to fully commission programmes that will among many things achieve restructuring and reversal of apartheid spatial form.

iii. Municipal land/property audit and asset disposal Policy.

There is no report that indicates what percentage is owned by state owned entities, individuals and private sector within Polokwane city's urban edge. A land audit report should be commissioned in order to establish the ownership dynamics of properties within the city. Prime pieces of land owned by the Polokwane municipality are there. But the current disposal policy has not been utilised fully to the advantage of subsidy housing and spatial restructuring of the city. The land disposal policy gives the institution authority to dispose of certain identified properties if it is deem fit to do that. However, the municipality has not disposed of any property for the purpose of subsidy housing. Failure to dispose any land for the interest of subsidy housing has further constraint the effect of subsidy housing in restructuring the city

and assisted in maintaining the status quo. The status quo where most low income population stays is in the south and northwest of the city and the rich are located in the north and east of the city. To create a spatially balanced city and offer low income household better access to schools, work and others opportunities, the municipality should start identifying those municipal owned land and disposing them for subsidy housing.

iv. Review of funding model for SHIs and Rent control.

South Africa's subsidy housing schemes receive funding from government or government established agency like Social Housing Regulatory Authority and a portion as a loan from financial institutions. The funding model of constant dependency on government should be reviewed. Over time the accredited Social Housing Institutions should be able to be self-sufficient and not rely on funding from the SHRA or government. The review of extend of the role of government and the funding model in existence is key to opening opportunities to deal with housing problems and urban spatial reforms. The role of government should gradually fade and delivery of all types of subsides should be accomplished by SHIs. Encouraging the role of SHIs and accrediting more will see the possible gap left by government being filled by competent institutions who will strive to deliver the quality and quantities targeted. Government should continue to be a custodian of subsidy housing but only on a role of monitoring and oversight in the construction, allocation and operations level. In order to contain the possible high prices for any of the subsidy housing products, there should be regulations for rent and price control in all the subsidy options available. This will allow the lower income people to still be accommodated in the subsidy schemes. The rent and price control mechanisms should be applicable consistently in all subsidy schemes made available by government or private public partnership.

6.6 Future Research.

The effect of subsidized housing on the legacy of apartheid planning in the City of Polokwane is positive. It is safe to state that despite the many various development tools the city implemented in its development plans, subsidy housing has been critical and effective in enforcing and creating integration and redefining the urban morphology over the years after democracy. SDA1 is a spatial integration effort and Polokwane local municipality is further employing other mechanism to ensure the integration through transport corridors and others. The NDP's plan to alter the apartheid planning legacy through human settlements

transformation seems attainable if the proposition made are considered overtime. Beside the subsidy housing, there should also be extensive research in to how subsidy housing in combination with land use and transport planning can be utilised to achieve urban spatial reform. Exploration into how these other mechanism can enforce city restructuring may assist in resolving the persisting apartheid form and help the government get closer to the goals as captured by NDP.

7. References

Acioly, C. (2007). Housing in the Netherlands: A closer look at the Social Housing Sector and the role of Housing Associations- HA. Institute for Housing and Urban Development studies. Accessed on 28 August 2018 at www.claudioacioly.com.

African News Agency. (2017). Subsidy housing. https://www.africannewsagency.com/ Accessed 10 June 2017.

Bailey, KD. (1994). Methods of Social Research. Social sciences research.

Brand South Africa. (2016). Houses for everyone, 2002. https://www.brandsouthafrica.com Accessed on 06 September 2018.

Centre for Affordable Housing (CAHF). (2018). Housing Finance in South Africa. http:www.housingfinanceafrica.org. Accessed on the 5 September 2018.

Charlton, S .(2003). The integrated delivery of Housing: A local government perspective from Durban. Confronting fragmentation, Housing and urban development in a democratic society. University of Cape Town Press, Lansdowne.

Charlton, S. and Kihato, C. 2006. Reaching the Poor? An Analysis of the Influences on the Evolution of South Africa's Housing Programme. Democracy and Delivery: Urban Policy in South Africa. Cape Town: HSRC Press.

City of Polokwane. (2014). Operational Plan for the Implementation of the Integrated Rapid Transit System Polokwane Local Municipality. Collected on 4 December 2017.

City of Polokwane. (2015). Polokwane/Seshego Town Planning Scheme, 1999. Collected on 14 December 2017.

City of Polokwane. (2015). Polokwane Local Municipality Land Use Management By-Laws. www.polokwane.gov.za; Accessed on 12 October 2017.

City of Polokwane. (2016). City of the Stars. www.polokwane.gov.za; Accessed on 25 February 2017.

City of Polokwane. (2016). Polokwane/ Perskebult Town Planning Scheme 2016. Collected on 14 December 2017.

City of Polokwane (2017). Pietersburg Town Planning Scheme 1981. Accessed via archives on 1 December 2017.

City of Polokwane. (2010). Polokwane Spatial Development framework. www.polokwane.gov.za; Accessed on 1March 2017.

City of Polokwane. (2013). Polokwane Densification policy for urban areas. www.polokwane.gov.za; Accessed on 11 May 2017.

City of Johannesburg. (2007). Reshaping Johannesburg's inner city.www.joburg.org.za Accessed on 18 June 2017.

City of Johannesburg. (2009). New directions in the formalisation and upgrading of informal settlements? Phillip Harrison, Executive Director- Development Planning and Urban management. www.joburg.org.za. Accessed on 28 May 2017.

Constitution of the Republic of South Africa. (1996).

Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs (COGTA). (2009). Township transformation timeline. www.sacitiesnetwork.co.za. Accessed on 31 July 2017.

Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs (COGTA). (2016). Integrated Urban Development Framework. www.cogta.gov.za; Accessed on 4 March 2017.

Corrigan MB, Hambene J, Hudnut W, Levitt RL, Stainback J, Ward R, and Witenstein N. (2005). Ten Principles for Successful Public/Private Partnerships. Urban Land Institute.

Daniel, P. & Hopkinson, M. 1991. The Geography of Settlement: Conceptual Frameworks in Geography. 2 nd ed. Essex: Oliver & Boyd.

Davel Consulting. (2007). Framework plan for strategic development area 1.

Davidoff P (1965). "Advocacy and Pluralism in Planning". Journal of the American Institute of Planners.

Davies RJ (1981). The spatial formation of the South African City. GeoJournal.

Department of Housing. (1994). White Paper a new Housing Policy and Strategy for South Africa. General Notice 1376 of 1994.

Deakin, A. 2011. Evolution of Geographic Information and Visualization Systems. Environmental Monitoring. 5, Vol. II.

Department of Housing (DoH). (2003). National Housing Code 2000.

Department of Housing (DoH). (1997). Urban Development Framework. http://www.gov.za. Accessed on 10 July 2017.

Department of Human Settlement (DoHS). (2010). National Housing Policy and Subsidy Programmes. Public Information and Marketing Directorate, Chief Directorate Policy Development.

Department of Human Settlements (DoHS). (2012). Accreditation and Assignment Framework for Municipalities to Administer National Human Settlements Programmes: Managing the capacitation of municipalities for the assignment of human settlements functions to local government. www.gov.za. Accessed 17 October 2017.

Department of Human Settlements (KZN). (2016). "Breaking New Ground" A Comprehensive Plan for the Development of Sustainable Human Settlements. www.kzndhs.gov.za Accessed on the 25 August 2018.

Department of Human Settlement (DoHS). (2015). towards a policy foundation for the development of Human Settlements Legislation. www.gov.za. Accessed on the 17 July 2017.

Department of Local Governemnt and Human Settlements. (2014). Policy on management of Subsidy housing 2014/2015. North West Provincial Department- Policy and Research.

http://www.nwpg.gov.za. Accessed on the 05 September 2018.

Department of Treasury (Dept. Treasury). (1996). Growth, Employment and Redistribution A Macroeconomic Strategy. http://www.treasury.gov.za. Accessed on the 05 June 2017.

Dewar D (1995). The urban question in South Africa: the need for a planning paradigm shift. Third world planning review.

Dewar D (1992).Urbanization and the South African city: a manifesto for change. In David MS. The Apartheid City and Beyond: Urbanization and Social Change in South Africa. Routeledge, London.

Donaldson, R (2009). A Model for South African Urban Development in the 21st Century? Department of Geographical Sciences, Vista University, Mamelodi Campus.

Du Preeze M and Sale MC (2011). The Impact of Social Housing Developments On Nearby Property Prices: A Nelson Mandela Bay Case Study. www.essa2011.org.za. Accessed on 31 July 2017.

Du Plessis, D (2013). A Critical Reflection on Urban Spatial Planning Practices and Outcomes in Post-Apartheid South Africa. Urban Forum, Vol. 2014 (No. 25), pp. 69-88.

Durand- Lasserve A & Royston L (2002). International Trends and Country Contexts – From Tenure Regularization to Tenure Security. In Durand-Lasserve, A and Royston, L; Holding their ground: secure land tenure for the urban poor in Developing countries. London, Earthscan; pp.1-34.

Fataar R. (2016). Densification and the Ambition for a Democratic City. Our Future Cities NPO. South Africa, Cape Town.

Findley, L and Ogbu, L (2011). South Africa: From Township to Town- After apartheid, spacial segregation remains. Places Journal,. https://doi.org/10.22269/111117 Accessed 21 May 2018.

Goethert, R. (2010). Incremental Housing- a proactive urban strategy. Special Interest group in Urban Settlements, School of Architecture and Planning, MIT.

Government Gazette. (1994). Notice No. 1954 of 1994 Parliament of the Republic Of South Africa White Paper on Reconstruction and Development. Cape Town. http://www.gov.za. Accessed on 4 June 2017.

Government of South Africa. (2018). National Development Plan. Accessed on 26 February 2018 at www.gov.za

Haggard, K. (2015). Township malls are big business. www.mg.co.za Accessed on 10 Jun 2017.

Harrison P, Huchzermyer M and Mayekiso M. (2003). Introduction- Confronting fragmentation. Confronting fragmentation, Housing and urban development in a democratic society. University of Cape Town Press, Lansdowne.

Hoekstra, J. (2013). Social Housing in the Netherlands the development of the Dutch Social Housing model. OTP Research Institute for the Built Environment/Delft University of Technology. Responder linking SCP and Growth Debates.

Hoekstra, J. (2016). Rental Policy in the Netherlands- from oppression to stimulation of the private rental sector. Delft University of Technology.

Housing Development Agency. (2013). Reviving our inner cities: Social Housing and Urban regeneration in South Africa. Killarney, Johannesburg.

Huchzemeyer, M. (2003). Addressing segregation through housing policy and Finance. Confronting fragmentation, Housing and urban development in a democratic society. University of Cape Town Press, Lansdowne.

Huchzemeyer M. (2006). The struggle for in situ upgrading of informal settlements: Case studies from Gauteng. Paper presented at the Southern African Housing Foundation conference and exhibition, Cape Town. www.abahlali.org Accessed on 21 May 2017.

Imizi (2018). Housing. http://www.imizi.co.za/nature/fairview-links. Accessed 10 February 2017.

Kaji H, Kanegae H, Ishibashi K and Hara N. (2003). Compact City And Developing Countries- Is Compact City Approach Appropriate As An Urban Development Policy For Cities In Developing Countries? Prepared for presentation at the Open Meeting of the Global Environmental Change Research Community. Canada, Montreal.

Karam A and Sihongonyane M. (2006). The Apartheid City: Patterns of Industrial and Residential Development In Ekurhuleni. In Sustainable Manufacturing?: The Case of South Africa and Ekurhuleni by Robert S (2006). Juta and Company Ltd.

Karam A and Sihlongonyane M. (2003). The Impact of the National Housing Subsidy on Apartheid City: The Case of Johannesburg. Paper Red at the National Conference with Theme 'Colonialism, Post-Colonialism and Planning. 15-16 May 2003. Department of urban and Regional Planning; South Africa, Free State, Bloemfontein;

Kelly A.P. (2016). Social Research Methods**.** Undergraduate study in Economics, Management, Finance and the Social Sciences. SC145, The London School of Economics and Political Science. University of London. www.londoninternational.ac.uk. Accessed on the 25 February 2017.

Kriger, N. (2007). "Keep Your Head Down": Unprotected Migrants in South Africa. Human rights Watch, Volume 19, No.3 (A).

Khanna, P. (2014). Future Trends in the Century of Cities, New Cities Summit 014, Dallas, Texas.

Kwazulu Natal Human Settlement (KZNHS). (2017). Housing Subsidy. http://www.kzndhs.gov.za. Accessed 15 September 2017.

Longley PA and Goodchild MF (1999). The future of GIS and spatial analysis. Conference paper.

Limpopo Co-operative Governance, Human Settlement and Traditional Affairs [Lim COGHSTA] (2017). Limpopo Human Settlement Development Grant.

Limpopo Provincial Gazette. (2009). No. 1581**.** Local Authority Notice 16

Local Government Action. (2017). Housing- Government's duties. www. Local governmentaction.org Accessed on the 04 Oct 2017.

Lombard, L. (2012). Public private partnerships enhance service delivery. www.mg.co.za Accessed on the 12 June 2012.

Maharaj, B. (2002). Urban Governance and management of cities in post-apartheid South Africa. France, Grenoble, Avignon.

Makgetla, NS. (2004). The post-apartheid economy- two cheers? South African Democracy's first decade. Review of African Political economy. Vol 31 no. 100.

Municipal Planning Board. (2016). Polokwane**.** www.demarcation.org.za. Accessed on 16 March 2017.

Musvoto, EM and Mooya MM. (2016). Planning, housing policy and low income housing development in South Africa. Department of Construction Economics and

Management, Faculty of Engineering and Built Environment, University of Cape Town, Rondebosch. Cape Town, South Africa.

Nair, D. (2015). Affordable housing quotas in Dubai: A middle-class dream. http://www.khaleejtimes.com. Accessed on 30 July 2017.

National Development Agency. (2008). Review of the state of the state of the civil society organisations in South Africa. Community agency for social enquiry (CASE), Planact and Afrika skills development. Braamfontein.

National Planning Commission. (2012). National Development Plan. www.gov.za. Accessed on 3 March 2017.

Newton, C. (2013). The Peoples Housing Process! Getting the quality in the quantity? The Bartlett Development Planning Unit, UCL; UK.

New York University Furman Center. (2012). Subsidized Housing: a cross-city comparison. Data Briefs. Furman center for real Estate and urban policy. Accessed on 20 August 2018 at www.furmancenter.org

New York University Furman Center. (2017). The States of New York's subsidized housing in 2017. Furman center for real Estate and urban policy. Accessed on 12 October 2018 at www.furmancenter.org.

Ngwenya, NT. 2016: The Implementation of South Africa's Housing Policy in the Local Sphere: A Case Study of Mamelodi and Driepkloof. University of Pretoria

Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) (2012). Recommendation of the Council on Principles for Public Governance of Public-Private Partnerships. www.oecd.org. Accessed on 31 July 2017.

Ogunsanya, LB. (2009). A comparative study of Social Housing developments: Greenfield developments and Converted/Refurbished buildings. University of Kwazulu Natal.

Parliamentary Liaison Office. (2015). Urban Land Ownership. Southern African Catholic Bishops' Conference. Briefing Paper 397.

Parliamentary Monitoring Group. (2016). Gauteng and Limpopo Housing Departments on poor performance: Urban Settlements Development Grant; Informal Settlements upgrading; Title Deeds backlog; Affordable rental housing. https://pmg.org.za Accessed on 10 September 2017.

Parliament of the Republic of South Africa. (2018). How a law is made. Accessed on 26 November 2018 at www.parliament.gov.za.

Pernegger L and Godehart S. (2007). Townships in the South African Geographic Landscape – Physical and Social Legacies and Challenges. Training for township initiative. Department of treasury in partnership with SA Cities Network, Department of Local government, and Development Bank of Southern Africa. http://www.treasury.gov.za

Pieterse, E. (2009). Post-Apartheid Geographies in South Africa: Why are urban divides so persistent? Interdisciplinary Debates on Development and Cultures: Cities in Development—Spaces, Conflicts and Agency. Leuven University.

Planning Tank. (2017). Multiple Nuclei Model of 1945 by C.D. Harris and Edward L. Ullman. Accessed on 6 November 2018 at www.planningtank.com.

SA History. (2017). South Africa's Key economic policies changes (1994 - 2013). http://www.sahistory.org.za. Accessed on 6 June 2017.

Scott A.J and Storper M. (2014). The Nature of Cities: The Scope and Limits of Urban Theory. International Journal of Urban and Regional Research, Published by John Wiley & Sons Ltd. 9600 Garsington Road, Oxford OX4. https://luskin.ucla.edu/sites/default/files/ScottStorperpubliblished.pdf Accessed on 28 August 2018.

Scheepers, E.Y. 2014. Sustainable Subsidy Housing Provision: A Housing Approach. Unpublished Masters Dissertation. Potchefstroom: University of North West.

Schuilin, D and Van de Veer, J (2004). Governance in Housing in Amsterdam and the Role of Housing Associations. Amsterdam Federation of Housing Associations, Amsterdam, the Netherlands.

Seekings, J. (2010). Race, class and inequality in the South African City. Centre for Social Science research.

Shwartz, A. (1999). New York City and Subsidized Housing: Impacts and lessons of the City's $5 Billion Capital Budget Housing Plan. Housing Policy Debate, Volume 10, Issue 4. Fannie Mae Foundation.

Smit D and Abrahams G. (2010). Incrementally Securing Tenure an Approach for Informal Settlement Upgrading in South Africa. Urban Landmark.

Spinks, C. 2001. A New Apartheid? Urban Spatiality, (Fear of) Crime, and Segregation in Cape Town, South Africa. Development Destin Studies Institute.

South African Government. (2018). Housing. https://www.gov.za/about-sa/housing Accessed on the 1 August 2018.

South African Local Government Association (SALGA). (2013). Innovation: Smart Cities. SALGA National office, Pretoria.

South Africa Yearbook. (2012/13). Human Settlements. http://www.southafrica-newyork.net/consulate/Yearbook%202013/13%20Human%20Settlem.pdf. Cited on 15 September 2017.

Statistics South Africa (StatsSA). (2016). Limpopo community Survey. http://www.statssa.gov.za. Accessed on 31 October 2017.

Statistics South Africa. (2016). GHS Series Volume VII: Housing from a human settlements perspective. Media Release. Accessed on 27 September 2017 at www.statssa.gov.za.

Strauss, AL and Corbin J (1998). Basics of Qualitative Research: Techniques and Procedures for Developing Grounded Theory. Sage Publications Inc.

The Fuller Center for Housing. (2014). Housing Delivery in South Africa: Draft Report-Housing delivery. Fuller Housing Centre Report. Western Cape, South Africa. Accessed on 2 October 2018 at www.fullercenter.org

Thwala, NQ. (2014). The Creation of Competitive Cities in South Africa: The Case of The West Rand Vision 2016. University of Witwatersrand, Johannesburg.

Tissington, K. 2010. A Review of Housing Policy and Development in South Africa since 1994. RSA: SERI.

Tissington, K. (2011). A Resource Guide to Housing in South Africa 1994-2010: Legislation, Policy, Programmes and Practice. Socio-Economic Rights Institute.

Todes A, Charlton S, Rubin M, Appelbaum A and Harrison P (2016). Spatial Futures: Aspirations and actions regarding form and spatial change in Johannesburg. A report for Group Strategy, Policy Coordination and Relations, City of Johannesburg. South African Research Chair in Spatial Analysis and City Planning. School of Architecture and Planning. http://wiredspace.wits.ac.za. Accessed on 29 July 2017.

Turnbull, GK and Papageorgiou,C. (2005). Economic Development and Property Rights: Time Limits on Land Ownership. Economic Development Quarterly, Vol. 19 No. 3.

Transport and Urban Development Policy (TDA). 2017. Housing Opportunities. Cape Town Accessed at www. tda.gov.za on 10 July 2018

Trusler, RK. 2009: Is 'Breaking New Ground' As a Comprehensive Plan for Housing Delivery, a Realistic Solution to the Housing Problem Faced in South Africa? University of Pretoria.

Turok I. (2012). Urbanisation and Development in South Africa: Economic Imperatives, Spatial Distortions and Strategic Responses. Human Settlements Group and International Institute for Environment and Development (IIED). London, UK.

Turok, I. (2015). South Africa's New Urban Agenda: Transformation or Compensation? Economic Performance and Development, Human Sciences Research Council. Accessed on 17 April 2017.

Van der Merwe, IJ. (1998). Urbanization in South Africa: A Frontier between the First and Third World. Geography Research Forum, Vol. 18. University of Stellenbosch.

Van der Veer, J. (2017). Changes in Housing policy and residualisation in Amsterdam. Amsterdam Federation of Housing Associations. ENHR, Tirana. Accessed on www.afwc.nl on 2 October 2018.

Van Donk, M. and. Pieterse, E (2008) "Developmental local government: Squaring the circle between intent and outcomes", in van Donk, M., Swilling, M., Pieterse, E. and Parnell, Draft paper not to be quoted with permission 15 S. (eds). Consolidating Developmental Local Government: Lessons from the South African Experience. Cape Town: UCT Press

Van Wyk, B (2009). Research design and methods Part I. Post-Graduate Enrolment and Throughput. University of the Western Cape.

Williams, C.A Jr. (2010). Which housing policy is the best? Housing Policy Debate, Volume 1, Issue1.Harvard University. https://www.innovations.harvard.edu/sites/default/files/hpd_0101_apgar.pdf Accessed on the 20 September 2018.

Weaver, M. (2001). Urban regeneration- the issue explained. www.theguardian.com Accessed on 10 June 2017.

Wray C and Kibirige D, 2014: Proximity of RDP housing in relation to major economic centres. Gauteng City-Region Observatory.

Youngman, JM. (1996). Tax on Land and Buildings. Tax Law Design and Drafting (volume 1; International Monetary Fund: 1996; Victor Thuronyi, ed.) Chapter 9, Tax on Land and Buildings.

ANNEXURES

ANNEXURE A: REQUEST LETTERS

UNIVERSITY OF THE WITWATERSRAND, JOHANNESBURG | SCHOOL of ARCHITECTURE PLANNING

Mr. Dikgape H. Makobe
Municipal Manager
Polokwane Local Municipality
Cnr Landros Mare and Bodenstein Streets
Polokwane
0700

Subject: Authorization and support for information/data gathering for Master of Development Planning research report at the University of the Witwatersrand.

Dear Mr. Makobe,

This letter is to verify that Mr. MT Phasha (student number 0412404D) is enrolled for Master of Science in Development Planning at Wits University. He is currently doing his research report as part of his studies. His research is titled: *Assessing the role of subsidized housing in restructuring cities in democratic South Africa: the case of City of Polokwane*. In the process of completing his research report he needs clear information regarding the subject and it cannot be found online. As a result he will need the assistance of the City's Planning departments in order to get the data. The research is a desktop based study and does not involve interviews. It is archived data mostly and the information will be used exclusively for his academic dissertation purposes only.

We hereby ask you to assist him in the process of gathering the information which will take very limited portion of your time.

Regards

Aly Karam, PhD

Associate Professor
School of Architecture and Planning
University of the Witwatersrand

Tel: +27 (0)11 717 7707
Fax: +27 (0)86 553 5191

Wits University
School Of Architecture & Planning
John Moffat Building, Ground Fl
East Campust
Tel: (011) 717-7726
Fax: (011) 717-7731

Ga Phasha-Selatole (Makgalanoto)
House no 86
Section C- Ga Ragopola
Driekop 1129/
Stand 8194 Muvhango
Bopelong Ext-14
Vanderbijil Park 1911
14 August 2017

Polokwane Local Municipality
Cnr Landros Mare and Bodenstein Streets
Polokwane
0700

ATTENTION: MUNICIPAL MANAGER-MR DIKGAPE H, MOKOBE.

SUPPORT FOR INFORMATION/DATA GATHERING FOR DISSERTATION/RESEARCH FOR MASTER OF SCIENCE IN DEVELOPMENT PLANNING.

I am currently enrolled for Master of Science in Development Planning in the School of Architecture and Planning, in the Faculty of Engineering and Built Environment at the University of the Witwatersrand. My research focus is on how housing has been used to restructure cities, the dissertation is titled: **ASSESSING THE ROLE OF SUBSIDIZED HOUSING IN RESTRUCTURING CITIES IN DEMOCRATIC SOUTH AFRICA: THE CASE OF CITY OF POLOKWANE.** I chose Polokwane City because it is a medium sized city that is still growing and is visibly undergoing development residentially and commercially.

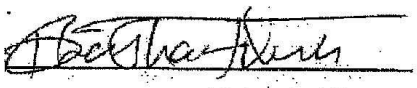
The research (dissertation) is in partial fulfilment of the Master of science in Development Planning. The information/data gathered will be used specifically and only for the research, it is a desktop based research that doesn't involve interviews etc. It is mainly archived information relating to social housing since 1994 till 2017 with specific focus into the city and how that been used to restructure and reverse the legacy of apartheid planning.

This serves as a formal request for your support in gathering data, mainly with the Department of Planning and Land Use, Housing etc.

Please find attached School of Architecture and Planning from my Supervisor and my curriculum vitae that briefly shows all about me.

I hope to hear from you sooner.

Regards



Phasha MT
Cell- 0730179523
Fax: 086 605 8481
Email: phashamosht@gmail.com

Stand 8194-Muvhango
Bophelong Ext 14
Vandebijilpark
1911
03 August 2016

COGHSTA
Hensa Towers Building
20 Rabe Street
Polokwane
0700

Ref: Directorate- Research And Policy

AUTHORISATION AND SUPPORT FOR INFORMATION/DATA GATHERING FOR DISSERTATION/RESEARCH.

I am a professional Town Planner working at a consulting firm and also registered student for **MSc in Development Planning at** University of the Witwatersrand. My research is titled: **ASSESSING THE ROLE OF SUBSIDIZED HOUSING IN RESTRUCTURING CITIES IN DEMOCRATIC SOUTH AFRICA: THE CASE OF CITY OF POLOKWANE.** It looks at how social or subsidized housing has been used to reverse apartheid planning. My case study is City of Polokwane (Polokwane Local Municipality), focusing at how subsidized housing has been used to integrate the city since 1994-2017.

I write this letter to the department to grant me permission to gather data (archived data) regarding social housing in Polokwane local municipality from 1994 to 2017. Provincial Department of Co-operative Governance, Human Settlements and Traditional affairs as a custodian to housing is the best place to start my enquiry.

Your assistance in this will be highly appreciated. Please find attached official approval letter from Faculty of Engineering and Built Environment of the proposal.

Regards

Phasha MT
0730179523

UNIVERSITY OF THE
WITWATERSRAND,
JOHANNESBURG

Private Bag 3 Wits, 2050
Fax: 02711 7177009
Tel: 02711 7177007

Reference: Ms Olga Ndlovu
E-mail: olga.ndlovu@wits.ac.za

11 July 2017
Person No: 0412404D
PAG

Mr MT Phasha
8194 Muvhango-bophelong
Ext 14
1911
South Africa

Dear Mr Phasha

Master of Science in Development Planning: Approval of Title

We have pleasure in advising that your proposal entitled *ASSESSING THE ROLE OF SUBSIDIZED HOUSING IN RESTRUCTURING CITIES IN DEMOCRATIC SOUTH AFRICA: THE CASE OF CITY OF POLOKWANE.* has been approved. Please note that any amendments to this title have to be endorsed by the Faculty's higher degrees committee and formally approved.

Yours sincerely

Mrs Tania dal Mas
Faculty Registrar
Faculty of Engineering and the Built Environment

ANNEXURE B: LETTER OF AUTHORISATION

CONFIDENTIAL

LIMPOPO
PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT
REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA

DEPARTMENT OF
CO-OPERATIVE GOVERNANCE,
HUMAN SETTLEMENTS & TRADITIONAL AFFAIRS

Ref : CH 1/4/1/P
Enquiries : Mr. Mulaudzi N.D
Ext no : 015 284 5277/5014

Mr Phasha MT
8194 Muvhango-bophelong
Ext 14
1911

Dear Sir

RE: REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH

1. The above matter refers.
2. Your letter dated 03 August 2016 is acknowledged.
3. Kindly be informed that your request for permission to conduct research has been approved.
4. We wish you a pleasant moment when interacting with respondents from the department in your endeavour to accomplish your studies.

Kind regards

.....
HEAD OF DEPARTMENT

15/09/2016
.....
DATE

20 Rabe Street, POLOKWANE, 0700, Private Bag X9485, POLOKWANE, 0700
Tel: (015) 284 5000, Fax (015) 293 1520, Website: **www.coghsta.limpopo.gov.za**

The heartland of Southern Africa – development is about people!

515557
MS. P Mello (16/08/2017)

DIRECTORATE: CORPORATE AND SHARED SERVICES

ITEM:

FILE REF:

REQUEST TO GRANT MR. MT PHASHA PERMISSION TO CONDUCT HIS RESEARCH WITHIN POLOKWANE MUNICIPALITY

Report of the Director: Corporate and Shared Services

Purpose of the Report

To request approval from the Municipal Manager to give permission to Mr. MT Phasha to conduct research within Polokwane Municipality.

Background and Discussion

Mr. MT Phasha is a student at University of the Witwatersrand Johannesburg studying Masters in Development Planning, request a permission to conduct his research within the Municipality and his topic of research is:" Assessing the role of subsidized housing in restructuring cities in democratic South Africa: the case of City Polokwane ".

Financial Implication

There is no financial implication.

Recommend

1. That approval is granted for Mr. MT. Phasha to conduct his research within Polokwane Municipality.
2. That the findings emanating from the research study be shared with the Municipality before they are published.

REPORT CONTROL SHEET

SUBJECT: Request to conduct Research Mr. M.T. Phiesha

PROS NUMBER: 2017 MR 22

SECTION A: SUBMISSION BY SBU MANAGER

SBU: MR NAME [AUTHOR] Ms P Mashoro PHOVINCE

SIGNATURE / SBU MANAGER: DATE: 2017/05/17

SECTION B: AUTHORISATION / SUBMISSION BY

DIRECTORATE: Corporate & Shared Services

SIGNATURE / DIRECTOR: DATE: 18/08/2017

SECTION C: COMMENTS REQUIRED FROM: *[TICK IN APPLICABLE BLOCK]*

DIRECTOR: ENGINEERING SERVICES		SIGNATURE:	DATE:
DIRECTOR: DEVELOPMENT & ECON. PLAN		SIGNATURE:	DATE:
DIRECTOR: COMMUNITY SERVICES		SIGNATURE:	DATE:
DIRECTOR: CORP. AND SHARED SERV.		SIGNATURE:	DATE:
CHIEF FINANCIAL OFFICER		SIGNATURE:	DATE:
DIRECTOR: COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT		SIGNATURE:	DATE:
DIRECTOR: STRAT PLAN, MONITOR. & EVAL.		SIGNATURE:	DATE:
MAN: COMMUNICATION AND PUBLIC PART.		SIGNATURE:	DATE:

SECTION D: SECRETARIAT & ADMINISTRATION

REG. NO: REG. DATE: COMMITTEE CLERK:

SECTION E: MUNICIPAL MANAGER

APPROVED FOR SUBMISSION: DATE: 30/08/2017

REMARKS:

ALLOCATION TO COMMITTEES

FINANCE & LED	ENERGY	HOUSING	CULTURE, SPORTS, REC & SPEC. FOCUS	ADMIN & GOV.
WATER & SANITATION	COMMUNITY SAFETY	ROADS, S/WATER & TRANSPORT	WASTE & ENVIRON.	SPATIAL PLAN & DEV
LAND USE MAN.	LOCAL LABOUR FORUM	COUNCIL	MAYORAL COMMITTEE	

APPROVED ITO DELEGATED POWERS: DATE

MM/ NUMBER ALLOCATED BY CAO – SECRETARIAT MM/

APPROVAL OF EXECUTIVE MAYOR IN TERMS OF DELEGATED POWERS

APPROVED ITO DELEGATED POWERS DATE:

EM/ NUMBER ALLOCATED BY CAO – SECRETARIAT EM/

ANNEXURE C: SUBSIDY HOUSING IN LIMPOPO PROVINCE

YEAR	Limpopo Province Sites	Limpopo Province Houses	Limpopo Province Total
1994/95	-	3869	3869
1995/96	-	4734	4734
1996/97	-	7125	7125
1997/98	-	11123	11123
1998/99	12756	10143	22899
1999/2000	-	12401	12401
2000/01	7593	13403	20996
2001/02	-	16667	16667
2002/03	6696	8257	14953
2003/04	925	14885	15810
2004/05	4238	12276	16514
2005/06	-	10112	10112
2006/07	9556	14053	23609
2007/08	9264	9706	18970
2008/09	5745	10941	16686
2009/10	3123	19978	23101
2010/11	2334	15647	17981
2011/12	1752	13619	15371
2012/13	1951	12009	13960
2013/14	68	3080	3148
2014/15	-	2149	2149
2015/16	1437	8443	9880
2016/17	2956	8787	11743
TOTAL	**70394**	**243407**	**313801**

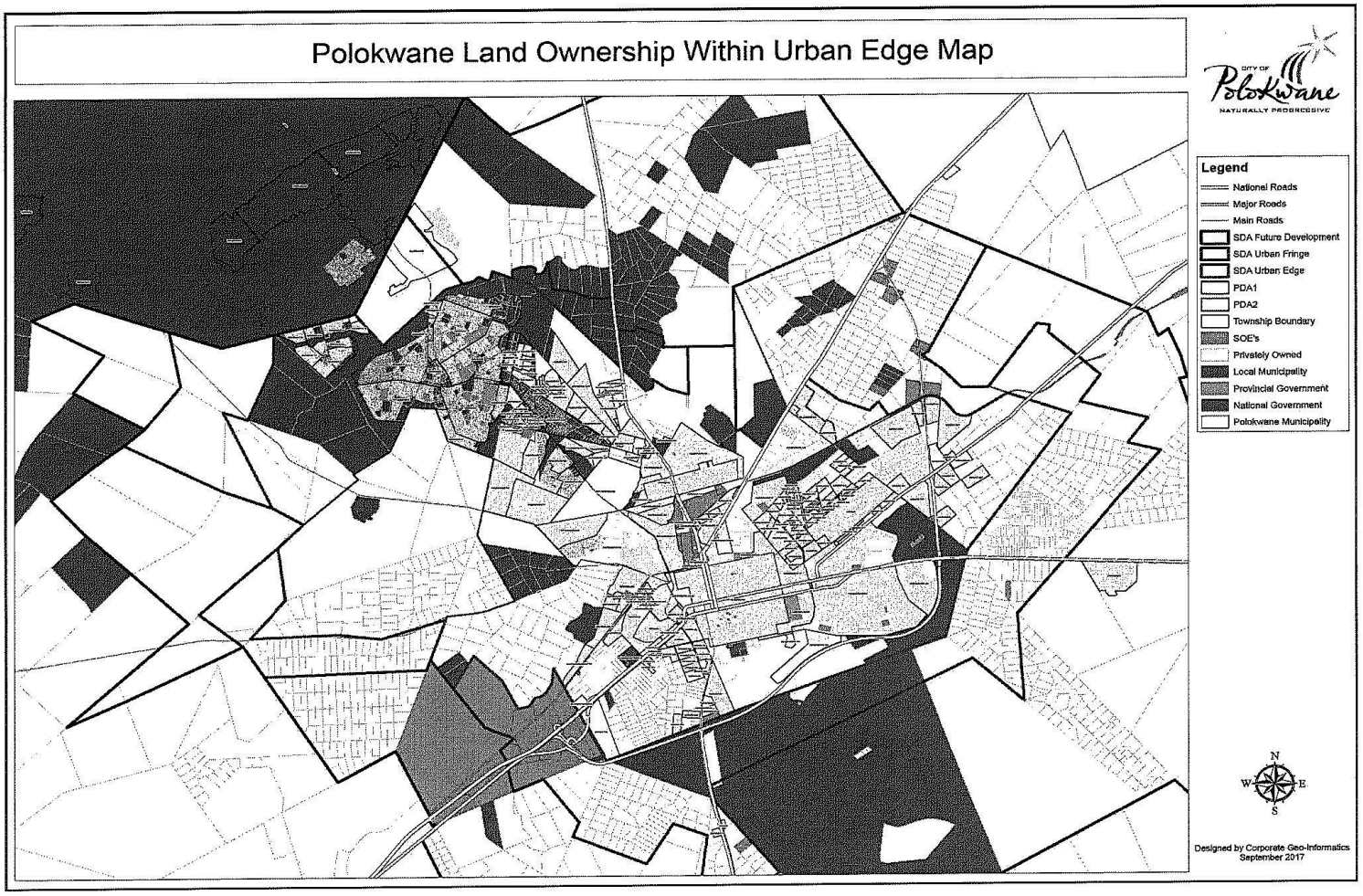
Source: Limpopo COGHSTA, 2017.

ANNEXURE D: ABONDONED SUBSIDY HOUSING PROJECTS

No	SETTLEMENT NAME	NUMBER AND TYPE OF HOUSING UNITS				
		*Informal	Backyard	Hostel	Waiting list	Blocked Projects
1	Seshego City				22693	
2.	Sebayeng/Mankweng				2331	
3	Rural				5555	
4.	New Pietersburg (Diteneng) Section C/D	4500				
5.	Seshego Zone 8 (Lepakeng)	200				
6	Seshego Zone E	500				
7	Seshego Zone F	150				
8	Seshego Zone F (Mohlakaneng)	350				
9	Pietersburg X 44 (Greenside) in process	509				
10	Pietersburg X 32 (Rainbowpark) In process	100				
11	Mankweng (Between Unit E and F)	150				
12	Mankweng Unit G	500				
	Seshego City					
	Cluster					
13	Polokwane X 44					18
14	Seshego (Zone 8)					6
15	Pietersburg X 44					580
16	Seshego 9L					30
17	Seshego Zone 1 Ext					41
Subtotal Seshego City Cluster						675
	Maja/Chuene Cluster					
18	Thokgoaneng					490
19	Maja Chuene (different wards)					150
Subtotal Maja / Chuene Cluster						640
	Mankweng/Dikgale/Sebayeng Cluster					
20	Mankweng Unit G					624
21	Mankweng Unit E					560
22	Mankweng Unit F					500
23	Sebayeng Unit D					319
24	Bergneck					50
Subtotal Mankweng/Dikgale Sebayeng Cluster						2053
	Moletje Cluster					
25	Matamanyane					190
26	Ga Chokoe					44
27	Mabitsela					36
28	Makgofe					36
Subtotal Moletje Cluster						306
TOTAL		6959	0	0	30579	3674

Sourced: PLK, 2010.

ANNEXURE E: POLOKWANE LAND OWNERSHIP WITHIN URBAN EDGE AS OF 2017


Polokwane Land Ownership Within Urban Edge Map
CITY OF POLOKWANE
NATURALLY PROGRESSIVE
Legend
National Roads
Major Roads
Main Roads
SDA Future Development
SDA Urban Fringe
SDA Urban Edge
PDA1
PDA2
Township Boundary
SOE's
Privately Owned
Local Municipality
Provincial Government
National Government
Polokwane Municipality
N
W
E
S
Designed by Corporate Geo-Informatics
September 2017