A Comparative Study of Social Housing Developments: Greenfield Developments and Converted/Refurbished Buildings

A DISSERTATION SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF A MASTER OF HOUSING IN THE SCHOOL OF ARCHITECTURE, PLANNING AND HOUSING.

BY

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DECLARATION

Submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Masters of Housing, in the Graduate Programme in the School of Architecture, Planning and Housing, University of Kwazulu Natal, Durban, South Africa.

I declare that this dissertation is my own unaided work. All citations, references and borrowed ideas have been duly acknowledged. It is being submitted for the degree of Masters of Housing in the Faculty of Humanities, Development and Social Science, University of Kwazulu Natal, Durban, South Africa. None of the present work has been submitted previously for any degree or examination in any other university.

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LAWRENCE .B. OGUNSANYA
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MARCH 2009
DATE
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ABSTRACT

Social Housing is a new form of housing delivery in South Africa that has fast gained recognition in the housing sector in the last ten years, because it has proven to be a viable option in solving the housing shortage. It is an affordable option because the government provides funding through subsidies and profit is not earned from the rents paid. Social housing can be in the form of houses, block of flats or townhouses located in Greenfield developments, infill areas or in inner city blocks that are purchased or renovated. The buildings are managed by social housing institutions through public and private funding. This dissertation evaluated and compared two types of social housing schemes, namely, Greenfield developments and refurbished/converted buildings in terms of their affordability, management and the quality of the built environment. The evaluation was done by analyzing their similarities and differences, to reveal which typology delivers a better quality living environment. It also investigated the type of social housing development most suitable for the South African environment and meets the objectives and principles of social housing. The study analysed four existing social housing developments, three in Durban and one in Pietermaritzburg, two were refurbished buildings, and the other two, Greenfield developments. Information was collected by conducting household surveys, interviews and discussions with the residents and management of the housing schemes. The case studies revealed interesting contrasts as well as some important similarities among the social housing schemes. The main findings showed both typologies were functional in providing affordable housing though Greenfield developments proved to be a better alternative in terms of effective management, tenant participation and better built environments. The study proposes recommendations to improve social housing delivery in South Africa such as making social housing affordable, strategies for affordable security and safety systems; energy efficient designs and considerations for persons with special needs.
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<tr>
<td>BESG</td>
<td>Built Environment Support Group</td>
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<tr>
<td>CBD</td>
<td>Central Business District</td>
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<td>CMHC</td>
<td>Canada Mortgage and Housing Corporation</td>
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<td>CPA</td>
<td>Communal Property Association</td>
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<td>EU</td>
<td>European Union</td>
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<tr>
<td>FMHC</td>
<td>First Metro Housing Company</td>
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<td>HIDF</td>
<td>Housing Institution Development Fund</td>
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<td>MHA</td>
<td>Msunduzi Housing Association</td>
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<td>NHFC</td>
<td>National Housing Finance Corporation</td>
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<td>NURCHA</td>
<td>National Urban Reconstruction and Housing Agency</td>
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<td>NGO</td>
<td>Non-Governmental Organizations</td>
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<td>SHA</td>
<td>Shayamoya Housing Association</td>
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<td>SHF</td>
<td>Social Housing Foundation</td>
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<td>UK</td>
<td>United Kingdom</td>
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<tr>
<td>USA</td>
<td>United States of America</td>
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<tr>
<td>USN</td>
<td>Urban Sector Network</td>
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<tr>
<td>WDER</td>
<td>World Institute for Development Economics Research</td>
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CHAPTER ONE
INTRODUCTION AND RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

1.0 INTRODUCTION
Social housing is a tool of South African housing policy promoting improved quality of life and integration of communities by providing affordable, high-standard, subsidised housing with the added benefit of regenerating the area where the housing stock is located. Social housing is managed by viable and sustainable, independent institutions, which encourage the participation of residents in managing their own communities. Social housing is aimed at low-to-middle income households (Social Housing Toolkit, 2001). It is an affordable option of housing because the government pays some of the costs through subsidies and no one earns profit from the rents paid by the occupants. Social housing can be in the form of houses, flats or townhouses located in Greenfield developments, infill areas or purchased and renovated inner city blocks (Schoonraad, 2002). An accredited housing institution manages the buildings, such an institution is a legal entity established with the primary objective of developing and/or managing housing stock that has been funded through public or private grants (Ramphal, 2000).

Internationally, social housing has been a significant form of housing development for decades. The concept of mutual housing aid through associations was first put into practice in 1844, and since then social housing initiatives have expanded around the world in different forms (Ramphal, 2000). In Canada and the United States of America, it was seen as a solution to the urban blight and developed as part of the urban renewal strategy (Dimitriou, 1999). In the Netherlands, social housing was implemented to meet the huge housing needs of the post-world war two reconstruction period. In the United Kingdom, social housing was a result of a shift in focus from the public rental sector to providing low-to-medium income housing involving a combination of private ownerships, tenant co-operatives and housing associations. Finally in Africa, social housing is practiced mainly in the
southern and eastern parts of the continent, in countries such as Kenya, Tanzania, Zimbabwe and South Africa (www.shf.org.za).

In South Africa, social housing has been gradually accepted as a viable option to the more traditional project-based and individual delivery housing option for the low-income sector (www.shf.org.za). However, it should be noted that social housing is not generally targeted at the poorest citizens of the country but used to meet the needs of households earning between R1,000 to R 3,500 per month within the low income sector, this being about 20% to 30% of the South African population (ibid). This type of housing provides affordable rental accommodation to such low income earners, engaging them in governance and management of their housing needs, enhancing their experience in the housing market. This research seeks to compare the attributes of the two modes of social housing developments: Greenfield developments and Converted/Refurbished buildings. Also, it investigates and compares the attitudes and perceptions of the residents of these developments, and examines current shortcomings associated with them.

1.1 RESEARCH PROBLEM

The problems identified in this study are the challenges facing the provision of affordable social housing with adequate living environments and the implementation of efficient housing management. These challenges include limited funding for housing development, lack of available land for affordable housing, poorly developed housing environments and the lack of management capacity of social housing institutions. Social housing is funded through government subsidies, grants and loans from financial institutions. The existing government institutional subsidy (for households earning less than R3,500 per month) usually covers about 30% of the total cost of developing a housing unit, and housing institutions struggle to get additional funds for the remaining 70% in ways that keep rentals affordable (Social Housing Toolkit, 2001).
This existing funding mechanism for social housing is insufficient to support affordability and maintenance of this type of housing delivery. The insufficient supply of land is also a challenge in the provision of social housing. This problem is not specific to social housing alone but also to affordable housing in general. Access to formal land ownership is effectively precluded to all but a minority of affluent and influential people, resulting in land being scarce and expensive. Consequently, the cost of suitably located land close to jobs and other social facilities is very high and impacts on the ability to deliver housing at affordable levels (Rakodi and Leduka, 2003).

The challenge of providing adequate living environments in social housing is such that a number of existing developments fall short of providing units that are structurally durable and environmentally sustainable. Also, some of these units are not well-planned and lack technical consideration in responding to the natural environment and the satisfaction of its end-users. As a result, many social housing developments are characterized by monotony and a lack of imagination (Wilson, 2000). The negative environmental effects include a lack of environmental management integration in future construction initiatives, which has the potential to cause environmental degradation. Also, affordable housing has the potential to be environmentally unsound and unhealthy, and require excessive energy consumption and household expenditure to maintain.

Given these existing constraints in social housing developments, the task of this study is to evaluate and compare Greenfield developments and converted/refurbished building by analyzing their similarities and differences in terms of affordability, management, physical structures, design issues, the socio-economic profiles of the users and the quality of the built environments. In accomplishing this task, this study will yield valuable information on existing models of social housing and effectively inform policy and recommendations to facilitate a more qualitative delivery of this type of housing.
1.2 AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

i. To evaluate and compare two types of social housing schemes in terms of affordability, management, physical structure, socio-economic profile of the residents, and quality of the built environment.

ii. To determine the manner in which both schemes meet the objectives and principles of social housing, and find out which is more suitable for the South African environment and why.

iii. To propose effective recommendations for the improvement of social housing delivery in South Africa.

1.3 RESEARCH QUESTION

Which of the two social housing typologies (Greenfield developments and converted/refurbished buildings) is better in terms of affordability, level of effective management and quality of the built environment?

1.4 RESEARCH SUB-QUESTIONS

• What is social housing? Who are its stakeholders and beneficiaries?
• How affordable is social housing and what types of tenure options are available?
• What are the differences and similarities, benefits and shortcomings of the two modes of social housing?
• What are the levels of satisfaction of the occupants with the housing units and the surroundings?
• What effect does location have on social housing schemes?
• Which type of development yields more housing satisfaction amongst its residents?
1.5 HYPOTHESIS
Greenfield developments have better quality living environments than converted, refurbished buildings because they are well-planned and managed.

1.6 KEY CONCEPTS AND DEFINITIONS
1.6.1 Social Housing
Social housing is defined as “affordable, high standard, subsidized housing with the added benefit of regeneration of the area in which the housing stock is located. The process is managed by viable and sustainable, independent institutions, which encourage participation of residents in the management of their own communities. Social housing is aimed at low-to-moderate income families and takes account of a wide variety of tenure forms. It does not include immediate individual ownership” (Social Housing Foundation, 2000). The intention of the social housing approach is to provide low-income households an affordable housing option, incorporating rental and ownership tenure, as well as other services, which provide development and empowerment benefits and promote a lifestyle conducive to community living (Wicht, 1999). In South Africa, this type of housing delivery is used as one of the options in solving housing shortage. The government pays some of the construction costs through subsidies and no one earns profit from the rents paid. Social housing units are usually flats in high or mid rise buildings located in Greenfield developments, infill areas or purchased and renovated inner city blocks (Schoonraad, 2002).

1.6.2 Social Housing Institutions
Social housing institutions include Section 21 companies, co-operatives, associations as well as private companies. These institutions differ in terms of their legal status.

- **Section 21 Company**: A section 21 company is a non-profit organization registered in terms of section 21 of the South African Companies Act of 1973. This means that the company shall use its funds and assets solely to
further its stated aims and objectives and no funds or assets shall be
distributed to any other person or body (www.gov.za).

- **Housing Co-operatives**: Housing co-operatives are a type of service co-operative in which the members are the residents in the housing scheme, and thus the consumers of the service provided by the co-operative (www.usn.org.za).

- **Housing Associations**: These are non-profit corporations that develop, own and operate housing developments. They may be run like co-operatives but are a way to balance the interests of residents and the community. A board, which includes community members, often runs the company. These community members may not necessarily represent the residents (www.usn.org.za).

- **Private Rental Housing**: Companies or individuals who buy, fix-up or build houses which they rent to make a profit.

### 1.6.3 Social Housing Developments

Social housing developments include Greenfield development, Infill development, refurbishment, conversion or upgrade of buildings which could be existing public rental stock.

#### 1.6.3.1 Greenfield Development

This is a new development situated on a piece of land that has never been used before. The advantage of this type of development 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. Also, it is ascertained from the start that the available land is located in an area that provides opportunities.

- **Efficient use of energy**: The overall layout of the neighborhood is intended to promote good energy conservation using the combination of network of paths and roads relating the buildings as well as orientation of housing units to allow the passive and active solar utilization and reduction of heat loss from wind (Reeves, 2005).
• **Image:** The image of the development is intended to be better here because there is opportunity to plan the layout, density, the appearance of the buildings and communal spaces, the choice of building materials and the quality of the landscape. However it should be noted this opportunity is not always attained due to ineffective planning (Reeves, 2005).

• **Effective urban planning and design:** Greenfield developments tend to provide total living environments which means making the built environment sustainable and harmonious for people to live in. They are also designed to relate to the existing neighbourhood by complimenting and improving the quality of the surrounding area (Reeves, 2005).

### 1.6.3.2 Refurbished Building

This is usually an existing old, often dilapidated building (block of flats, offices or hostel) which is upgraded and altered for residential purposes. City neighbourhoods and commercial districts often decline over time in response to economic cycles and demographic shifts (Gause, 1996). Major cities in South Africa have experienced a multitude of economic and social problems resulting from the steady mass departure of businesses and residents from the inner city area to the suburbs over the last decade, making the urban core to deteriorate and lose its market value. Converting and refurbishing existing buildings has been used as a key to revitalization of urban centers. Local governments are encouraging the private sector to renovate buildings in cities' central business districts (CBDs) in order to stimulate a mix of socio-economic activities that bring rejuvenation in the urban centers.

The provision of modern accommodation by rehabilitating old and outdated buildings, rather than constructing new ones, has become increasingly popular. The numerous reasons for this upsurge can be attributed to the specific advantages of building rehabilitation and re-use which include the following:

• **Economic:** There is a perception that since many of the structural elements (foundation, walls, services, roof) of a refurbished building are already in
place, the cost of converting a building is generally much less than the cost of a new construction. However, this is not always the case as some buildings may require more funds and manpower depending on how dilapidated they are (Highfield, 1987).

- **Favorable Zoning:** Zoning and building code ordinances can either facilitate or hinder the feasibility of a potential building refurbishment project. Local ordinances can provide a remarkable advantage for converting or refurbishing a building rather than constructing a new building on the same site (Gause, 1996).

- **Timing:** Reusing an existing building can expedite the predevelopment process and enable a project to open in a significantly shorter time than a new development. However, this depends on the age of the building and the magnitude of renovations needed to refurbish the building, as older buildings of about 30 years and over require a lot of attention especially in services such as ablutions, electrical fixtures and installations, as well as finishes such as paint, floor tiles and the timber roof members (Highfield, 1987).

### 1.6.4 Tenure Options

Social housing provides various tenure options to its beneficiaries in order to satisfy different target markets and different types of housing demand. The following sub-sections provide a brief overview of these tenure options with each discussed in terms of main tenure-specific characteristics.

#### 1.6.4.1 The Communal Property Association Collective Ownership Option

A Communal Property Association (CPA) is a collective or group ownership tenure option (Social Housing Foundation, 2004).
1.6.4.2 The Co-operative Collective Ownership Option
Co-operatives are another form of collective or group ownership tenure option with rental characteristics. The housing co-operative owns the property and co-operative members collectively own the institution through the shares they hold in it (Social Housing Foundation, 2004).

1.6.4.3 Installment Sale
Installment sale carries similar rights and obligations to individual ownership although the enjoyment of the rights of ownership is gradual and can only be confirmed to the purchaser once the conditions of sale are fulfilled (Social Housing Foundation, 2004).

1.6.4.4 Social Rental
Social rental shares many characteristics with public and private sector rental where lease agreements exist between landlord and tenants. These agreements specify the respective parties’ rights and obligations, also rules and procedures govern the management of rental rights. In social rental, the landlord is a social housing institution having a set of social and business objectives (Social Housing Foundation, 2004).

1.6.5 Built Environment
In the context of this study, the built environment is defined as the physical structure and the surroundings of a social housing project. This includes the site of the project, the building and the dwelling units, and their relationship with other buildings as well as the public realm or open space between them that is part of the overall ecosystem.

1.6.6 Quality
In the context of this study, quality is used as a degree of excellence in assessing the design, living conditions and the environments of social housing projects. The criteria for this assessment include:
• The affordability of the project
• The satisfaction of the unique needs of the target market
• Security and safety of the environment
• The size and mix of types of dwelling units
• The accessibility to the location of the project and proximity to amenities and common facilities
• The physical structure of the buildings as well as finishes including fixtures and installations (Social Housing Toolkit, 2001).

1.6.7 Housing Affordability
In this study, housing affordability is defined as a scenario where no more than 30% of gross household income is spent on housing. This standard of approximately 30% is common to virtually all definitions of affordable housing, including rentals and home ownership (Daniels, 2003).

1.6.8 Empowerment
Over the last decade the concept of empowerment has emerged as the main paradigm of development throughout governmental and non-governmental sectors. The Oxford English Dictionary (1998) explains empowerment as “giving (someone) the authority or power to do something”. Power, in turn, is given for a purpose which is to enable action (Giddens, 1977). According to O’Gorman (1995), empowerment signals a transition away from traditional development that confined people’s role to that of passive recipients, effectively rendering them dependent on handouts. Instead, empowerment strategies aim to assign them an active role, to enable them to become activists for their own, self-defined cause. Consequently, in the context of this study empowerment is defined as enabling the beneficiaries of social housing to act on their own in order to reach their self-defined goals with regards to their housing needs.
1.7 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY
This section discusses how the research was conducted. The study focused on existing social housing institutions in the cities of Durban and Pietermaritzburg, South Africa. Four social housing schemes were evaluated, two of which were Greenfield developments, and the other two were refurbished, converted buildings. The study adopted both quantitative and qualitative approaches. These approaches allowed the study to achieve high levels of reliability of gathered data due to mass surveying, provide flexible ways to perform data collection, subsequent analysis, and interpretation of collected information and arrive at more objective conclusions by minimizing subjectivity of judgment (Kealey and Protheroe, 1996). The quantitative aspect involved a survey of a representative sample drawn from occupants of the two social housing modes and administering a questionnaire to them. The qualitative aspect of the study involved structured, open-ended, one-on-one interviews with managers of the social housing institutions, tenants’ committee, housing officials and experts.

1.7.1 Primary Sources of Data
The purposive sampling method was used to select the study areas. Purposive sampling involves targeting a group of people believed to be typical to the study population, or whose views are relevant to the subject matter (Jankowicz, 1991). This method was used to select the case studies because they have the attributes needed to compare the two modes of social housing delivery. The social housing schemes identified as refurbished developments located in the inner city of Durban were the Hawaaiii apartments, the Matinez, the Esselen, and the Strathdon. For Greenfield developments, the schemes identified were Shayamoya housing project in Cato Manor, Howell Road housing and Acacia Park in Pietermaritzburg.

Through purposive sampling, four case studies in total (two Greenfield developments and two refurbished developments) were selected and used for this study. They were chosen on the basis of location (refurbished developments located in the inner city and Greenfield development in peri-urban areas), density
(adequate number of households to survey) and accessibility (access to the housing management, information and the residents). The two Greenfield development case studies were Shayamoya housing project in Cato Manor, Durban and Acacia Park in Pietermaritzburg. The two refurbished/converted buildings case studies were the Hawaii apartments and The Strathdon located in the inner city of Durban. The survey of the case studies was initially conducted from March 2005 to June 2005 and it was reviewed from June 2008 to July 2008.

1.7.1.1 Questionnaires
A simple random sample of a total of 400 adult occupants was selected from all of the four case studies (100 respondents from each of the two Greenfield developments and 100 respondents from each of the two refurbished buildings). Questionnaires were distributed to 400 occupants, only 200 occupants responded to the survey: 40 respondents were from Shayamoya, 60 respondents were from Acacia Park and 50 respondents each were from Hawaii apartments and The Strathdon respectively. Prior arrangements were made with the housing management of the social housing schemes before the questionnaires were administered. Questionnaires were administered to the survey participants by personally handing them over to them at their apartments or slipping them under their door if they were not in and collecting the filled questionnaire later. Adults in the household were given the mandate to fill the forms while the supervisors of each housing scheme were given the responsibility of collecting the filled forms a couple of days later.

The questions were formulated to collect data in a close-ended format. The questions were in a multiple-choice format where the respondent was able to choose a single actual or closely-related option from a list of several options. The format of the questions allowed the respondent to select one or more options as it applies to them and provide the means for further elaboration in their own words. The questionnaires were designed to obtain detailed data on the respondents’ demographic characteristics, income, tenure options, satisfaction with quality of
services and maintenance of building, perceptions and attitudes towards the scheme, and management of the scheme. Information received from the respondents assisted in answering the research and subsidiary questions. In addition, the information assisted in evaluating the experiences, challenges, expectations, beliefs and values of the residents in the two social housing modes.

1.7.1.2 Interviews
Structured but open-ended, one-on-one interviews were conducted with housing practitioners, the managers of the respective social housing institutions and housing caretakers. Open-ended questions were also used in sessions with focus groups of the two of social housing modes, to discuss the responses obtained from the surveys, regarding perceptions and the challenges experienced from the residents in the social housing schemes. The focus group comprised of 15 to 20 randomly selected residents. The purpose of the focus groups was to provide important data through direct interaction between the researcher and the respondents discussing their perceptions about their living conditions, housing management and environment. The focus groups were also used to further explain the general responses received from the questionnaires.

Interviews were also conducted with the following housing officials and experts to obtain expert information on the history of social housing, development and management of existing social housing schemes and policies:

- **Patrick Lemmens**, chief executive officer (as at time of the interview) of the First Metro Housing Company, a company that provides social housing schemes in the Durban metro area namely Hawaaii apartments, The Strathdon flats, Esselen apartments, Martinez flats and Weltevreden building.
- **Laura Hunt**, formerly of the Built Environment Support Group (BESG). She is an architect, and housing expert. She was the project designer and leader involved with the Shayamoya social housing scheme in Cato Manor.
• Edward Shoza from the Department of Housing, Ethekwini municipality. He was a member of the committee representing the municipality in the Shayamoya housing project.
• Sheila Peters, caretaker of The Strathdon apartments.
• Mandla Thusi, caretaker of Hawaii apartments.
• Themba Shangase and Jais Ramniranjan, caretaker and housing supervisor of Acacia Park respectively.
• Thabo Kunene, one of the caretakers of the Shayamoya housing project.

1.7.1.3 On-site Investigation
Site investigation and visual evaluation of the buildings and environments of the two different models were done through observation and photographs taken into record. Assessments of the buildings and their environments was done using criteria obtained from the Social Housing Foundation guidelines for quality social housing design as a benchmark for evaluating the social housing mode. An appraisal form was designed to capture observable physical characteristics of individual buildings with a range of questions under the following broad topics: quality and state of the physical aspects of the building; existing condition of the units; functionality of services, site landscape; safety and security; site conditions around the building; and the general state of the neighborhood. The results of the assessments provided a foundation for a comparison between the qualities of the built environments of the two different models and also helped in answering the research question of this study.

1.7.2 Secondary Sources
Secondary data was derived from relevant literature from books, dissertations, journals, reports and electronic data, which are listed in the bibliography. Literature such as books, journals, reports and dissertations were obtained from the libraries of social housing companies, the University of Kwazulu Natal, and the then Durban City Council (now Ethekwini municipality). The Internet provided information on
international experiences on social housing and written documents of social housing issues from the Social Housing Foundation.

1.7.3 Data Analysis
The responses from the questionnaires and interviews from each type of housing project describing the satisfaction with the units, services, environment, social and recreational facilities, costs and management were tabulated and analysed. The results were interpreted by making use of graphs, bar charts, and pie charts. All the interpreted results were compared with each other to reach conclusions about which social housing mode is better.

1.7.4 Type of Comparative study
The type of comparative study style used for the research was a normative style of comparison. In a normative analysis, one of the principal criteria is evaluative like "satisfaction", "usefulness" etc (Vihma, 1998). The aim of the study is to point out the best (in this respect) among the alternatives that are being studied. Moreover, the final aim was not only to find the better social housing mode of the two typologies, but also to use the comparative analysis to provide grounds for improvement planning in their existing circumstances.

1.7.5 Limitations of the Study
There are four limitations that need to be acknowledged and addressed regarding this study. The first limitation concerns the disadvantages of using qualitative and quantitative research methods, which include limited outcomes to only those outlined in the original research proposal due to closed type questions and the structured format; difficulty in explaining the difference in quality and quantity of information obtained from different respondents; and arriving at different, non-consistent conclusions (Cassell and Symon, 1994). The questionnaire used for this study consisted mostly of closed type questions therefore the respondents had limited opportunities to give reasons for their answers and perceptions. This limitation was resolved through discussions with focus groups in the two social
housing typologies. The focus groups were used as representatives of the respondents and they (focus groups) provided informed reasons to the responses and perceptions of the respondents.

The second limitation has to do with the information obtained from the focus groups. Focus groups can be cumbersome to assemble, as the use of such a method could discourage participation from inarticulate or unconfident respondents. Secondly, the group nature of the method precludes confidentiality of responses. Lastly, separating an individual view from the collective response can be complex, as individual respondents are influenced by group responses (Gibbs, 1997). This limitation was resolved through effective coordination of the meetings with the focus groups by focusing on the necessary topic questions and allowing everyone in the group to express their views briefly and comprehensively.

Another limitation was the difficulty in retrieving financial data from the social housing institutions. The housing institutions refused access to available financial information due to confidentiality issues. The lack of this particular information made it difficult to assess the social housing typologies on the basis of costs benefits, affordability and funds generated through the payment of rent. Therefore issues on affordability were researched and assessed based on the perceptions and views of the respondents and the focus groups. The final and probably most important limitation associated with this study is the limited number of case studies used for the broad generalizations of social housing developments in South Africa. However, despite the limitations associated with this study and its methodologies, the acquired information and data analyzed in this study were beneficial in identifying the different issues affecting social housing typologies. It also serves as a basis for further research and analysis of social housing in South Africa.
1.8 CHAPTER OUTLINE

Chapter one is an introduction to the research. It examines the research problem and outlines the aims of the research. It highlights the research and subsidiary questions and hypothesis, which the dissertation sets out to analyze. This chapter also looks at the key concepts and definitions. It highlights the scope of the research and the constraints anticipated and experienced. This chapter also discusses the research methodology describing the way the research was conducted, methods of primary and secondary data collection, and analysis.

Chapter two discusses the theoretical and conceptual framework of the study. It discusses the key theories or theoretical perspectives that inform the study and provides a theoretical background on social housing in South Africa. It explores the history of social housing, existing policy and funding frameworks. The chapter also reviews literature on the design considerations of greenfield and refurbished, converted buildings, highlighting their advantages and disadvantages.

Chapter three discusses the international perspectives of social housing in the United Kingdom, United States of America and Canada, the Netherlands, Germany and some countries in Africa. It analyses and examines various models of social housing internationally, challenges and lessons, and their implications for South Africa.

Chapter four describes in detail the case studies for the research study. It examines each case study by exploring its history, background, location and other general information. Also, it discusses the research findings from data analysis with respect to each of the case studies.

Chapter five presents the conclusion and recommendations. It revisits the research question and hypothesis, and suggests recommendations for the two types of social housing schemes based on the findings.
CHAPTER TWO
LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 INTRODUCTION

This chapter discusses the key theoretical perspectives that inform this study, a background of social housing in South Africa, the design issues of this type of housing delivery and its existing policy and funding frameworks.

2.1 THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES

2.1.1 The Welfare State Paradigm

According to Nevitte (1977), a “welfare state is founded on a universal principle of social justice, where institutions which create and hold the property should satisfy the concept of justice”. In this study, the welfare state is defined as state provision of social services to individuals or families in particular circumstances or contingencies, basic social security, health, social welfare, education and training, and housing. These may be further subdivided into benefits in cash and services in kind (Gough, 1979). The welfare state goal is the satisfaction of human needs and the improvement of human welfare by imposing more enlightening values over those embodied in the capitalist market system. The existing example of this type of welfare in South Africa in the context of social housing, is the provision of institutional subsidy.

The Institutional Subsidy mechanism targets institutions that provide tenure arrangements (such as rental, installment sale, share block or co-operative) to subsidy beneficiaries as an alternative to immediate ownership. The mechanism provides a subsidy that amounts to R41,027 per beneficiary household, to the institutions providing housing for those beneficiaries (www.housing.gov.za). The Institutional Subsidy mechanism is different from the other subsidy mechanisms in that it:

- Provides a standard rate subsidy of R41 027 in respect of all households earning not more than R3 500 per month.
- Pays the subsidy out in the name of the institution and not in the name of the beneficiary.
- Does not necessarily provide the beneficiary with immediate individual ownership.

The subsidy is provided on the condition that the institution will remain the owner of the property for at least four years after the date upon which the household takes occupation for the first time. If a beneficiary vacates the premises funded with the Institutional Subsidy, he/she will be able to apply for a housing subsidy elsewhere before taking transfer (www.housing.gov.za).

The institution, as both subsidy recipient and developer, is the central focus of the Institutional Subsidy policy and the role of the institution in this process is two-fold. Firstly, to develop stock and provide this to beneficiaries and possibly non-beneficiaries also on a rental, installment sale, share block or co-operative basis. Secondly, to provide ongoing, long term management services in respect of the stock, for at least as long as the stock is owned by the institution. Of significant importance is its capacity to manage the housing stock funded with an Institutional Subsidy, in a manner befitting the nature of the policy, over the long term. The rules relating to Institutional Subsidies therefore focus particularly on the nature of the institution, its legal status (i.e. a section 21 company, a share block company, a co-operative or communal property association), its main objective, and the type of housing it may develop, how residents are represented, tenure options and how the housing stock is managed (www.housing.gov.za).

2.1.2 The Place Making Approach

The term “place making” refers to the creation of urban environments with a unique sense of place. This approach is at the core of the issue of environmental quality in urban settlement formation. It relates to promoting a sense of uniqueness based on local context and finding a balance between natural systems and human need (Behrens and Watson, 1997). According to Dewar and
Utenbogaardt (1995), the creation of urban settlements that reflect a sense of place and express the unique nature of people’s natural and cultural setting is essential because it recognizes the importance of a sense of belonging. It also recognizes how people use “place making” to meet their need to celebrate life and the institutions they value. Different places offer different life experiences, and these experiences mould peoples’ perceptions, values and self-identity. Urban places are records and expressions of the cultural values and experiences of those who create them (Behrens and Watson, 1997). In essence, people and the environment they live in can be seen as a single inseparable unit.

The place making approach also identifies other qualities that make a good environment which include design of urban areas should have a human scale; adequate and equal access to social, economic opportunities for a wide range of people; and the environment must maximize individual choice in terms of movement, activities and opportunities. This approach is useful for this study in assessing the quality of the built environment created in the two models of social housing developments.

2.1.3 Quality of Life (Aristotle’s approach)

Aristotle’s approach on the “quality of life” states that a particular thing, object or human being attains a good “quality of life” when the object satisfies its basic function or purpose in life (WDER, 1993). The basic function of social housing is to provide low-income households with an affordable housing option, incorporating rental and ownership tenure, as well as other services which provide community development, empowerment and promote a lifestyle conducive to community living. This theoretical approach is useful to this study in assessing which type of social housing development satisfies the quality of life goals.
2.1.4 Empowerment (in a Housing context)

The argument identified here is that from the definition of the concept of empowerment in chapter one, do the initiatives and objectives of social housing enable its beneficiaries to be empowered or not? In this study, empowerment will be assessed by the level of participation of the residents in the social housing typologies. Social housing can be viewed as an empowerment tool because it is often seen as a more affordable form of inner city housing compared to other types of housing delivery for low income households. Because it is not for profit and running costs are kept low, it is expected that social housing units should be more affordable. Also social housing has different tenure options that allow residents to make decisions that best benefit them given their circumstances. Therefore, for empowerment to take place in the housing context, the residents must be in a position to choose their own way forward, becoming more independent or interdependent, and deciding for themselves their level of individual and group participation in the affairs of the housing scheme.

Social housing beneficiaries need the knowledge and skills to address any unequal balance of power between landlord and tenant (for example, rights to switch tenure, rights to re-sourcing, rights to minimum service standards, and rights to negotiate with the landlord), control over an appropriate level of resources for their own organization, and suitable arrangements with service providers in the area over matters pertaining to the scheme. From the above, it can be deduced that, though theoretically social housing could empower its beneficiaries but in reality, especially in the South African context, not all these elements are available to the end users of this housing delivery. This is because there is still widespread lack of education about social housing among the beneficiaries and the general public. This reduces the level of involvement and participation of residents as well as the power they have on their housing needs and requirements, resulting in them having little influence in the management and organisation of their social housing scheme.
In comparing the two types of social housing developments, the empowerment process can be appraised in two ways, evaluating its nature and measuring its outcomes. In order to evaluate the nature, this study refers to Garba’s (1999) distinction between endogenous and exogenous empowerment. The exogenous view stands for the belief that empowerment is something that outsiders can deliver to the people while endogenous empowerment refers to a view that it is only the people who can empower themselves and outsiders should merely be facilitators who help people to act by creating enabling conditions. The nature of the process can therefore be evaluated by looking at the extent to which the “outside change agent” restricts its role to that of a facilitator or “enabler” rather than acting on people’s behalf.

2.1.5 Social Development - A Theoretical Perspective

This section discusses the concept and need for social development, an important subject as social housing is an element of social development. Also discussed are various critiques on the successes and failures of social development as well as role of social housing in providing social development in South Africa. Development is a function of society’s capacity to organize human energies and productive resources to respond to opportunities and challenges by strengthening people’s capacity to determine their own values and priorities, and organize to act on them. Development is about individuals becoming empowered to bring about positive changes in their lives; about personal growth together with public action; about the process and outcome of challenging poverty, oppression, and discrimination; about the realization of human potential through social and economic justice. Above all, it is about the process of transforming lives and transforming societies (Eade and Williams, 1995). It is widely acknowledged in the development industry that postwar development strategies have not comprehensively brought the intended benefits to much of the world’s population. Hence, there is a need to devise new meanings, agenda, processes and targets for development in order to have a better understanding of the reasons for the shortcomings of past development strategies, so that appropriate action can be taken.
Most importantly, there is a need to explore ideas about what development constitutes and the important relationship between theories and practice (Kathori and Minogue, 2002).

Social development planning is fundamentally concerned with the eradication of poverty and the pursuit of equity in the identification of more holistic solutions to development problems (Grusec and Lytton, 1988). The concept of the ‘unified’ approach, outlined by the United Nations and adopted in programmes elaborated by many of its agencies, forms a focus for this new thinking (Wolfe, 1983). Far from being merely a question of technological fix and economic investment in industrial productivity, effective development can be accomplished only if the complex social structural issues which inhibit or channel development are themselves addressed (Kathori and Minogue, 2002). Social development addresses problems of access to and distribution of resources, provision of basic needs, the room to maneuver in straitened circumstances, and the effectiveness of the use of those scarce resources. It examines the different value premises on which policy decisions are made, and the contexts in which they are elaborated. It takes as its starting point the willingness of governments to intervene to direct development efforts, and to contribute resources to the satisfaction of basic needs and the redistribution of assets on a more open basis. It also recognizes the inability of many governments to intervene effectively, and the increasing importance of non-governmental organizations (NGOs) in the provision of resources, to supplement those of governments (Marsden and Oakley, 1990).

Social institutions act as powerful stimuli for development by increasing the frequency, intensity and efficiency of social interactions. In South Africa, the principle of integrated social development planning is fundamental to the government’s housing development approach and is the corner stone for the creation of sustainable human settlements (The White Paper, 1994). Social housing plays an important role in implementing integrated development plans by ensuring that firstly, the housing stock is well located within urban and inner-city areas. This provides residents with easy access to inter alia transportation and
transport routes, amenities and facilities, and thereby contributing to their quality of life. Secondly, social integration will be promoted by discouraging discrimination amongst residents and adhering to the provision in the Rental Act 50 of 1999. Integration will also be facilitated by creation of culture which supports norms necessary for the sustainable development and growth. Mixed communities, as well as mixed land use development also form part of social integration, as this reflects systems and processes in operation in urban and inner-city areas. Thirdly, economic integration can be ensured through considering the mixture of income groups in social housing developments.

It is important to note that development is a process, not a program. It is an activity of the society as a whole that can be stimulated, directed or assisted by government policies, laws and special programs, but it cannot be compelled or carried out by administrative or external agencies on behalf of the population. Development strategies should aim to release people’s initiative, not to substitute for it. Human beings are the ultimate resource and determinant of the development process. It is a process of people becoming more aware of their own creative potentials and taking initiative to realize those potentials. Human awareness, aspiration and attitudes determine society’s response to circumstances and development occurs only at the points where humanity recognizes its power to determine results (Marsden and Oakley, 1990).

2.2 BACKGROUND OF SOCIAL HOUSING IN SOUTH AFRICA

The concept of social housing is based on the strength of a providing affordable housing, using an institutional approach in accessing and managing affordable housing for low-income earners who receive government housing assistance (institutional subsidy). The intention of the social housing approach is to provide low-income households with an affordable housing option, incorporating rental and occasionally ownership tenure, as well other services which provide development and empowerment benefits and promote a lifestyle conducive to community living (Wicht, 1999).
In South Africa, social housing initiatives are the only form of subsidized housing being offered in the inner cities (www.shf.org.za), and because of this focus in high density inner city areas it is used as a tool for urban regeneration. The reason for this is that a large population, living in generally exploited conditions in these high density areas, is predisposed to embracing social housing as a way of achieving more conducive and secure living conditions. A typical scenario of the inner city housing displays pockets of poverty with badly managed deteriorating residential stocks, absentee landlords, poorly organised tenants, substantial rates and service arrears. Social housing is able to reverse this trend as it can mobilize substantial public and private sector resources to effect much-needed rejuvenation (Ravestein, 1997). The role of social housing in addressing the current housing crisis began gaining prominence from 1993 due to a rise in demand for inner city housing. The catalyst was the Seven Buildings project in Johannesburg, in which the tenants of seven inner-city buildings made an offer to their common landlord to buy the buildings in which they lived. Through their efforts to address their own situation, they set in motion a debate which resulted in the promulgation of institutional subsidy guidelines (www.shf.org.za).

2.3 POLICY FRAMEWORK FOR SOCIAL HOUSING

As social housing is one of the options offered under the government’s subsidy program, it is necessary to first discuss it within the overall South African housing policy context. The Constitution of South Africa states that ‘Everyone has the right to have access to adequate housing and that in order to realize this right the state must take reasonable legislative and other measures, within its available resources, to achieve the progressive realization of this right’. Under the democratic political dispensation, urban and housing policies have radically shifted from the apartheid mindset to recognizing that the dysfunctional and unsustainable state of the urban areas need to be addressed with urgency (Wicht, 1999). Given the severe affordability problems at the lower end of the housing market, the provision of end user subsidies is seen to be a vital part of the government’s
response to the housing challenge with the subsidies varying in function and implementation depending on the existing status of the beneficiary.

The National Housing Subsidy Scheme provides grants to qualifying individuals according to their household’s income. Allocations, made on an annual basis from the national budget, are channeled to the nine Provincial Housing Boards and disbursed to various approved projects. The government offers housing subsidies to enable low income individuals access decent affordable housing. Of the various forms of subsidies available (project-linked, consolidation, institutional, relocation and rural subsidies), the institutional subsidy is relevant to this study because of its applicability to social housing. The Institutional Housing Subsidy is a funding mechanism used by the government, specifically focused on assisting people who qualify in terms of the set criteria to obtain the security of tenure, through a managed housing programme under the auspices of Housing Institutions. The current grant amount is R41 027 (www.housing.gov.za). The target market for social housing is therefore anyone earning between the income brackets R0 – R3 500 per month. Because qualifying residents should be able to afford monthly repayments, the income brackets R1 500 – R3 500 per month are normally preferred.

The social housing product is primarily government-subsidized residential housing that meets quality standards and provides secure tenure to its residents in an area suitably located to all socio-economic opportunities. The following are principles of social housing relevant to this study; they guide developers and the government in creating an enabling environment for the delivery of social housing.

- To promote urban restructuring through the social, physical, and economic integration of housing development into existing areas, likely to be urban or inner-city areas (Social Housing Policy, 2005).
- To promote the establishment of well-managed, quality rental housing options for the poor by increasing the range of accommodation choices
through rental housing stock in areas of opportunity (Social Housing Policy, 2005).

- To deliver housing for a range of income groups (including, *inter alia*, middle income, emerging middle class, working class and the poor) in such a way as to allow social integration and financial cross subsidization (Social Housing Policy, 2005).

- To foster the creation of quality living environments for low-income households by providing adequate spaces to accommodate recreation and other needs related to higher density residential living with attention to good design and construction quality (Social Housing Policy, 2005).

- To promote a safe, harmonious, and socially responsible environment both internal to the project and in the immediate urban environs (Social Housing Policy, 2005).

The realization of the principles mentioned above have been hindered by a number of challenges identified in the current social housing policy and funding structures. The social housing sector is currently not being regulated by any dedicated legislation, and this has complicated and impaired growth in the sector (www.housing.gov.za). The social housing bill introduced in July 2007 has been developed to provide a legal framework for the regulation of the social housing sector. It is hoped that the legislative and regulatory framework will ensure a viable and sustainable social housing sector, which will also contribute to the overall functioning of the housing sector. The new bill was inspired by the Department of Housing's Breaking New Ground Strategy. The primary aim of this strategy is to redirect and enhance existing housing policies and mechanisms to move towards more responsive and effective housing delivery.
2.4 FINANCIAL MECHANISMS FOR SOCIAL HOUSING

This section discusses the market for social housing, the financial implications of providing social housing, the existing financial constraints experienced in the South African context and the impact of the new social housing bill. It is essential to analyze the potential market for social housing delivery in order to estimate the demand for it by identified beneficiary groups. 53% of the population of South Africa lived in urban areas in 2002, and rental housing formed 31% of the total housing stock in 1999 with the majority of this rental accommodation (69%) located in urban areas. As social housing is primarily an urban housing delivery option, this indicates that the provision of social housing developments is most suited to urban areas to accommodate the housing demand of low income households drawn to urban areas (Social Housing Policy, 2005). The rental option is an important and popular tenure option in developing countries because of the rising costs of building materials, combined with increasing scarcity and rising prices of well-located land. Rental housing should provide low-income households an affordable entry point into the housing market. However, the social housing sector faces financial challenges which hinder its affordability. The existing funding mechanism for social housing is insufficient to support affordability and maintenance of this type of housing delivery.

The funding of social housing is provided through various institutions. The main players in the financial framework are the National Housing Finance Corporation (NHFC) and its Housing Institution Development Fund (HIDF), the National Urban Reconstruction and Housing Agency (NURCHA), the Home Loan Guarantee Fund and the Social Housing Foundation. The NHFC is a state owned development finance institution established by the National Department of Housing in 1996, to offer housing finance, project facilitation, technical assistance and retail service finance to private and public entities ensuring availability of housing stock and housing finance for the low-moderate-income households. The HIDF provides working capital finance for institutional start-up and project finance for the first project of a housing institution, on terms more sustainable to the risk profile of these ventures. NURCHA’s bridging finance loan supports qualifying developers
and contractors who are undertaking affordable housing projects. NURCHA can provide between 70% and 95% of the bridging finance required for the project (calculated on the peak working capital requirement). In order for housing institutions to access funding, they must be an established company that is incorporated in terms of the Companies Act, 1973 (Act No 61 of 1973), a section 21 company or otherwise an association formed in terms of the Cooperatives Act, 1981 (Act No 91 of 1981). They are also required to prove a satisfactory level of organizational capacity (www.shf.org.za).

Despite the existence of financial institutions mentioned, financing for social housing developments still presents a great challenge to social housing institutions due to the limitations of the institutional subsidy. The institutional subsidy has been seen more as a burden on a project than an enhancement, due to the fact it has not been adjusted over time for inflation, and its restrictive effect on the ability of the project to set market-related rents (Social Housing Trends, 2006). This high cost of funds may impact on the financial viability of the proposed development. The institutional subsidy provides the full subsidy of R41,027 for income earners of up to R3 500 per month (joint household income) but differential allocations are not made according to the different income bands. As highlighted in chapter one, housing institutions struggle to get additional funds to complete housing developments and keep monthly rentals affordable to low-income households. Another predominant challenge is the high cost of suitably located land close to jobs and other social facilities, which impacts on the ability to deliver housing at affordable levels (Rakodi and Leduka 2003). If innovative methods for cross subsidization, additional subsidies, and affordable loans are not implemented, then social housing will only have a future for the middle income groups (Social Housing Trends, 2005).

In order to make social housing more affordable for its primary target market, there are several considerations that need implementation. The social housing bill of 2007, introduced by the Department of Housing, was devised to change the current status of social housing in South Africa by introducing new policies and
strategies in funding and land acquisition to facilitate the delivery of social housing. The bill proposed that the price of land for social housing projects can be subsidized rather than allowed to be determined by market forces. This will be achieved through municipalities acquiring all land in line with Municipal Integrated development plans and spatial development frameworks. Then land will be made available for housing development in line with the housing chapter of integrated development plans. Secondly, it proposes that existing government subsidies can be extended to infrastructure, and new forms of credit created for the providers and beneficiaries of social housing. Funding support for social housing will thus shift away from the current emphasis on uniform individual subsidies, towards equity support for social institutions, determined as a percentage of the total capital cost of the project (www.housing.gov.za). The mixing of different income levels in a housing association should be promoted to alleviate the single class neighborhood.

Thirdly, there should be easier access to start-up grants for training that is required to prepare communities to be part of decision making, delivery and post construction process (Wicht, 1999). The bill also deals with some of the general principles applying to the social housing issue in South Africa, such as ensuring that the process of enabling the delivery of finance is controlled and regulating the environment for affordable housing by providers with public money (www.housing.gov.za).

2.5 DESIGN ISSUES OF SOCIAL HOUSING
This section discusses the various design considerations that concern all types of social housing developments. It highlights the design elements and issues that define the quality of the built environment. Design elements are important because social housing is not only about providing accommodation for people, but is also committed to providing sustainable, living environments that improve the quality of life of people. An important characteristic of social housing is its concern with the social aspect of providing physical living environments that enable the achievement of social goals. Its main design objective is to suit the needs of the residents. In general, the housing schemes are designed to fit into and enrich the
neighborhood, provide for the range of residents’ needs, integrate residents and the neighborhood, and make every resident proud of his or her home. In more concise terms, design considerations include:

- The scale of the project in which modes of access and circulation must be efficient and manageable.
- Spatial layout of the housing area to maximize collective space and orientation.
- Spatial layout of individual units to maximize internal space and thermal efficiency.
- Quality of the building finishes must be durable with low maintenance (www.usn.org.za).

Each place has its own history of how people have lived and continue to live there. People have developed patterns of living to suit their needs and express their cultures. Attention must be given to such established patterns in the neighborhood in which the social housing project is to be located. This reinforces the special characteristics of the community, enabling the social housing project to respect and incorporate people’s preferences and priorities (www.usn.org.za).

Social housing projects often have a fairly high occupational density, hence it is important to ensure that there is good quality communal space for activities for which spaces are unable to be accommodated within the units. This is important for both internal and external communal spaces (www.usn.org.za). Units must be designed to be flexible enough to meet a wide range of needs of the different households. Multi-purpose rooms are important, for example, the living room of a family unit may also accommodate eating or sleeping uses. Being able to convert single person accommodation to family units (or vice versa) can also be important. For example, a unit can be designed to be used either as a self-contained family unit or as accommodation for a single individual sharing a bathroom and kitchen space. This is part of the concept of lifetime homes, where homes are designed to meet changing needs occurring throughout one family’s lifetime or to meet the varying needs of different occupants of the same home (Cummins, 1999). This
means that dwellings should be able to meet the varying needs of occupants over their lifetimes, including needs associated with moderate mobility difficulties and the normal frailty associated with old age.

Trees and vegetation are an essential component of a desirable living environment. One of the most noticeable differences between affluent suburbs and low-income areas is the lack of trees and other vegetation in low-income areas. In the Netherlands, the Building Code of Practice makes it a legislative condition that wherever possible, landscaping with trees and vegetation be part of all building developments (Holdsworth and Sealey, 1992). The inclusion or consideration of vegetation in the built environment can have beneficial effects such as:

- Enhancing the appearance of an area and creating a sense of enclosure, e.g. trees and bushes along roads and around public spaces.
- Providing shelter from noise, sun, wind and rain.
- Filtering pollution as trees with a bushy canopy and broad leaves are able to trap dust and other pollutants and act as air purifiers.
- Reduction in run-off in the soil where vegetation acts as a sponge to absorb water, thus improving on-site drainage
- Providing fruit and vegetables. For example, 50 square metre food garden can produce about 300kg of vegetable per year, providing for the needs of four people (Holdsworth and Sealey, 1992).

Principles of energy efficiency and sustainability are also noteworthy considerations integrated into the design of social housing developments. Proper design can reduce energy costs through the correct building orientation, attention to natural lighting and reuse of building materials. Energy consumption forms about 20 - 40% of low income households’ monthly expenditure (Ranson, 1991). A noticeable trend with existing housing units, for example, is a serious lack of ventilation and day lighting. The building needs to be suitably ventilated and have sufficient natural illumination during the day. Ventilation is necessary to provide fresh air and remove in-door air pollutants via operable windows and airbricks.
Windows are also essential for providing light during the day. According to Ranson (1991), the penetration of direct sunlight into a living accommodation has favourable psycho-physiological effects on both thermal comfort and biological activity of the body, and also has a bactericidal effect. Daylight gives occupants a feeling of direct contact with the outside world, an important factor for mental and social well-being. Finally, a good quality built environment must have the following elements:

- **Scale**: This involves the scale of an urban environment. Layouts should be planned to a human scale as opposed to a vehicular scale. The term “human scale” is used to refer to the design of the heights, widths, surfacing and operations of the various elements of a layout plan, from the perspective of the person on foot. In inadequate housing conditions, the scale of an urban environment has a profound impact on the quality of life experienced by the occupant households. This is because residential streets and public spaces are unable to act as extensions of small crowded dwellings, providing opportunities for playing, meeting and celebrating important events. Most public environments especially in those around low income households are inconvenient, unsafe and uncomfortable for the residents (Social Housing Foundation, 2001).

- **Access**: The road layout and the location of facilities should be concerned with matching the circulation needs of the end-user communities and ensuring that access is maximized for the greatest number of people. In the context of low levels of private car ownership, the circulation network should enable easy access to public transport stops and non-residential activities (Behrens and Watson, 1997).

- **Opportunity**: This relates to economic opportunities created by the arrangement of infrastructural investments in space. Where there is high level of unemployment, layout plans should be concerned with maximizing inherent economic opportunities in large congregations of people, by creating necessary spatial requirements for viable small commercial enterprises and informal street trading (if necessary). Economic opportunity
across space is closely related to accessibility of various locations to consumers. In this regard, the design and location of intersections, public transport stops, public facilities which attract movement, and the treatment of public spaces, are of importance (Behrens and Watson, 1997).

- **Efficiency**: This relates to the efficient land utilization and service provision, and recognition of the functional and spatial relationships between different elements of the layout plan. The functional interrelationships between facilities and services should be recognized so that they can be planned in an efficient and systematic way, which reduces the costs of installing these services and facilitates good maintenance (Behrens and Watson, 1997).

- **Choice**: This deals with the maximization of choices available to the end-user communities. In contrast to layouts that offer limited choices, layout plans that offer as many different choices as possible regarding service provision, urban surroundings, movement modes and so on are more likely to meet the diverse range of household needs that. Most low income housing deliveries have limited choices to the end-users because there is often a little or no intervention of the public in the layout planning of the housing units (Behrens and Watson, 1997).

In conclusion, this chapter discussed the theoretical perspectives that inform this study: the welfare state paradigm, the place making approach, quality of life, empowerment and social development. Secondly, this chapter discussed the status of social housing in South Africa, highlighting its background, policy and principles, financial system and processes. This chapter has also identified the current predominant challenges facing social housing, and discussed a number of recommendations devised by the Department of Housing through the new social housing bill to alleviate the existing problems. Finally, social housing design guidelines were discussed to identify the design elements that influence the quality of the built environment and make the construction of social housing developments affordable.
CHAPTER THREE
INTERNATIONAL PERSPECTIVES OF SOCIAL HOUSING

3.0 INTRODUCTION
In this chapter, international experiences and perspectives of social housing are discussed with emphasis on ideas, innovations and policies of social housing delivery in different countries. In addition, illustrative examples of social housing schemes that are operational in the identified countries are highlighted. The countries discussed are from Europe and North America. These countries, namely United Kingdom (UK), The Netherlands, Denmark, Germany, Canada, and the United States of America (USA) have established successful social housing schemes. The guidelines and strategies governing these schemes can be used to facilitate growth and development of the South African social housing sector. Hence, it is necessary to reflect on international experiences and lessons in social housing and use them as a guide.

Housing associations are the most commonly known institutional form of social housing delivery, and can be found all over the world. Social housing has a long history, especially in the European countries. It originated in Europe over 100 years ago but developed dramatically after both world wars, largely because of the housing shortage during the post-war reconstruction period. It is particularly strong in the Netherlands, Belgium, France, Scandinavia and the United Kingdom. It is also a significant public housing program in the USA and Canada, as well as other developing countries in Latin America, Asia and Africa (Ramphal, 2000). The two most common ownership forms of social housing internationally are:

- State or municipal ownership
- Non-profit housing associations and co-operatives

In general, municipal ownership has a longer history and is still the larger sector in many countries though the balance is changing in response to economic and political policies supporting the development of independent social housing institutions (Lux, 2001). Housing co-operatives, democratic housing associations
where members co-operate to achieve the aims of the organization, are popular in the United States, Canada, France, Denmark and the Netherlands.

3.1 UNITED KINGDOM
The non-market sector, comprising municipal housing and housing association stock, is a major vehicle for delivery of social objectives in UK policies. The sector has contracted and changed significantly in structure over the last decade. In contrast to 1980, when municipalities and associations provided 31% and 2% of homes respectively, the 1995 figures record that councils now provide 19% and associations 4% of homes (www.jrf.org.uk). That is, there has been a major reduction in municipal stock and new investment, and a shift of new investment to the association sector. This shift primarily reflects central government investment limits.

British social housing operates in a different social and economic context from the other countries in Europe. The country experiences higher levels of inequality and poverty, thus the social rental sector acts as a means of providing a safety net for vulnerable households. However, in other countries, social rental’s role in enhancing affordability for a wider range of income groups is more evident. The British housing benefit system is distinctive, having several unusual features which can be attributed to its function as a safety net. In the British housing association sector, there is a high level of reliance on capital grant more than any other country. The most common form of subsidy is interest rate subsidy, which is often reduced over time. As many social rental systems move towards financial surplus, these surpluses are sometimes captured in part by government or redistributed between landlords through mergers (www.jrf.org.uk).

The UK faces critical housing issues despite considerable policy expenditures which include tax concessions. These issues relate primarily to inadequate resource levels to implement policies, access to and quality of housing rather than affordability. There is a significant growth and spread in the concentration of low income, unemployed, dependent and single parent households within local authority housing. In large and small towns as well as in central city and peripheral
housing schemes, there is growing socio-economic segregation within council housing, and between social renting and the market sectors. In the council sector as a whole, less than one household in three has an employed member and in poorer estates this figure often falls below ten percent (Maclennan and Williams, 1990).

In spite of the aforementioned, the UK social housing sector has been innovative in the bid to deliver. The emphasis on housing associations has challenged municipal monopoly and enhanced tenant involvement in development as well as service provision. Partnerships between the local authority, housing associations and private sector have developed (www.jrf.org.uk). The housing associations’ role has increased in providing for the homeless, elderly, disabled and disadvantaged, through various new solutions such as better-equipped and staffed 24-hour daily operational reception centres; improved temporary accommodation and support mechanisms for the young and homeless in transition to permanent housing and foyers; working with government in promoting Care and Repair/Staying Put Schemes, whereby voluntary and not-for-profit agencies assist the elderly, through grants and organizational support, to improve and remain in previously sub-standard homes; policy innovation in relation to asylum seekers has become more positive (www.jrf.org.uk). Housing associations have promoted barrier-free homes, ethnically-appropriate homes and in Southern Britain, black-led housing associations. Associations have played a leading role in implementing care-in-the-community policies to house residents who leave institutional care.

Furthermore, there has been a significant increase in resources directed towards regeneration of rundown social housing estates, amounting to over £3 billion annually. The conception and implementation of these programmes was the flagship of UK housing policy in the 1990s and there has been a continuing evolution in the approach. The management improvement emphasis of the early 1980s (Priority Estates Project) has been supplemented by major increases in government financial support as well as private investment. Projects have moved from a housing only emphasis to integrate social, employment and environmental concerns, for example, the Scottish Partnerships such as Whitfield in Dundee, Castlemilk in Glasgow and English Housing Action Trusts.
A new competitive bidding process for integrated funding (the Single Regeneration Budget) has encouraged strategic and partnership approaches in England. Community involvement in the programmes is high and plays a key role in rebuilding citizen and community confidence (Maclennan and Williams, 1990). The housing-led regeneration programmes have done much to reduce social exclusion in some of Britain’s worst social housing estates. Doubts persist, however, as to the sustainability of the changes, given the continuing low incomes and high unemployment rates of the residents involved (www.jrf.org.uk).

### 3.1.1 Covent Garden, England

This popular social housing scheme in England was designed to be a durable and manageable environment in which low income families can live comfortably in the inner city. The scheme has a mix of one- and two-bedroom units and it is close to amenities and services with transport links. The architect ensured that the image of the building does not look like a typical low-income block of apartments. Figure 3.1 shows the distinctive façade of the front view of the building in the midst of neighboring buildings. The façade of the building is finished with different building materials (such as timber, concrete and steel). The use of these different materials gives the building a distinct look and discourages the notion that affordable housing usually looks cheap and unattractive. Figure 3.2 shows more features used by the architect to make the image of the building interesting: The façade here is finished in face bricks and timber; the windows above the entrance doors are intentionally slanted to emphasize the entrance to the units.

*Figure 3.1 and 3.2: (Source: RIBA, June, 2000)*
3.1.2 Lessons for South Africa

The main lessons from the British social housing model are: the immense support of the government, the different uses of social housing in providing shelter for different people of the society and the initiatives employed to improve the image of the physical buildings. The British social housing sector has substantial financial support from the government. Annually, millions of pounds are advanced by governmental financial institutions to finance social housing institutions (Lux, 2001). The government generally provides considerable capital subsidies to cover the costs of developing acceptable quality units and provides funds to cover the running costs on an annual basis. The government also ensures that rents are affordable to the target population and provides initiatives to reduce land costs and tax incentives to registered social housing institutions. Social housing is also used as a tool for providing adequate housing for the vulnerable people of the society (i.e. the elderly and disabled). From this, the lesson learnt is the application of different building materials and architectural innovations used to create a suitable building image for an affordable housing development. This innovation curbs the general impression that affordable housing buildings are simple and unattractive.

3.2 THE NETHERLANDS

Western European governments have always been active in the area of housing policy, and the Dutch government is no exception. One of the main self-proclaimed goals of Dutch housing policy is to support low-income groups in order to allow them to live in decent living quarters. In addition to pursuing this income redistribution (or merit good) objective, policy makers have used housing policy to solve a number of market failures that occur as a result of the economic characteristics of the housing market. These market failures include market power in the landlord-tenant relationship, external effects (including segregation in cities), public goods (such as underinvestment in the built environment) and adverse selection on the rental market as a result of information asymmetry between landlord and tenants. Adverse selection occurs if landlords are not able to distinguish between ‘good’ and ‘bad’ tenants and only offer accommodation at rents that exclude certain groups or discriminate amongst them (Dieleman, 1998).
There are several instruments that the government has used to achieve the objectives of housing policy. These include the provision of rent allowances to households on the demand side of the market, or of construction or exploitation subsidies to those supplying housing. The main Dutch social housing principles and policies are as follows:

- **Freedom of contract and negotiation of parties in the market (rent policy):** The freedom of contract is conditioned by protective rules in order to guarantee that tenants of social housing schemes can negotiate on equal financial footing with their landlords (Salet, 1998).

- **Shared responsibility of central and local government:** Municipalities have much more administrative freedom to make flexible use of building and renovation subsidies. Decision-making on social housing subsidies is not solely determined by the central government (Salet, 1998).

- **Partnerships between housing associations and local municipalities:** Social housing associations are partners with the local authorities in formulating long term strategies and policies for social housing schemes (Dieleman, 1998).

- **Private fund forming:** Finance for social housing developments is now sourced from the private sector, whereas previously it had, for the most part, come from government. The establishment of the Central Fund and Guarantee Fund has helped to protect financially weaker housing associations and to limit their risk on free market loans. Therefore, housing associations handle their financial affairs via their ‘own’ bank in order to provide a buffer for difficult times (Salet, 1998).

- **Active urban regeneration policy:** There are two parts to the Urban Pilot Project. First is the *Training Project in Field of Housing Environment* which aims to train long term unemployed people from the district as specialists in the housing environment. By matching perceived needs with skills, the project plans to create employment for the long-term unemployed and improve living conditions in the area. The second is the *Improvement of Rear Courtyards* which aims to train unemployed residents within the framework of redesigning and preserving rear courtyards. This part of the
The Dutch social housing principles, subsidy and financing policies have made the social housing sector more responsive to the existing housing challenges. The most notable achievement is that there are hardly any ghettos in large Dutch cities because of cohabitation of low-income and middle-income households in the social rented sector. Currently, the social rental sector in the Netherlands is largely free of government control, and because it stands on its own feet there are some tough challenges facing housing corporations. These include steadily increasing rents; sector is expected to become less attractive to people on modest incomes; tenants will become more dependent on housing allowances, management might be expected to become more difficult; financial viability will be severely tested by the markets if development programmes are to be undertaken; as in other countries, the Netherlands has concentrations of poor quality housing whose residents suffer disproportionately from unemployment and the other forms of deprivation that characterize social exclusion (Dieleman, 1998).

In responding to these challenges, the Dutch policy has been innovative in its urban policy. The Netherlands has an active urban regeneration policy which has created the opportunity to run domestic programmes alongside those funded by the European Union (EU). As in other member states, EU actions relating to housing have been restricted by the rules governing the structural funds, but the Urban Pilot Projects have provided an example of European funds playing a role in urban policy (Salet, 1998).
3.2.1 Purmerend Housing Scheme, Purmerend

Purmerend was designed to tackle the problem of financing by mixing owners with renters, distributing costs equitably among all tenants, providing common facilities to be used and paid for by the surrounding neighbourhood, sweat equity and creative financing. The scheme is located in a newly built extension of the town of Purmerend, about half an hour from Amsterdam. There are 71 households divided into ten clusters, each with a cluster kitchen. The units are strung together and curve round a garden but remain open at one end to the neighbourhood. Figure 3.3 shows a view of the housing scheme, the design of the façade is distinct to make the units look like traditional Dutch houses placed side by side (row housing). This feature was used on the building to give it character and avoid making it look like a typical block of flats. Though the units are aligned in a row system, each unit has its own personal access and space on the long balconies that runs across the building. The figure also shows the maximum use of space in the building: there is usable space under the roof of each unit.

![Fig 3.3 View of the Purmerend housing scheme](Collaborating communities, 1991)

Figure 3.4 shows the layout of the scheme. The layout is good and practical as the units have been laid out to form a courtyard creating a common space for recreation for the residents. The layout also allows residents to have a natural surveillance of their environment. Another important feature shown is the provision of a common house (shaded space labeled ‘A’), a space used by the housing
association and residents for administrative and extra-curricular activities. The spaces provided include an office, tuck shop, games room, crafts room, kitchen and music room.

**Fig 3.4 Floor plan**

(Collaborating communities, 1991)

### 3.2.2 Lessons for South Africa

The Netherlands social housing approach is based on partnerships with housing associations and the local municipalities, private funding, and community participation. Social housing is used as a tool for active urban regeneration and job creation. Around 75 percent of the rental sector consists of social housing in the Netherlands, compared to an average of 55 percent in Europe. Almost all dwellings in the Dutch social housing sector are owned and maintained by housing associations. The associations receive subsidies from the central government and have strong financial and social partnerships with their local municipalities (Boelhouwer, 1999). Another significant lesson of social housing in the Netherlands is the constant regulation of social housing institutions through the encouragement of a best practice regime. For institutions to access state funding and support, they have to prove acceptance and ongoing adherence to a range of
benchmarks set by a government appointed regulator. Social housing is not only used for shelter but also as a tool for urban rejuvenation and to create employment for long term residents. From the example, it is vital that social housing developments have common rooms, where residents can come together and interact. The common room is also a space for extra-curricular activities for children and teenagers such as arts and crafts (Fromm, 1991).

3.3 GERMANY
The discussion of the housing situation in Germany must necessarily distinguish between the western and eastern parts of the country because the development of housing policy and provision from the Second World War up to re-unification were different in each of these two parts of the country. However, re-unification has had a major impact on the west as well as the east. On the one hand, a key aim of federal housing policy since 1989 was to re-integrate the eastern part of Germany into the legal, policy and market framework of the west. On the other hand, the influx of migrants from the east of Germany as well as from elsewhere, following the collapse of communism in central and Eastern Europe, has placed significant pressure on the West German housing market and helped to create a new housing shortage there. Moreover, the financial costs of unification, combined with rising welfare expenditures consequent upon the relatively high level of unemployment, have added to the fiscal pressures faced by the federal government. At the same time, the federal government is seeking ways to reduce public spending in order to meet the economic convergence criteria for the monetary union (Rips and Litke, 2004).

The dominant philosophy underlying economic policy in western Germany since the war is to promote a socially responsible market economy. In housing, this is reflected in a policy of encouraging both owner-occupation and private renting. It has also involved, especially in the early post-war years when there was a substantial housing shortage, the promotion of social housing, mainly via the private sector. Since 1965 and especially since the early 1980s, the emphasis in policy has been on income-related housing allowances. About six per cent of households in the west currently receive a housing allowance (Rips and Litke,
Today, only about 35% of all residents are entitled to get a social flat. In addition, emphasis of the program has shifted from expanding quantitative supply by supporting the construction of new units to utilizing the existing housing stock. Another new objective of social housing is social sustainability by maintaining the social viability of urban neighborhoods (Schlosser, 2004). The position of local governments have changed, currently the practice of some local governments to enter contractual arrangements with housing corporations to address housing needs of vulnerable groups was incorporated into the social housing legislation. The instrument “Local Housing Strategies” was created, the objective of which is to provide the basis for a supply of adequate and affordable housing and maintain social sustainability in neighborhoods. The states have the right to require them as a precondition for social housing grants. Therefore, while the role of social housing in the future will be smaller in quantitative terms, it will still play an important role for housing policy and for meeting the needs of vulnerable social groups (Schlosser, 2004).

The Federal Ministry for Transport, Building and Housing is currently initiating a research project to get an overview of the different local housing strategies developed in Germany so far. The scope covers strategies that are in accordance with the social housing program and general conceptual approaches. A specific intention of the research project is to actively facilitate knowledge transfer between local governments and dissemination of best practices in relation to the concept of Local Housing Strategies. The hope is that this process helps cities and towns to adopt a stronger role in social housing policy (Schlosser, 2004).

3.3.1 Weissenhofsiedlung, Germany

The concept of this housing scheme was to provide elegant, simple and affordable apartment accommodation in the peri-urban area of the city of Hamburg. The architect capitalized on the repetitious nature of row houses to reduce costs. The figures below show the views of the building. The building outlook is simple and conventional, but with a few distinct features to improve its image. Figure 3.5 shows the front of the building, each unit has a personal garden, and this feature is not usually provided in affordable housing schemes close to urban areas.
Direct subsidies in the form of low interest loans and tax relief were provided to owner-occupiers, private landlords, and non-profit housing associations to encourage new construction and latterly rehabilitation. The direct subsidies were given to private landlords and housing associations on the condition that they agreed to operate the dwellings as social housing, initially for 60 years and later reduced to 30 years. In return for these subsidies, rented housing had to exceed a certain minimum standard while owner-occupied dwellings on which social housing subsidies had been received were not to exceed a certain maximum standard (Schlosser, 2004).

In addition, tenancies were restricted to certain income groups and rents were regulated to below market levels. An important element of this strategy is that the dwellings should be aimed at a broad spectrum of the population rather than just at the poor. This is one reason why social housing in western Germany has not suffered from the stigma which surrounds social housing in other European countries such as the UK. Another is that the dwellings are often built or rehabilitated to relatively high standards. In recent years, the government has encouraged the repayment of social housing loans. Once the loan is repaid, the owner is no longer bound by the regulations governing social housing and may re-let the dwellings at market-related rates. Consequently the supply of social rented housing is now decreasing (Rips and Litke, 2004).

The housing situation in eastern Germany was very different from that in the west reflecting the legacy of nearly half a century of communist rule. The central emphasis of federal housing policy for eastern Germany since reunification was to revitalize the housing market, by privatizing and marketing housing provision, integrating it into the legal framework in place in the west. The housing allowance scheme, social security benefits, and tax arrangements that apply in the west were extended to the east following reunification. The increase in housing allowance rates were intended to compensate for lower incomes in east Germany, as well as rent increases as the housing market moved onto a more economically rational footing. Presently, the focus of social housing policy is on providing housing opportunities for vulnerable groups of society such as low-income households or those having problems with access to adequate housing for other reasons.
In Figure 3.6, a private court has been provided at the back for each unit which is also another added bonus.

Fig 3.5 and Fig 3.6

(Source: Progressive Architecture, October 1988)

3.3.2 Lessons for South Africa

The German social housing experience displays a close relationship between social housing institutions and the government. The German government has a policy that simplifies the legal framework of social housing. The policy includes government funding, access to housing subsidies and the use of social housing developments for urban renewal. This policy has an impact on the financing of rental homes, home ownership, strengthening the roles of the councils, and the intervention of private housing stock. The German government has three systems of aid: the 'First Incentive Scheme' provides for reduced-interest mortgages and it prohibits the passing on of any costs onto the applicants in the form of higher rent. The 'Second Incentive Scheme' is designed to encourage home ownership through loans and grants and the 'Third Incentive Scheme' is done on a case-by-case basis, where there is no limit on government resources, and it generally provides for building cost subsidies. The municipalities are bound by law to constantly check the standard of the social housing institutions and financially cater for those in financial crisis. The quality and standards of the social housing developments are high and aimed at a broad spectrum of the population, thereby discouraging social exclusion and facilitating social integration.
3.4 DENMARK

The Danish housing policy emphasis, over the last decade, is to recognize the key role of housing markets and stress social housing as being essential to meet necessary housing requirements not satisfied by the market. The Danish social housing sector comprises about 700 not-for-profit housing associations spread across urban areas and rural districts. Investment financing is typical to the housing associations where 91% is private, index-linked loan, 7% is from the municipality and 2% is from tenant deposits which may be financed by local authorities for low income households (Engberg, 2000). 80% of dwelling subsidy is from central government and 20% from municipalities. Personal or housing allowance subsidies are available to renters in all rental tenures. There are no income limits on entry to social housing and young people aged 15 and over can register on the waiting lists. A further distinctive feature of Danish associations is their role in civil society in promoting social participation and integration through the pervasiveness of tenant control. Since the 1970s, each association has a management board with a tenant majority (an emphasis now disappearing in England and the Netherlands and never present in France). Each estate owned by an association is treated as a separate financing entity and has its own tenant committee and majority votes of tenants are required for major changes (Salicath, 1987).

Local authorities provide capital, guarantees and subsidies to housing associations. They also approve rent schemes, administer rent subsidies, organize the production and maintenance of schemes and have a key role in monitoring and regulating associations. Aside from their planning roles which include assessing housing needs, local authorities have the statutory responsibility of ensuring that all households are adequately housed. Policy stability has been a feature of Danish housing policy for the last twenty years, policies evolve rather than shift. Sustaining past progress and refining the edges or interconnections of housing with other activities are key features of the 1990s and the emphasis has been (Salicath, 1987):
• maintaining tax subsidies to owners at the low levels achieved in the second half of the 1980s;
• reducing from 10,000 to 4,000 per annum, between 1990 and 1993, the number of new social housing starts as needs have reduced;
• doubling the budget for housing regeneration activities, from 1990 to 1995, to Kr6.4 billion per annum and spreading programme participation to 200 of the 276 Danish municipalities;
• placing a new emphasis, after 1992, on the revitalization of rundown social housing estates;
• funding and planning the interconnections between housing, social and environmental policies;
• continuing to adapt and improve the quality of housing for the elderly, disabled and young persons;
• developing distinctively high levels of policy relevant information on the housing markets, housing needs and house condition (Salicath, 1987).

Although Danish social housing is ample, diverse and of high quality, specific problems of access, affordability and neighborhood quality especially in older areas of private renting and 1960s multi-storey estates remain. Also, general social trends such as ageing, evolving household structure, and economic outcomes especially rising unemployment near the EU average rate has posed new problems (Engberg, 2000).

The major issues now facing Denmark include:

• relatively reducing socio-economic status of social housing tenants in relation to society as a whole. Between 1970 and present, the sector has come to have a disproportionately high share of very young and old households, the unemployed and single parent families;
• increasing concentration of these disadvantaged households in post 1960s social housing estates;
• growing dependence of tenants on housing allowances. In social housing half of tenants receive allowances and with rents increasing above inflation, mean that they now pay a quarter of the rental bill.
Recent developments in Denmark focus innovation in two main policy areas, housing in area renewal and housing for the young and old. In relation to urban renewal, housing investment is closely linked to social projects, for example, initiatives to integrate immigrants, criminal youths and drug abusers. Housing investment is also linked to ecological strategies promoting mixed tenure and service provision, energy improvement, for example, in pilot projects in Kolding, Egebjerggard and Aalborg. The evolving Danish housing policy ethos is that housing policy builds communities and not just homes and that urban environmental improvement requires social cohesion to succeed and promotes cohesion when it does (Salicath, 1987).

3.4.1 Jystrup Sawmill, Denmark

This type of social housing has the idea of collective housing in which privately owned dwellings and common areas are under one roof. Figure 3.7 shows the building layout in an “L” shape, with dwellings on either side of a glazed pedestrian access area which provides warmth and shelter in the winter and a play area for children. Most of the living units are small and the common rooms are not luxurious in order to keep construction costs to the minimum.

Fig 3.7

(Source: Housing design, 1991)
3.4.2 Lessons for South Africa

The local government loans are interest free and repayment commences after 50 years to facilitate servicing of the remaining mortgage credit loan of 91% of construction costs. The state subsidy is discontinued, when tenants’ payments reach the total yield of the loan. When this happens, the proceeds from tenants go into a new construction fund for the purpose of subsidising new non-profit constructions. The government and the municipality (which incorporates the local and/or regional government) share responsibility in the social housing sector. One of the top priorities of Danish national policies is to provide the whole population with sound and adequate housing. Social housing is used for facilitating access to housing for students and young households and lower income groups. This aids eradication of social segregation and avoid the emergence of ghettos. Another important lesson learnt is that the development of social housing concerns urban planning, architecture, ecology and social policy. Social policy needs a continuous broad discussion among experts and the general public. There is also a need for continuous flow of comprehensive information among stakeholders of social housing. Such information can be available through special housing research projects and the distribution of their results in publications, presentations; and the regular publishing of housing issues in the media to assist social housing clients and potential house-hunters.

3.5 CANADA

Social Housing in Canada has its origins in 1946 when the government was challenged to provide housing to soldiers returning from World War II and their families. The response was a plan to build and maintain affordable housing for veterans, administered by the Canada Mortgage and Housing Corporation (CMHC), a federal agency that is still operational. During the 1950s and 1960s, the CMHC’s mandate was broadened to provide affordable housing for low-income families. This became the era of public housing where housing was owned and operated by the government.
During the 1970s, the approach was revamped resulting in two new streams of social housing - co-op housing, owned and operated by residents, and non-profit housing which provides housing owned by not-for-profit groups in the local community. While still funded by CMHC, governance was placed in the community. There was also an emphasis on mixed-income housing combining low- and moderate-income households to foster a healthy social environment (Government of Canada, 1993: Section 26, 1). Canada’s nonprofit housing generally consists of low and mid-rise structures averaging about 50 units and located in all parts of central city, metropolitan and suburban areas. These structures are integrated into the existing neighborhoods, avoiding the stigma frequently associated with low-income projects. Until recent federal program changes implemented by the Conservative government, they were also mixed socially, housing a range of low- and moderate-income households. The social housing programs are designed so that most residents pay about 25% to 30% of their income for rent. Between 25% and 100% of the households in a social housing project pay rent based on their incomes. A formula determines what they are able to pay, and a federal subsidy in form of a rent supplement paid directly to the non-profit corporation covers the rest (Vaillancourt and Ducharme, 2001).

A key feature of all of Canada’s social housing programs is that land and housing units are permanently removed from the real estate market. All nonprofit housing organizations and housing cooperatives enter into binding agreements tied to their mortgage financing guaranteeing the not-for-profit nature of the housing. Social housing in Canada remains permanently affordable by remaining outside the housing market. Canada’s third-sector housing includes three types of non-profit organizations: The public nonprofit are housing companies established by local government; The private nonprofits are established by church groups, unions, and community organizations. Housing developed by the public and private nonprofit groups is similar, except for who owns and manages them (Vaillancourt and Ducharme, 2001).
The following are characteristic of Canada’s social housing:

- **Variety of tenure options**: Canada’s approach to social housing provides a full range of tenure options to suit local needs and special-needs groups within the population, and in the case of cooperatives, the desire for self-managed housing. The programs also provide the opportunity to experiment with new mortgage instruments that may be applied to more forms of housing in the future. Canada’s 1,740 housing co-ops (with 72,000 units) are a democratically owned and managed version of subsidized housing. 70% of Canada’s housing cooperatives are managed directly by the residents on a voluntary basis. About 30% of the cooperatives, usually the larger ones retain full- or part-time paid staff (Vaillancourt and Ducharme, 2001).

- **Alternative to institutionalization and hospitalization**: The endorsement of the principles of the Independent Living Movement (Vaillancourt and Jetté, 1997; Morris, 1993) calls for the development of new social housing policies that include community support. A growing number of initiatives in the housing field are bringing public authorities, researchers and social activists to rediscover the importance of housing as a strategic factor in social policy, especially for people who are excluded or marginalized. Social housing with community support represents “a viable alternative to institutionalization in a context of the redefinition of the welfare state, provided that the people who are marginalized receive the support they need in order to be integrated into society” (Jetté, Mathieu and Vaillancourt, 1998).

- **Rent subsidy**: Public support for social housing is not limited to the development and administration of housing units run by the public sector and the third sector. It also can take the form of programs to give low-income households access to rental housing (or even ownership) through subsidies such as rent supplements and shelter allowances, or tax breaks (Vaillancourt and Ducharme, 2001).
• **Shelter allowance program:** The shelter allowance program began in 1997 financed entirely by the government of Quebec. It provides a monthly allowance to low-income tenants, roomers or owners who spend more than 30% of their income on rent. Those eligible include single persons aged 55 or over, low-income couples of whom at least one is over 55, families with at least one dependent child, employed people and welfare recipients (Vaillancourt and Ducharme, 2001).

• **Community asset:** With reference to Ottawa, social housing is a valuable community asset. There are more than 24,000 social housing units in Ottawa, about 9% of all Ottawa households and 18% of all renters. There are over 80 social housing providers in the City of Ottawa, with social housing units in every ward of the new city. Social housing providers pay more than $30 Million in property taxes - more than half the value of their total subsidy from municipal government (The Ottawa Social Housing Network, 2001).

• **Economical solution to housing:** In 1997, a Canada Mortgage and Housing Corporation study demonstrated that investment in social housing saves governments’ money compared to private programs, and was more effective at providing affordable housing. As an investment, social housing makes sense, for example, the oldest social housing in Ottawa is now generating revenue which can be used to provide more affordable housing at no cost to government. Social housing is also cheaper than shelters and hostels. It is a cost effective, long term solution to homelessness (CMHC, 1997).

The most recent federal evaluation of the cooperative housing program found that these community-based resource groups are “effective in involving housing co-operatives in the development and management of their projects” and that most “are usually involved in providing development services to co-operatives for over a year after the project” is completed (CMHC, 1992a). The aim is to develop communities, not just housing projects.
3.5.1 False Creek Co-operative Housing, Canada

This is a co-operative scheme with members from all income classes who were fully involved in its design and implementation. It has 170 units of one to four bedrooms. Figure 3.8 shows the layout of the housing scheme. The layout and unit design are unconventional and dynamic to make the image of the scheme unique. The units are also laid out to form a courtyard to create a common recreation space for residents and good natural surveillance of the environment.

![Fig 3.8](Source: Housing design, 1991)

Figure 3.9 shows the view of entrances of the building. The units have different facades and sizes; there is usable space in the roof of each unit and the units are aligned side by side (row housing).

![Fig 3.9](Source: Housing design, 1991)
3.5.2 Lessons for South Africa

The Canadian experience shows that there is an emphasis on mixed-income housing, combining low- and moderate-income households to foster a healthy social environment. The social housing structures are integrated into the existing neighborhoods, avoiding the stigma frequently associated with low-income projects. The policy of Canada's social housing program ensures that the land and the social housing units are permanently removed from the real estate market therefore making them permanently affordable. Social housing is also used as a viable alternative to institutionalization, to assist and accommodate people who are vulnerable and marginalized until they are re-integrated into the society. Social housing in general is seen as being part of social development planning. Local councils and municipalities have set up infrastructure commissions to define in detail the conditions for subsidized housing projects. Thus, new housing projects help to overcome infrastructure deficiencies, such as schools, health institutions, as well as public means of transport.

3.6 UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

The term ‘social housing’ in the United States is known as non-profit housing, cooperative housing, rent supplements, rural and native housing, and urban native housing. The U.S. experience of social housing demonstrates that there is available community-based talent willing and able to provide nonprofit housing if adequate funding is obtainable. The non-profit sector, though is still a marginal part of the housing industry, is growing and has increasing support from the private industry and government at all levels. The national housing authority is making efforts to develop and implement effective housing policies to underpin the assistance of housing providers in reducing the housing crisis especially facing low income and working class households in the society. The following describe the nature and strategies of social housing in various regions of the United States of America:

- **Mixed-Income Development, Mixed-Financing, and Mixed Partnerships:** The Federal Quality Housing and Work Responsibility Act of 1985, often referred to as the Public Housing Reform Act, introduced new
approaches to providing housing for the poor focusing on mixed-income development. Housing authorities were encouraged to avoid concentrating poverty by mixing higher-income families in lower-income developments and lower-income families in higher-income developments. This mixed-income approach to development is attracting the interest of private developers. The legislation also directed housing authorities to find alternate sources of funding thereby resulting in the increase of public/private partnerships and mixed financing for social housing delivery (Dreier and Hulchanski, 1993).

- **Housing Trust Funds and Community Land Trusts:** Many states and localities have a housing trust fund dedicated to developing affordable housing for low and moderate-income families. These trust funds are used for housing construction and rehabilitation, land acquisition and site development, mortgage loan financing, reduction of interest rates for construction loans, and residential conversion of commercial structures (Housing Strategy Report, 2000). A community land trust is a nonprofit organization that buys land and existing houses or builds new houses, and then sells or leases (often with an option to buy) the housing to residents at affordable prices. This technique is useful in areas where the value of land is inflated. It can be used as a mechanism to stop the displacement of low-income residents when an area undergoes urban revitalization (Housing Strategy Report, 2000). Projects bringing housing and land trusts together can help integrate and balance interests that sometimes compete, for example, environmental conservation and affordable housing (Housing Strategy Report, 2000).

- **Inclusionary Ordinances:** The housing legislation contained ordinances to ensure compliance to achieve the objectives of social housing. The inclusionary ordinances are local government action to encourage or require a certain percentage of units of new development or redevelopment to be set aside as affordable for low- and moderate-income households. Some
inclusionary programs do not require that affordable housing units remain affordable in perpetuity (Housing Strategy Report, 2000).

3.6.1 Willow Court, Menlo Park - USA
The concept of this unique social housing scheme was to design a low income accommodation in a high income neighbourhood, and ensure that the project does not decline property values and quality of life in the area. The six four-bedroom units, designed for large, very low income families are grouped to give the appearance of two large houses. By increasing the scale and paying attention to simple details, the property was made to blend with its environment. This is a successful story of social integration through the use of social housing.

Figure 3.10 shows the entrance view of the building. Although the detailing of the building is simple, it expresses a kinship with the craftsman bungalows typical to the area. The simplified features of wooden trellises to dress up entrances, shaped brackets, barge boards and picket fences, evoke a general idea of home without sticking to only one architectural style.

![Fig 3.10](Source: Progressive Architecture, September 1994)

Figure 3.11 shows the floor plans of the units. The system of row housing is used here with the units separated by walls to save building costs. The plan also shows that there are two types of units and each unit has its own private entrance court.

![Fig 3.11](Source: Progressive Architecture, September 1994)
3.6.2 Lessons for South Africa

The American approach to social housing promotes the mixed-income approach to development. This attracts the involvement of private developers and provides alternate sources of funding resulting in increase of public/private partnerships and mixed financing for the social housing delivery. Government initiatives such as the “inclusionary housing programs” ensure that affordable housing units remain affordable in perpetuity and the “community land trust” makes the procurement of land affordable by social housing institutions. The examples of existing housing projects in the various cities have shown the effect of community participation, architectural ingenuity and effective planning to produce well-developed social housing schemes. The community participation process included workshops by design teams to expose the residents to the design process. Residents were supervised by the team to develop their own ideas about building and open spaces. The workshops were educational and crucial to giving the residents a positive experience. Architectural ingenuity was achieved by the use of different materials to beautify the facades of the buildings, the assortment of unit types in one scheme, private gardens and entrance courts. Effective planning includes the
use of the row housing system and units aligned to form a main courtyard that acts as a central space for recreation and social activities.

In conclusion, this chapter has shown relevant, international social housing schemes, principles and practices from countries in Europe and America. Lessons that inform the development of social housing in South Africa can be drawn from the international examples. Firstly there is an immense support of the government and private sector to fund and implement innovative ideas to facilitate the development of social housing. A few of these innovative ideas include: making land affordable for social housing developments; defining a legal framework for social housing; the interest on loans from financial institutions are either low or free with flexible repayment options. Secondly, social housing can be used in different ways: to provide shelter for many sections of the society; as a tool of urban regeneration; to create employment; and as an alternative to institutionalization and hospitalization. Thirdly, tenant participation is widely practiced and special attention is given to the design and image of the social housing buildings to curb the general impression that affordable housing buildings are simple and unattractive. These principles and practices identified from other countries need to be tried and tested in South Africa's social housing sector, to bring change in the delivery of social housing because it is evident (as discussed in chapter two) that some of the existing structures and policies are not functioning effectively.

Finally, South Africa and the Netherlands are currently sharing ideas and knowledge on replacing informal dwellings with sustainable human settlements by employing social housing principles from the Netherlands. The Netherlands is helping South African municipalities with financial and technical resources for social housing. The partnership has resulted in the development and publishing of the "Municipal Social Housing Policy Toolkit", an instrument for municipalities to develop their own social housing policy (www.southafrica.info).
CHAPTER FOUR
PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF FINDINGS

4.0 INTRODUCTION
This chapter is concerned with the presentation of the findings of the study. The data collected via the structured questionnaires, interviews and observation are analysed and interpreted to compare the two modes of social housing on the basis of affordability, management, physical structures, design issues, the socio-economic profiles of the users and the quality of the built environments. Firstly the four case studies are reviewed. They are Hawaii Apartments, The Strathdon, Shayamoya Housing project and Acacia Park. Their background, location, managing bodies, planning and layout, unit design, security and amenities available are discussed. Secondly, the findings of the study are presented through graphical illustrations (i.e. pie charts and bar charts). As mentioned in chapter one, a sample of 400 residents from the developments was evaluated, but only 200 responded: 40 respondents were from Shayamoya, 60 respondents were from Acacia Park and 50 respondents each were from the Hawaii apartments and the Strathdon respectively.

4.1 HAWAII APARTMENTS
The Hawaii Apartments block was initially a time-sharing holiday complex consisting of three buildings known as Hawaii east, west and central blocks. The apartments were purchased by the First Metro Housing Company (FMHC), a social housing institution, in June 1999. The apartments were renovated and became operational as social housing units in November 1999, with full occupation by the end of March 2000. The building is located at the corner of Rutherford and Gillespie streets, between the area known as the “Golden Mile” and the harbour. The “Golden mile” is an area between Marine Parade and the lower Marine Parade, and flanked by luxury hotels and apartment blocks. The Golden Mile also skirts the main beaches and the Indian Ocean. Through onsite observation, the immediate environment around the Hawaii apartments is deteriorating; there are a number of obsolete, dilapidated office and residential buildings. This feature creates an unsafe and insecure environment.
The buildings, developed in the early 1970’s, have a total of 128 apartments. Each building comprises a lobby, reception and apartments. On the rooftop, facilities available include a small swimming pool, a Jacuzzi and a steam bath. Commercial activities within the block consists two shops on the ground floor with parking spaces within and outside the site of the building. In the east and central blocks, some units are designed to enjoy sea views, while some of the west-facing units have views of the harbour. There is an open space within the complex which was initially used for recreation and social gatherings but unfortunately due to lack of maintenance, the area is usually dormant.

Figure 4.1 shows the main entrance of the building and the view facing Gillespie Street.

The units in the Hawaii complex are one- and two-bedroom apartments. The apartments are fully fitted with built-in cabinets and kitchen fittings. The sizes of the rooms range from 35m$^2$ to 75m$^2$. The layout plans are simple, with the lounge and kitchen located together in an open plan system while the other rooms and bathroom are separated.

Figures 4.2 and 4.3 show the plans of the two types of units found in the Hawaii apartments.
Figure 4.2 one bedroom unit

Figure 4.3 two bedroom unit

Figure 4.4 a and b, shows east and west wings of the apartments showing on street parking. Unlike the other wings of the apartments, the east wing has no balconies because there are no views of the sea.

Each block has one main entrance with access control, the residents gain access using access disks. The entrance also has a security post, which is manned 24 hours by security guards.

4.2 THE STRATHDON
The Strathdon, constructed in 1946, is located in Durban’s city centre on St. George Street near the Esplanade and the Albert Park. A factory printing and developing photographs occupied the ground and first floors while apartments were on the upper floors (www.fmhc.co.za). In 1969, the lower floor was converted
to apartments and the whole building was used as holiday apartments. By the early 1980s, the Ministry of Defence had taken ownership of the building to house military personnel and their families. It was later returned to the municipality in the mid 1990s (www.fmhc.co.za).

The building has two blocks (Figures 4.6 and 4.7) with a total of 46 apartments. The first and shorter block faces St. George Street, where the main entrance is and the longer block stretches to College Lane at the back. The immediate surrounding area has several of blocks of apartments. The building has one main entrance with a 24-hour-manned security.

The Strathdon building comprises bachelor, one- and two-bedroom apartments. The unit plans are open plan, with the lounge (or bedroom, in case of a bachelor
apartment) and kitchen combined with the bedrooms and ablutions. Figures 4.8, 4.9 and 4.10 show all the plans of the different units.

![Figure 4.8 One-bedroom unit](image1)

![Figure 4.9 Bachelor units](image2)

![Figure 4.10 Two-bedroom unit (Strathdon)](image3)

### 4.3 SHAYAMOYA HOUSING PROJECT

Shayamoya is a 318-unit medium density housing project situated within the Wiggins Precinct of Cato Manor, at the intersection of the Booth and Bellair activity corridors. This area is a hub of development activity. The Shayamoya housing project was the first social housing project initiated in KwaZulu Natal. The project, based on a housing association model, was initiated and developed in 1995/1996 by the Built Environment Support Group (BESG), a Pietermaritzburg-based Urban Sector Network (USN) affiliate. BESG was responsible for conceptualising, designing and implementing the project, as well as providing organisational development and support to the Shayamoya Housing Association (SHA).
Construction began in October 1999 and by December 2001, sufficient units were completed for occupation (Urban Sector Network, 2002).

Shayamoya has easy access to road and transport networks connecting to the Durban central area, Westville Pavilion Mall and Mayville light industrial area. Within a 3km radius of the site are educational, health centres, community facilities and business opportunities. It is a dense development with 119 units per hectare, compared to the 30 – 40 units per hectare in neighbouring areas. The housing units are designed around a single flight of stairs, providing access to two units per floor. Blocks vary between two and four floors. The project is situated on a hilltop, with the central portion being relatively flat and sloping off around the sides. Figure 4.11 shows how the design responds well to the topography with the taller three- and four-storey buildings located on the lower lying portions of the site, lessening the impact of the large buildings. The design takes cognisance of the hot Durban climate, and provides generous covered veranda spaces to enable outdoor living.

Figure 4.11 Bird’s eye view of Shayamoya

All units have street-frontage with entrance doors visible from the public roads. Six different block types were designed to deliver 1-, 2- and 3-bedroom units in a mix of 2-, 3- and 4-story blocks of flats with a maximum of 4, 6 and 8 families sharing a staircase respectively as seen in figures 4.12 and 4.13.
From onsite observation, a generous open space is provided and positioned conveniently for use by residents. Children’s play equipment is also provided and is being used. In addition, a public gathering place is provided with seating and paving. However, other public space has not been landscaped, partly due to difficulty with steep slopes and financial constraints toward the end of the project. At present, the public spaces are poorly lit and unsecured. The security system in the housing scheme is inadequate. The units do not have burglar guards and there is no perimeter fencing, therefore access to the site is not controlled. All which may lead to safety and security problems. A number of existing trees on site were retained in the developments, providing much needed shade to the project. Three key issues were neglected in the design of the site, these being spaces for laundry, refuse and parking. The lack of laundry facilities has resulted in tenants without balconies having to erect their own washing lines, and this has been done haphazardly throughout the site. Refuse bins are provided but space for them has not been allocated. There is a lot of refuse lying around the site, posing a health and safety risk for all the inhabitants.

4.4 ACACIA PARK

The Acacia Park Housing Development is the result of a partnership between the Msunduzi Municipality, Msunduzi Housing Association (MHA), the Kwazulu Natal Provincial Department of Housing, National Housing Finance Corporation (NHFC) and the Social Housing Foundation (SHF). This development represents several years of organisation to provide housing for low income households in the city. Acacia Park is financed through loans from the NHFC totaling R20,5 million, subsidy from the Department of Housing to the value of R7 million, land donated by Msunduzi Municipality provided capacity building and support to the MHA. The housing development was officially opened in April 2004.

Acacia Park is situated on Oribi road in the peri-urban area of Pietermaritzburg. The housing scheme has easy access to road and transport networks connecting to the Pietermaritzburg central area. It is also close to primary and tertiary educational institutions, health centers and community facilities.
Acacia Park development consists of 272 two-bedroom units, 28 three-bedroom units, ample parking facilities, dedicated play facilities for children, fencing to the entire site, remote access, a guardhouse, 24-hour security, refuse disposal facilities and it is intended that a small commercial and community facility will be constructed within the site in the near future. The units are constructed with full conventional services and specifications i.e. plaster and painted walls, floor tiles and carpets, ceilings, geyser, full bathroom facilities, electricity and water, etc.
There is only one entrance to the development off the road for pedestrians and vehicles. The pedestrian gate is separate from the motorised gate and the entrance is manned 24 hours by a security guard. However, security was also achieved by the way in which the scheme has been designed: the units have been designed to have a view over the central car parking as well as children play areas. There is also a wire mesh fence (Figure 4.22) with barbed wire that runs round the whole site. Communal facilities for laundry are available and serviced by rain tanks within screened drying yards. There is also a large play area (figure 4.23) for children and car parking spaces for residents and their visitors (Figure 4.24)
4.5 SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

This section discusses the information gathered through on-site investigation and interviews with supervisors and residents of the two types of social housing schemes. Also discussed and graphically illustrated are the responses that were obtained from 200 households living in Refurbished and Greenfield social housing schemes. The results of the survey were grouped into four categories, which are:

1. Respondents’ demographics: an analysis of the profile of respondents in the housing schemes.
2. Affordability: How the respondents perceived the affordability of the housing schemes.
3. Quality of life: How the respondents rate the quality of life in their housing schemes in terms of security, available recreational facilities and services provided.
4. The built environment: The respondents’ views on the existing physical building environment of the housing schemes.
4.5.1 Respondents demographics

Demography has grown in importance and now has a distinct role to play in the analysis of established housing research and markets. The proper use of demographic information can significantly add to the ability to analyze and forecast housing demand, housing beneficiaries and economic activity (Reed, 2004). The use of demography in this study, answers one of the study’s sub questions in chapter one: who are the beneficiaries of social housing? It shows the type of socio-economic group that reside in social housing developments, their income, origin and describes the reasons why they reside in either of the social housing developments.

4.5.1.1 Age Group

Figure 4.25 and 4.26 shows 53% of the respondents in the refurbished buildings are in the age group of 21-30 years and 38% in the age group of 31-50 years. In the Greenfield developments, 40% are between the ages of 21-30 years and 48% are between the ages of 31-50 years. However, the percentage of the age group of 50 years and above was low in both of the housing developments: 9% in refurbished developments and 12% in the Greenfield developments.

The above reveal that there are more young adults living in the housing developments. South African population statistical research suggests that there is migration among young adults from the less to the more industrialised provinces and cities, in search of work or for education and training purposes.
It also seems likely that people in the oldest age category (50 years and above) are moving back to the less industrialised provinces and cities as they retire (Statistics South Africa, 2005). The general responses from the focus groups are also similar to the research findings in Statistics South Africa as regards age-related migration, especially in the discussions with the focus group from the refurbished developments. The apparent conviction amongst the young adult respondents is that living in the city centre increases their access to jobs, services and shops. The older respondents saw no reason to relocate out of the city centre because they had lived in the same areas their whole lives. In the Greenfield developments the general perceptions are different. Discussion with the focus group revealed that respondents preferred to stay away from the city because they considered the inner city noisy, chaotic, congested and not family friendly. From the results of the survey, the respondents in the Greenfield are more family oriented households, compared with the households of the refurbished developments.

4.5.1.2 Income levels
The findings demarcated a range of income levels in the study areas. Figure 4.27 shows a larger percentage (15% and 19% respectively) of respondents in the refurbished buildings have incomes above R3500. The case is different with the respondents of the Greenfield developments. Only 3% and 5% of the respondents have incomes above R3500.

![Figure 4.27 Income Levels](image-url)
Discussions with the focus group from the refurbished developments generally suggest that the some of the residents have at least 2 or more jobs. These jobs are done at different periods of the day (day or night) or the week (i.e. weekends); the combined income of the jobs is usually more than R3500.

4.5.1.3 Place of Origin

Figure 4.28 shows most of the respondents of the refurbished buildings are from the rural areas (22%), different provinces (23%) and different cities (22%) with the least coming from other countries (6%). Patrick Lemmens, the former chief executive officer of the First Metro Housing Company stated in the interview, that the residents who are originally from other countries have nationalised to become South African citizens and therefore qualified for subsidy. He also explained that the most of the residents are not from around the city because the general trend is that when people migrate from the rural areas and other cities and provinces, they prefer to reside in the city to have easy access to affordable housing, jobs and services. In the Greenfield developments (figure 4.29), most of the respondents are from around the city (48%) and the least come from a different province (9%).

An interview with Jais Ramniranjan, the housing supervisor of Acacia Park revealed that one of the main reason for the high number of residents originating from the city is that the residents find the peri-urban developments highly desirable areas to live because it less noisy, safer and family friendly. Discussions with the focus group from Shayamoya also revealed that they share the similar views with respondents from Acacia Park.
4.5.1.4 Duration of tenancy

From figure 4.30, 15% of the respondents from the refurbished buildings indicated a willingness to leave as soon as possible, due to a number of reasons such as crime, ineffective security, noise and the size of the units. This is twice the percentage of respondents, who want to leave the Greenfield developments (7%). Respondents who are staying for a short term are also more in the refurbished buildings (35%), compared to the respondents in the Greenfield developments (19%). The figure 4.31 shows that in the Greenfield developments, almost half of the respondents (48%) preferred to own a unit in the housing scheme if it is possible. However this is not the same with refurbished buildings, where only 25% of the respondents preferred to own their own units, if it is possible.

It emerged from discussions with the focus group in the greenfield developments that respondents generally preferred to have a permanent residence here due to the following reasons: the existing high number of married and family oriented households, the environment is secure and friendly for children to play and the respondents see the housing units as good property investment for the future, if they owned them. The focus group in the refurbished buildings suggested that most of the respondents preferred this type of housing typology for a short term until there is a positive change in their economic status. 25% of the respondents preferred to reside longer because they have no other alternative or they prefer to live in the city centre.
4.5.2 Affordability

This section discusses the findings in respect of respondents’ view of affordability (financial) of the housing typology they reside in. As mentioned earlier in chapter one, there was difficulty in obtaining financial data from the social housing institutions. Access to available financial information was denied due to confidentiality issues. The lack of such information made it difficult to assess the social housing typologies on the basis of costs-benefits, affordability and funds generated through rent payments. The study relied on the responses from the housing supervisors, respondents and focus groups as the only sources of information from which to assess the issue of affordability in the two social housing typologies.

4.5.2.1 Perceptions on affordability

Figure 4.32 show that the respondents from the refurbished buildings have similar perceptions on the affordability of their dwellings. The respondents from Hawaii apartments (16%) and the Strathdon (17%) consider their social housing typology expensive. Firstly, most respondents stated that the monthly rent is too high because it is more than 30% of their income. Secondly, the rent increases annually by 10%, which puts more financial strain on residents because the incomes of residents do not increase annually by 10%. However, 30% of the respondents from Hawaii apartments and 33% from the Strathdon consider their housing costs affordable, in spite of the annual increases because they reside near their place of work and amenities such as supermarkets, shopping malls, restaurants and public parks.

![Figure 4.32](image-url)
According to Sheila Peters, housing supervisor of the Strathdon, the monthly rents in Hawaii and the Strathdon range between R1, 100 and R2, 000 depending on the size of the units. The rent is increased annually due to rising building maintenance costs. She also stated that the monthly rent was more affordable than all other neighbouring housing schemes within a 5km radius.

In the Greenfield developments, the results are markedly different where an overwhelming majority, 78% of Shayamoya residents and 60% of Acacia Park respondents, indicated that their housing development was an affordable place to stay. Only 2% of respondents of Shayamoya regarded their housing typology as expensive compared to the respondents of Acacia park (16%).

![Figure 4.33](image)

The focus group from Shayamoya revealed monthly rents to be ranged between R500 and R1, 000 which were affordable to most of the residents. The rent amount is closely monitored by the housing association, ensuring that the rent does not exceed the benchmark of affordable housing, which is 30% of a household’s gross income. The focus group stated that the location of Shayamoya, which is about 15 minutes from the city centre, was good as residents spend less money on transportation to work.
4.5.3 Quality of life
This section discusses the findings and conclusions on the ‘quality of life’ based on respondents’ level of satisfaction with the following: building services, level of crime, building security systems and recreational facilities. Figure 4.34 shows the results when respondents were asked to state whether the quality of their lives had improved, staying in either of the social housing typologies. The figure below indicates that 58% of the respondents of the refurbished buildings believe their current environment has not improved their quality of life. However, only 12% of the respondents of the Greenfield developments share the same view. 71% of the respondents of Greenfield developments stated that their quality of life has improved compared to 23% of the refurbished buildings.

The focus groups from the refurbished buildings seem to suggest that reasons why respondents believe their quality of life had not improved include high frequency of crime, the size of the flats, the uncleanliness, noise and the traffic congestion of the neighbourhood. However, respondents were pleased to be close to job opportunities and amenities. The case is the opposite with the respondents from the Greenfield developments. Their quality of life had improved because of the following: less crime and residents feel safer, the environment is family-friendly, and there is less traffic congestion and noise.

4.5.3.1 Building services
The building services assessed in this survey are toilet facilities, the provision of water and electricity, garbage disposal, electrical fixtures such as plugs, lights and
cable connections. Figure 4.35 shows a higher number of respondents (85%) in the Greenfield schemes were satisfied with the building services, compared to the 60% of respondents in refurbished buildings. The level of dissatisfaction was significantly higher (40%) in the refurbished schemes than Greenfield schemes (15%).

![Figure 4.35](image)

From onsite investigation and focus group discussions, the general complaint from the respondents of the refurbished buildings was that most of the toilet facilities were old and leaking, electrical fixtures were not always in good working order, and when these complaints were reported to the building management, response was usually delayed. The scenario was different in the Greenfield developments, where the existing services building services were generally in good working order. The main reason for this is that the toilet facilities in the Greenfield developments are not as old and derelict as the facilities in the refurbished buildings.

### 4.5.3.2 Level of Crime

Figure 4.36 shows 83% of the respondents in refurbished buildings indicated that the level of crime in their neighbourhood is high while 65% of respondents from the Greenfield schemes indicated that their neighbourhood had low criminal activity. The perceptions of the respondents are confirmed by the existing police statistical data. Table 4.2 shows the number of criminal activities reported to the police within the three areas where the case studies are located.
From the table above it can be observed that the refurbished buildings are situated in the heart of the city where criminal activities are predominantly high, while the Greenfield developments are located in peri-urban areas, where crime is less.

### 4.5.3.3 Security

In figure 4.37, it can be observed that 72% of respondents in the Greenfield developments were more satisfied with the security system of the scheme, compared to 65% of respondents in refurbished buildings. From the focus groups, it was deduced that in the refurbished buildings respondents were not satisfied with having just one security guard at the Strathdon main entrance. Controlled access systems are not available, therefore anyone gain access into the buildings should...
the guard be on break. In the Strathdon there are no intercoms in the building therefore residents are not always aware of who is allowed into the building.

**Figure 4.37**

![Bar chart showing level of satisfaction with security of the scheme](chart.png)

The focus groups of the Greenfield developments revealed a different scenario. In Acacia Park the residents were satisfied with the security of the scheme because of the effective neighbourhood surveillance, an existing perimeter fence and a security post with controlled access systems and intercom facilities to communicate with all the units. In Shayamoya, there are no security fences or barriers around the site. However the respondents were satisfied with the level of neighbourhood surveillance and the close proximity to the community police station.

**4.5.3.4 Recreational Facilities**

Figure 4.38 shows respondents' level of satisfaction with social and recreational facilities provided by the two housing schemes. 68% of the respondents from the Greenfield developments are satisfied with their housing schemes' recreational facilities, compared with 26% of the respondents of the refurbished buildings. From onsite investigation and focus groups discussions, it appeared that the dissatisfaction amongst the respondents in the refurbished buildings is due to non-existence of recreational facilities in the Strathdon building and an underutilised recreational space in the Hawaii apartments because of low maintenance. The Hawaii apartments' administrator, Mandla Thusi, stated that due to lack of adequate funding, the maintenance of the recreational facility was not a priority.
compared with other building issues. The main corridors and hallways are the only areas where children can play but this is not always a safe option. Though the refurbished buildings are located near main public spaces like Albert Park and the beach, respondents preferred to have large and safe play areas within the housing scheme because of the high crime activities around the area.

![Figure 4.38](image_url)

The situation is different in the Greenfield developments where Acacia Park and Shayamoya have secured ample spaces for recreation, where adults as well as children can play without any inhibitions.

4.5.4 Built Environment

This section discusses the researcher’s onsite investigations and responses of the respondents about their existing built environments. It includes respondents’ views on general maintenance of the buildings, physical features and image of the buildings such as the location, building design and sizes of the units.

4.5.4.1 Level of Maintenance

Onsite investigations and discussions with housing administrators, Mandla Thusi and Sheila Peters, revealed that the refurbished buildings have older utilities and services compared to those in the Greenfield schemes therefore there is a greater need for maintenance in the refurbished buildings. The administrators at the refurbished buildings admitted that it has been difficult to maintain their building services because the utilities are obsolete, abused and cannot cope with the
current high usage. The existing utilities such as water closets, wash hand basins and general plumbing need to be replaced as soon as possible, when there are sufficient funds available. Figures 4.39 and 4.40 show the poor condition of a few of the existing plumbing items in the refurbished buildings and figures 4.41 and 4.42 show existing toilets without flushing mechanisms and a water tank.
The Greenfield developments displayed better services because the existing utilities are fairly new. Therefore, the maintenance of the facilities are easier, manageable and less expensive. Figures 4.43 and 4.42 show 52% of the respondents in Greenfield developments and 49% of refurbished buildings are generally satisfied with level of maintenance of their buildings. 46% of respondents of refurbished buildings are not satisfied compared to 33% of respondents in Greenfield developments.

![Figure 4.43](image1.png) ![Figure 4.44](image2.png)

**Level of Maintenance in greenfield developments**
- Excellent: 15%
- Average: 52%
- Poor: 33%

**Level of Maintenance in refurbished developments**
- Excellent: 5%
- Average: 49%
- Poor: 46%

### 4.5.4.2 Location of the buildings

Figure 4.45 shows the results from respondents about their views on the location of the social housing schemes. The results from Greenfield developments are fairly similar. 65% and 68% of the respondents from Shayamoya and Acacia Park respectively indicated that they are satisfied with the building’s location. However, there is a distinct contrast in the results for the refurbished buildings. 61% of the respondents from the Hawaii apartments stated that they are satisfied with the building’s location compared with 33% of the respondents from the Strathdon. The results also show that more respondents from the Strathdon (48%) were not satisfied with the building’s location compared to the respondents from the Hawaii apartment (29%).
Figure 4.45

Focus group discussions with respondents from the Strathdon revealed that high level of criminal activities in the neighbourhood was the predominant reason why the respondents were dissatisfied. Other reasons include noise and traffic congestion. Residents of Hawaii apartments also experience the same the problems (i.e. crime, noise and traffic congestion). But the focus group from the building explained that its location near the beach and shopping/entertainment centres such as “The Wheel” shopping mall and “Ushaka Marine world” gave them vast satisfaction. In the Greenfield developments, the common reasons given for satisfaction with the locations of the buildings were very minimal criminal activities, no traffic congestion, no noise and commotion.

4.5.4.3 Building Design

The building designs of the developments were assessed on bases of image, comfort, privacy and functionality. In Figure 4.46, 48% of respondents from Hawaii apartments are satisfied while 22% are not. In the Strathdon, the percentage of satisfied respondents (42%) is close to the percentage of dissatisfied respondents (41%). The scenario is different in the Greenfield developments, 68% of the respondents were satisfied with the design of the buildings in Shayamoya as well as 64% of the respondents from Acacia Park.
Acacia Park as a Greenfield development had a higher percentage of satisfied respondents compared to respondents from the refurbished buildings because respondents felt safe and secure in their developments, laundry and car parking facilities were provided, and that the level of privacy within the complex was good.

### 4.5.4.4 Size of the apartments

Figure 4.47 shows there are more satisfied respondents in the refurbished buildings compared with the respondents from Greenfield developments. 56% of the respondents of the Hawaii apartments and 58% of the respondents from the Strathdon indicated their satisfaction with the size of their apartments compared with respondents from Acacia (42%) and Shayamoya (45%).
The Greenfield developments respondents stated that despite the fact that they are satisfied with the design of their apartment units they were not satisfied with the size of the units. Some respondents indicated that they find it difficult to accommodate the size of their household in the units. The housing administrators from Acacia Park explained that the sizes of 1 to 3 bedroom units for the social housing developments range between 35m$^2$ and 60m$^2$. These sizes are within the minimum requirements of the South African building standards. If the sizes are increased they will impact on the construction costs making it more expensive for the desired target market for social housing. It is important to note that the refurbished buildings were not initially designed for affordable housing. The Hawaii apartments were originally a time-sharing holiday complex and the Strathdon was used to house military personnel and their families. Therefore the apartment units are generally bigger than the units in the Greenfield developments. The sizes of the apartments in the refurbished buildings range between 40m$^2$ and 70m$^2$.

In this chapter, the findings of this study were analysed, summarised and categorised into four groups: Respondents’ demographics, affordability, quality of life and the built environment. The results indicated that most of the respondents from refurbished developments were single young adults, between the ages of 21- and 30 years, who preferred staying in the city because the housing schemes were located close to jobs, services and shops. The respondents of the Greenfield developments were mostly family oriented, between ages 31 – 50 years who prefer to stay away from the city because they considered the inner city noisy, chaotic, congested and not family friendly.

The results also reported that most of the respondents from the refurbished building originated from different cities, rural areas and other provinces, and preferred to stay in the city for a short term until there is a positive change in their economic status. However, most respondents from the Greenfield developments were from the city in which the development is situated and preferred to stay longer in the peri-urban areas.
On the basis of affordability, the Greenfield development respondents believed that their housing typology was more affordable in contrast to respondents from the refurbished buildings who thought theirs was expensive. The average rent paid in refurbished buildings is higher than the Greenfield developments. The respondents from the refurbished buildings were using more than 30% of the income on housing.

On the basis of quality of life, respondents from the refurbished buildings were pleased to be close to job opportunities and amenities but their quality of life had not improved because they were dissatisfied with criminal activities in the area and their building services, security and recreation facilities. The case was the opposite with the respondents from the Greenfield developments. They indicated that their quality of life had improved because there was less crime, the residents felt safer, the environment is family-friendly and there was less traffic congestion and noise.

Finally, respondents from the Greenfield developments were satisfied with the built environment because they indicated they were satisfied with the location and the design of their buildings. However they were dissatisfied with the sizes of their apartment units because the units were too small to accommodate the spatial needs of their households. The results from the respondents from the refurbished buildings were mixed. The respondents from the Hawaii apartments were satisfied with the location and design of their buildings unlike respondents from the Strathdon. However, the respondents from the two refurbished developments were satisfied with the sizes of their apartment units, which were bigger than the units in the Greenfield developments. Site investigations showed that the two social housing typologies had no design considerations for energy efficient buildings and for people with special needs, such as disabled individuals.
5.0 CONCLUSION
This chapter is the conclusion of the study. It revisits the research question, the hypothesis and suggests recommendations based on the findings. The research question of this study was: *Which of the two social housing typologies (Greenfield developments and converted/refurbished buildings) is better in terms of housing affordability, level of effective management and quality of their built environments?*

In chapter one, housing affordability was defined as a condition where no more than 30% of gross household income is spent on housing. The findings have shown that in the aspect of affordability, the two types of housing schemes are similar. Most of the respondents in the two housing schemes are in the income category of R3, 500 and below. They believe that the cost of their current accommodation is affordable even though the amount charged for rent in three of the housing schemes, namely Hawaii, Strathdon, and Acacia Park ranges between 42% - 57% of their monthly income. The scenario is different in Shayamoya, where rent is closely monitored by the housing association to keep it within 30% of their monthly income which. The general complaint noted amongst the respondents of the two social housing typologies was the annual increment of rent.

The qualities of the built environment of the two types of housing schemes were different. Firstly, the Greenfield developments, especially Acacia Park, have a well organised and effective security system than their counterparts in refurbished developments. Secondly, the Greenfield developments provided services and communal facilities that facilitated the comfort of its residents. Such facilities include parking spaces for cars and open green spaces for recreation. The main problem residents had with the Greenfield developments was the sizes of the apartment units, which were considered too small to meet the spatial needs of the residents. However, the apartments in the refurbished buildings were about 15%
larger but facilities such as car parking, laundry and open green spaces were not effectively provided in the refurbished buildings despite the fact they were located near public amenities and services. Thirdly, the relationship between the tenants and management was also healthier within the Greenfield developments compared to refurbished buildings.

The study hypothesised that *Greenfield developments have better quality living environments than converted, refurbished buildings because they are well-planned and managed*. The findings confirmed the hypothesis. The study revealed that Greenfield developments provide better quality living built environments due to effective planning, effective provision of services and facilities and the location of the housing scheme. The management of the refurbished buildings were not as efficient as the Greenfield developments mainly due to insufficient funds and tenant participation.

So which scheme is most suitable for the South African environment? The study has shown that the two models are suitable for the South African environment, because they both satisfy the principles of social housing and provide housing in different areas of the city. However, Greenfield developments are better suited for the South African context. The Greenfield developments have provided opportunities to low-income households to have decent, affordable accommodation in the peri-urban areas of the city. Social housing developments have offered new prospects for inner city revitalization and the housing problem in South Africa. Bringing people close to the city is widely recognized as a positive move on account of its ability to open up opportunities for the poor. The study also revealed general flaws of the two housing schemes: it is evident that the two housing schemes have little consideration for residents with special needs, such as disabled people and children, and there are no energy efficient programs or processes manifested in any of the social housing schemes.
5.1 RECOMMENDATIONS

In addition to comparing the two social housing typologies, the study set out to propose effective recommendations for the improvement of social housing delivery in South Africa. This section of the study discusses various ideas and suggestions that can be employed to improve delivery of the two social housing typologies surveyed in this study. The recommendations are specifically targeted to deal with the emerging constraints found in the surveyed housing developments which are housing affordability, security and safety, use and provision of recreational spaces, lack of energy efficiency in buildings and unsuitable building aesthetics.

5.1.1 Housing Affordability

Annual rent increments in the two types of social housing developments can be eradicated through a long-term affordability program. The use of long-term affordability ensures that social housing units remain affordable for a specified period of time, such as 10, 20, 40, or 60 years. The impact of this process is to discourage the annual increment of rent which can be achieved by funding from the municipality over the specified period of time. To implement this initiative the existing social housing policy needs has to be reviewed to provide effective tools for providing constant funding from the government and financial institutions that provide social housing in South Africa. The government must facilitate tax exemptions for social housing providers and revise the legislation to allow banks and financial institutions to provide affordable loans to social housing institutions.

Another avenue to make the social housing schemes affordable is the use of cross-subsidization. Here, if a project has residents from different income groups, then the higher income group can subsidize the lower income groups. Cross-subsidization can work in a situation where the development has commercial premises as well as residential units. Some high-rise buildings in the inner city have shops on the ground floor at street level and, in some instances, offices on some of the floors above. The residential units are then located on the upper floors. Social housing institutions owning buildings like these should be able to use
the rental earned from these commercial premises to subsidize the monthly payments of the residents. It is important to note that when a building has commercial premises, the rates and service charged by the local authority will be higher. However, the rental earned from these commercial sections should be able to cover these additional charges.

5.1.2 Security and Safety
Prevalent crime is a reality in South Africa, therefore, social housing developments must provide adequate security measures to protect the residents and discourage burglars. Implementing effective security measures improves the quality of built environment by creating a secured environment where the residents feel safe. The following recommendations show how social housing schemes can implement simple, affordable and effective security systems. The site of the housing development must be secured by using a fence, preferably a concrete palisade fence, which is durable and affordable and the fence must be topped with barbed wire. The management must ensure that the existing trees and bushes near the buildings are not overgrown, and bushes are kept below window height. Access to the site must be limited and controlled, the use of remote access (i.e. access disk or card) is an effective tool. An intercom buzzer system should be installed in every apartment for ease of communication between the security post and the residents. The site and buildings must be well lit. Buildings with corridors and stairwells must be well illuminated, mirrors should be provided at bends in the corridors to allow residents to be visually aware of people coming out the corners. The lighting fixtures for the sides and rear of the buildings should be motion sensitive. It increases the potential for witnesses by suddenly illuminating the environment.

Other important security measures include the protection of the exterior doors and windows of the housing units. To improve security of the exterior doors it is important that the doors should have a solid core and include a method to protect the door’s susceptibility to door edge splitting. To counter door splitting during an attack, the door should be equipped with an escutcheon plate, which significantly
increases the rigidity of the door edge and reduces the chance of the door splitting around the deadbolt area. Finally the doors should have effective strike plates (piece of metal, usually brass or steel, that attaches to the door frame and receives the lock bolt) to add strength to the door and a peephole viewer to allow the residents to have a view of the person outside their door. All windows accessible from ground level should be protected by steel bars. Laminated glass should also be considered to enhance the overall security of window units. Laminated glass consists of two panes of glass with a tough plastic interlayer that makes forced entry difficult. The glass may crack, but it will take several blows for a burglar to penetrate it.

A Neighborhood Watch program is another effective tool of preventing and combating crime. Neighbourhood watch is based on this concept of cooperation, when residents take positive steps to secure their own property and reduce the opportunity for crime to occur, through the active participation of citizens in crime prevention. The program teaches citizens how they can make their homes and apartments less inviting as a target for criminals, participate in operation identification, make personal property less desirable to burglars, and identify and report suspicious activity in the neighbourhood. A brochure including neighbours names and telephone numbers is distributed amongst residents so that it may be used during situations of emergency. The Neighbourhood Watch program provides a sense of security for individuals or families who leave their homes for any length of time. It also helps to co-ordinate the efforts of the police and the community in tracking down criminals. Strong community involvement is encouraged because neighbourhood unity can deter crime that threatens residents’ peace and safety.

All the recommendations outlined above can be funded by approaching private security companies who have special packages for housing schemes. Funding can also come from building material suppliers, especially those who supply some of the security items and devices listed earlier. The security devices can be supplied
at a discount rate to social housing institutions, if the housing institution is willing to provide free advertisement for the supplier, for example, a billboard on the building.

5.1.3 Communal spaces
Provision of communal spaces, especially in the refurbished buildings, encourages social living, interaction amongst the residents and play areas for children. The types of communal spaces recommended are both open green spaces and spaces within buildings. Social housing developments having large existing parks or green spaces must ensure that the spaces should be attractive for the residents to use for different recreational activities. The space must provide resting areas, equipped with seating furniture situated in surroundings likely to provide interest and enjoyment of nature such as garden or a pond. The space should offer peace, tranquillity and quietness where the user can relax. Play areas are also needed for lively activities, for the children and adults. It is desirable that any children’s playground provided be easily observable from the residential building for parental/adult supervision, and it is also desirable that the sport grounds for the adults are located near the children’s playground. The children’s play areas should be equipped with jungle gyms, swings, slides and sand pits while the adult’s play area should be large enough to accommodate games like football, rugby and cricket. Well defined footpaths are also necessary in open green spaces for people to walk on and it is important that the paths should be adequate enough for wheelchair users.

The recommended communal facilities located inside the buildings are the laundry, tuck shop and an extra-curricular activity room. The laundry is a very useful communal space, especially in developments with limited space for drying clothes in the open air. Most social housing institutions do not provide this service because of its high running costs. However this service can be outsourced to a laundry company. In this case, housing management would need to provide a space for the chosen company to install its washing appliances. The tuck shop is another useful space for residents to purchase basic household goods (i.e. toilet roll,
toothpaste, canned food, etc) without leaving their housing premises. The housing management could use this space to generate additional funds. Finally, it is important to have an activity room, where different kinds of indoor recreation can be done. Activities performed in this vary from informal discussions amongst the residents to art and crafts for children and teenagers (Social housing Foundation, 2001). Communal spaces must be implemented during the design phase of the housing scheme with the input from the community and all the stakeholders through design workshops.

5.1.4 Energy Efficient Housing
To improve energy efficiency in the two social housing schemes, alternate energy supply for heating can be acquired from solar water collection panels mounted on the roof with high performance heat exchangers. For electricity, 48m$^2$ of photovoltaic modules integrated in the roof of the buildings can be used for low energy lighting in common areas. Other initiatives of energy efficiency include the use of compact fluorescent lights that use less electricity, low flow showerheads and aerated taps that save water. Housing associations are appropriate channels to implement low cost energy efficient housing practice in South Africa, but external assistance is needed from the government and energy efficient housing specialists to overcome technical, capacity and financial constraints. Housing associations can be educated by specialists on energy efficient housing through workshops and forums during the design phase of the housing development. The government needs to review the housing policy and subsidies to accommodate the costs and impacts of implementing energy efficient features in social housing developments.

5.1.5 Design for people with special needs
The two social housing developments need to improve the external and internal spatial design requirements for people with special needs. These people include disabled people, elderly people and children. The term “inclusive environments”
refers to environments that account for the needs of people with disability and it addresses all of the following human needs (Social Housing Foundation, 2000):

- Physical needs: health, safety, shelter, water, cleanliness and employment
- Psychological needs: security, identity, a sense of belonging e.t.c.
- Social needs: Opportunities and social ties
- Sensory needs: exposure to stimulatory learning environments.

Design features that need to be addressed to accommodate residents with the above special needs include:

- Raised thresholds and steps at front entrances be changed into ramps
- Narrow doors to other rooms in the apartments, especially doors leading into the kitchen and bathrooms needs to be wider to accommodate wheel chairs or walking aids
- There must be adequate space in the kitchen and bathrooms to allow disabled people to manoeuvre around
- Light switches, taps, counter tops, shelves and cupboard rods that are mounted too high or low to reach must be changed to allow for easy contact
- Door knobs, taps handles and appliance controls must be easy to grasp and operate.

These requirements can be achieved through sensitive planning and selecting suitable products during the planning of the housing scheme with no major additional cost.

5.1.6 Aesthetics
Refurbished buildings in particular need to create a conforming yet unique image for their residents to appreciate. This can be achieved by repainting the exterior walls of the building with durable paint that requires minimal maintenance. The selection of appropriate colours is important to compliment the architectural style of the building. Regardless of architectural style, most residents still prefer some degree of aesthetic complexity and variety. Design recommendations therefore
include employing a variety in paint colours between different features such as lintels located above sash windows and decorative elements on the facade of the buildings treated with different colours.

The recommendations listed above are intended to facilitate the provision of quality living environments in the two modes of social housing delivery managed by social housing institutions. The recommendations are also useful for all the modes of the social housing delivery in South Africa because social housing is fast becoming a viable option in meeting housing demands in many towns and cities across South Africa today.
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APPENDIX A
QUESTIONNAIRE
To Occupants of Social housing schemes

Kindly tick the option appropriate to you.

DEMOGRAPHICS

1. Age
   (1.) Below 20
   (2.) 21 – 30
   (3.) 31 – 50
   (4.) Above 50

2. Gender?
   (1.) Male
   (2.) Female

3. What is your marital status?
   (1.) Married
   (2.) Single
   (3.) Divorced/widowed
   (4.) Separated

4. Economic status?
   (1.) Unemployed
   (2.) Pensioner
   (3.) Student
   (4.) Employed

5. What is the total monthly gross income of your household?
   (1.) R0- R500
   (2.) R501- R1000
   (3.) R1001-R1500
   (4.) R1501-R2000
   (5.) R2001- R2500
   (6.) R2501- R3000
   (7.) R3001- R3500
   (8.) Above R3500

6. What type of tenure rights do you have?
   (1.) Rental
   (2.) Rent to buy
   (3.) Installment sale
   (4.) Ownership
7. How many people live in your flat?
   (1.) One or two persons
   (2.) Three to four
   (3.) Five or more persons

8. Where is your place of origin?
   (1.) This city
   (2.) From a different City
   (3.) From a different Province
   (4.) Townships
   (5.) Rural area
   (6.) Other ______________________

9. Reason for staying in this housing scheme
   (1.) It is affordable
   (2.) It is close to the city.
   (3.) It is close to my place of work.
   (4.) It is close to friends and family
   (5.) Only available type of accommodation
   (6.) Other reason ______________________________________

SERVICES

11. How would you rate the toilet facilities available in your dwelling?
   (1.) Satisfactory
   (2.) Poor

Reasons for your answers: (you can choose more than 1 option)
   (1.) The sanitary fixtures (bath tub, water closet, wash hand basin) are in good condition.
   (2.) There is constant supply of water
   (3.) There is no water supply
   (4.) The toilets are dirty and smelly
   Other reasons ____________________________
   ____________________________
   ____________________________

12. How would you rate the electrical supply and connections in your dwelling?
   (1.) Satisfactory
   (2.) Poor

Reasons for your answers: (you can choose more than 1 option)
   (1.) There is constant electrical supply
(2.) There are exposed electrical wires around the scheme
(3.) The power supply is erratic
(5) There are illegal electrical connections in this housing scheme.
Other reasons ____________________________

13. What type of water supply do you have?
(1.) Available and connected
(2.) Disconnected but available

14. Are you satisfied with the water supply of your housing scheme?
(1.) Yes
(2.) No
Why? ____________________________

15. How would you rate the water supply and connections in your dwelling?
(1.) Very satisfactory
(2.) Satisfactory
(3.) Poor
(4.) Very poor
Reasons for your answer: (you can choose more than 1 option)
(1.) The cost of the water supply is cheap
(2.) There is a constant supply of water
(3.) Hot water is available
(4.) The water supply is limited
Other reasons: ____________________________

16. How would you rate the security of this housing scheme?
(1.) Very satisfactory
(2.) Satisfactory
(3.) Poor
(4.) Very poor
Why? ____________________________

17. Are there any type recreational facilities in this housing scheme?
(1.) Yes
(2.) No

18. If yes, how would you rate the main recreational facility (Open space or playground)?
(1.) Very satisfactory
(2.) Satisfactory
(3.) Poor
(3.) Very poor

Reasons for your answer: (you can choose more than 1 option)

(1.) It promotes social interaction
(2.) Its big and safe for children to play
(3.) Its is not well kept (i.e. dirty, grass is not cut)
(4.) It is too small and not safe

Other reasons: __________________________________________

19. Are there any laundry facilities in this housing scheme?

(1.) Yes
(2.) No

20. If yes how would you rate the laundry facilities?

(1.) Very satisfactory
(2.) Satisfactory
(3.) Poor
(4.) Very poor

Why? __________________________________________

PERCEPTIONS AND ATTITUDES TOWARDS THE SCHEME

21. Do you understand the type of housing scheme you are in?

(1.) Yes
(2.) No

22. How satisfied are you with your present living arrangement?

(1.) Very satisfactory
(2.) Satisfactory
(3.) Poor
(4.) Very poor

Reasons for your answer: (you can choose more than 1 option)

(1.) The services provided are good and efficient
(2.) It is good value for my money
(3.) The housing environment is conducive and well managed
(4.) The services are inadequate
(5.) The environment is unfriendly and unsafe

Other reasons: __________________________________________
23. If you had a choice to change one of the following options below, in your present housing scheme, what would it be and explain why?

(1.) The amount paid for rent
(2.) The size of the units
(3.) The management body
(4.) The location of the housing scheme
(5.) The design of the building
(6.) The whole environment

Please explain why? ____________________________________________

24. What is your view on the rent you are paying for your dwelling?

(1.) Its too expensive
(2.) Its affordable

25. Do you pay your rent regularly?

(1.) Yes
(2.) No

26. If no, why? ________________________________________________

27. How long have you been staying in this residence?

(1.) Less than a year
(2.) 1- 2 years
(3.) 3 years and above

28. How long do you intend on staying in this housing scheme?

(1.) I have no plans of leaving this scheme.
(2.) I plan to own a unit in this scheme.
(3.) I will stay until when my financial status improves
(4.) I would leave right now if I have another alternative

Why? _______________________________________________________

29. How would you rate the level of crime in your area?

(1.) High
(2.) Moderate
(3.) Low

30. How would you rate the following features in this housing scheme?
31. Has the quality of your life improved by staying in this housing scheme?

(1.) Yes
(2.) No

Please state your reasons:
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________

32. Has the cost of living here differed from where you previously lived?

(1.) Yes
(2.) No

Explain? ________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________

33. Looking at your current monthly expenditure, do you believe this type of housing scheme is an affordable alternative.

(1.) Yes
(2.) No
(3.) Don’t Know

Explain? ________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________

MANAGEMENT OF THE SCHEME

34. The quality of service delivered by the managing body would be best rated as:

(1.) High
(2.) Satisfactory
(3.) Poor

Reasons for your answer: (you can choose more than 1 option)

(1.) There is a good relationship between the residents and the managing body
(2.) The residents are allowed to express their views
(3.) The buildings and the environment are well maintained by the managing body
(4.) There is no relationship between the residents and the management body.
(5.) Residents have no say in the running of the housing scheme.
(6.) The environment is not well maintained
Other reason: ____________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________

35. How would you rate the level communication and relationship between the tenants and managing body?
   (1.) Excellent
   (2.) Good
   (3.) Poor
   (4.) Very poor
   Why? __________________________________________________________
____________________________________________________________________

36. Do you attend housing meetings?
   (1.) Yes
   (2.) No

37. If yes, how would you rate the attendance of meetings in the past year?
   (1.) Very well attended
   (2.) Well attended
   (3.) Average attendance
   (4.) Poor attendance

38. During the meetings, is there a good level of interaction between the residents and the managing body?
   (1.) Yes
   (2.) No

39. Are the residents allowed to express their views and problems at the meetings?
   (1.) Yes
   (2.) No

40. Does the managing body respond well to the issues raised at meetings?
   (1.) Yes
   (2.) No
   Why? __________________________________________________________
____________________________________________________________________

41. How efficient is the managing body in solving problems in this housing scheme?
   (1.) Very efficient
   (2.) Efficient
   (3.) Not efficient
42. Are you well informed by the managing body on how the housing scheme is managed (i.e. income generated, building expenditures e.t.c.)
   (1.) Yes
   (2.) No
   (3.) Not interested
   Why? ____________________________________________________________

MAINTENANCE

43. How would you rate the maintenance of this scheme?
   (1.) Excellent
   (2.) Good
   (3.) Poor
   (4.) Very poor
   Reasons: __________________________________________________________

44. What is the general condition of the building and the scheme in respect to painting, cleaning and landscaping?
   (1.) Excellent
   (2.) Good
   (3.) Poor
   (4.) Very poor
   Why? __________________________________________________________
   __________________________________________________________
   __________________________________________________________
APPENDIX B

BUILDING APPRAISAL FORM

Name: __________________________ Date: __________________ Time: ______________

Overview

1. Address

2. Building name

3. District:

4. Type (Please tick) : Refurbished Building _______ , Greenfield Development ________

5. No. of apartment units ______________________________

6. No. of Stories ________________________________

7. Building Age _____________________________

Exterior Conditions

8. Indicate if you detect any of the following on the exterior walls:

   • Spalling Concrete ______
   • Cracks in the walls ______
   • Deteriorated beams or support columns ______
   • Deteriorated balconies/ Veranda structure ______
   • Damaged/ missing elements_______
   • Insect or vegetation damage ______
   • Water stains/ Damage ______
   • Rust ______
   • Paint damage (finish needed on the overall building) ______
9. How would you describe the overall condition of the exterior walls and structure of the building?
   - Excellent
   - No repairs needed
   - Repairs needed
   - Significant repairs needed
   - Hazardous

10. Indicate if you detect any of the following on the building Finishes and Details:
   - Damaged seals/trim
   - Damaged or worn detail/moldings
   - Damaged window surrounds/awnings
   - Other ________________

11. Indicate if you detect any of the following on the windows or doors:
   - Missing doors or windows
   - Missing/ broken hinges or handles
   - Door/ window not aligning with its frame
   - Rusted or weathered frames
   - Cracked or broken glass
   - Deteriorated sun-protected film or louvers over glass.
   - Other
   - none

12. Indicate if you detect any of the following in regard to the roof:
- Missing sheeting / tiles
- Loose barge boards / fascia/flashing
- Damaged eaves
- Other
- None

13. How would you describe the overall condition of the exterior walls and structure of the building

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<th>Doors</th>
<th>Windows</th>
<th>Finishes</th>
<th>Roof</th>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>No repairs needed</td>
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<tr>
<td>Hazardous</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Services**

14. Indicate if you detect any of the following in regard to electrical services/ lifts:

- Faulty wiring (e.g. illegally split wires )
- Exposed/ loose wiring
- Other
• Lifts not working
• Lifts operational
• No lifts.

15. Indicate if you detect any of the following in regard to the plumbing and drainage services:

• Missing vents/ pipes/ gutters
• Broken vents/ pipes/ gutters
• Clogged vents/ pipes/ gutters
• Other

16. Indicate if you detect any of the following in regard to the fire escape:

• Broken fire escape
• Blocked / in accessible
• Other

17. How would you describe the overall condition of the following building services

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<thead>
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<th></th>
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<th>Windows services</th>
<th>Fire escape services</th>
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<tr>
<td>No repairs needed</td>
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</table>
Site Conditions

18. Describe the condition of lighting in alleyways/courts/ yards on the site:
   • No Lighting
   • Poorly lit
   • Moderately lit
   • Well lit

19. Indicate if you detect any of the following on the driveway or pavements:
   • Large cracks
   • Potholes
   • Common cracks
   • Other

20. What types of parking and loading bays are provided?
   • Open parking bays
   • On-street parking
   • Undercover parking
   • Lock up garages

21. Describe the condition of the landscaping/ vegetation on the site:
   • Poorly maintained
   • Fairly maintained
   • Well maintained
   • Not applicable
22. Describe the levels of litter/refuse around the site:

- Significant amount of litter/ refuse
- Moderate/sparse amount of litter/refuse
- None

Neighborhood conditions

23. Describe the overall condition of the adjoining properties in the area.

- Neighboring buildings are poorly maintained
- Neighboring buildings are fairly maintained
- Neighboring buildings are well maintained

24. How would you rate the level of vehicular and pedestrian activities

- Very active
- Active
- Moderately active
- No activity

25. Describe the level of noise in the area.

- Heavy vehicular noise
- Moderate vehicular noise
- Noise from Nightclubs/bars
- Noise from adjacent industrial equipment
- Noise from public facilities
• Noise from pedestrian movement.

26. Please specify any factors contributing to the appeal and quality of the building.

• Proximity to the beach/waterfront
• Proximity to entertainment venues
• Views
• Proximity to inner city and public facilities
• Security provisions
• Well maintained neighborhood.

27. Please specify any factors detracting from the appeal and quality of the building.

• Poorly maintained building
• Poor security and crime
• Noisy
• Poorly maintained gardens
• Unkempt vacant lots nearby
• Poorly maintained adjacent buildings.
APPENDIX C

Interview questions for the Managers of the Social housing institutions

- What are the funding sources and requirements for this type of housing delivery?
- The existing constraints and opportunities experienced in refurbished buildings and Greenfield developments in terms of the following:
  1. Physical issues (the building, surrounding area, communal spaces)
  2. Financial issues (which type of development is more viable)
  3. Social issues (crime, recreation, security)
  4. End-user issues (i.e. paying of rent,)
  5. Development process (Construction and implementation)
  6. Property management
- Are there any differences in the levels of satisfaction of the occupants with the units and its surroundings in both cases?
- Are there any socio-economical differences in the residents of the two different developments?
- From a managerial point of view, which type of development is easier to manage (Refurbished or Greenfield development)?