UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU NATAL (HOWARD COLLEGE CAMPUS)

SCHOOL OF BUILT ENVIRONMENT AND DEVELOPMENT STUDIES

Research Topic:

A critical analysis of self-built housing as a model for peri-urban areas: the case of uMzinyathi, KwaZulu-Natal.

By

Sifiso Simphiwe Dhlamini

2018

Supervisor: Professor Oliver Mtapuri

Co-supervisor: Dr Claudia Loggia

This dissertation is submitted in Partial Fulfilment of the requirements towards a Master of Development Studies degree in the School of Built Environment and Development Studies, Howard College Campus, University of KwaZulu-Natal.

COLLEGE OF HUMANITIES

DECLARATION OF PLAGIARISM

I, Sifiso Simphiwe Dhlamini declare that:

1. The research detailed in this thesis, except where otherwise indicated, and is my original research.
2. This thesis has not been submitted for any degree or examination at any other university.
3. This thesis does not contain data, pictures, tables from any other persons, unless adequately and explicitly acknowledged that the information has been sourced from other persons.
4. This thesis does not contain other persons writing, unless specifically acknowledged as being sourced from other persons. Where other written sources have been quoted, then:
    4.1. Their words have been rephrased to suite the study, but the general information attributed to them has been referenced.
    4.2. Where words have been directly quoted from a source, then their writing has been italicized with direct quotation marks, and referenced.
    4.3. Where there is more than three lines of writing that has been directly quoted form a source, then their writing has been indented and referenced.
5. This thesis does not contain text, graphs, or tables copied and pasted from the internet, unless specifically acknowledged, and the source being detailed in the thesis and in the References section.

…………………………....   ...…………………….......   ……………………………

Name   Signed   Date

Supervisor: Professor Oliver Mtapuri

Co-supervisor: Dr Claudia Loggia

i

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to pass my deepest gratitude to a number of people who have been my pillars of strength and support throughout this emotional roller-coaster process in carrying out the study and successfully completing this dissertation.

First and foremost, I give thanks to God Almighty for without His divine authority and wisdom that shielded me and gave me remarkable strength to continue, my completion would have not been possible.

I also express my appreciation to my academic supervisors Professor Oliver Mtapuri under Development Studies, and Dr Claudia Loggia of Housing in the School of Built-Environment and Development Studies for their professionalism, significant support, guidance and constructive criticism that was very fruitful for the effective consolidation of the study.

Gratitude cannot be expressed enough for my family who have presented a great deal of support, comfort, patience and nothing less than love throughout this period and in my overall life's endeavours thus far. To my parents Phezani P. Dhlamini (Father) and Balungile P. Mhlongo (Mother) a profound and sincere gratitude for your inspiration, prayers and constant motivation to go beyond my known potential. My siblings Thobekani Dhlamini, Kei Dhlamini and Zaira Dhlamini for being beacons of light in my life. Furthermore, to my aunt's Lindani Dhlamini and Matshidiso Dhlamini, uncle Mpumelelo Dhlamini and cousin Gugu Nogxina your care, kindness and encouragement over the years has been nothing but remarkable thank you. Not to forget my late grandparents Saul Dhlamini, Kei Dhlamini and Rose Mhlongo who have been my guardian angels may their souls rest in peace.

Further, I owe a sincere thanks to my best-friend and significant other Mthokozisi Ndlela for your unconditional love and encouragement, your support throughout this period has been remarkable and I am honoured and thankful to have experienced this journey with you by my side.

Last but not least, a special thanks to all the participants and iNkosi B.P Ngcobo imcluding the headsmen of the Qadi Clan for their time, shared knowledge and insights in relation to the study.

FINANCIAL ASSISTANCE

DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to is'thombe sami (my picture) Phezani Dhlamini who has loved me beyond words can explain, protected and sacrificed so much for me to be where I today. He has taught me love, patience, selflessness, perseverance, to listen attentively and most of all too always follow my dreams and aspirations not matter how impossible they may seem. These life lessons have empowered me to be a better woman today. It is also dedicated to the whole Dhlamini clan of amaZizi amahle oJama kaSjadu, abajekela esalakulandelwa. Omabhaya ngozipho njengenyamazane. Kini ekuvalwa ngeminyango, ekuvalwa ngamakhanda amandoda. Zizi.

ABSTRACT

The world is rapidly urbanizing and irrepressibly so. Since the late 1950s, urbanization has had a tremendous effect on developing countries globally, at varying rates of change where some have experienced more rapid urbanization than others. Today, cities host a lion's share of the world population. The rapid urban expansion and densification of peri-urban areas have heightened the urge to address the prevailing issue of inadequate housing experienced by the majority of developing countries globally. For centuries, houses have been built by people themselves, which served as a measure to access, protect and secure adequate housing. It is not until recent times that other external actors have begun to be consulted about the planning, design, construction, and overall management of the housing production process. Nowadays, trends of good quality self-built houses by owners have rapidly emerged in peri-urban areas.

The aim of this research was to critically analyse self-built housing as a model for peri-urban areas focusing on uMzinyathi located within eThekwini Municipality. The Rapid Urban Growth Triad (RUGT) and Turner's theory of 'Self-Help' theoretical frameworks underpinned and formed the basis of understanding for the study. In addition, qualitative research methodology was adopted, and primary information was gathered mainly through observation and in-depth semi-structured interviews with 16 participants from uMzinyathi.

The study found that the rapid movement of people to uMzinyathi was influenced by factors like access to affordable land for housing development, transportation systems, basic services, close proximity to the city and closeness to Ebuhle the Nazareth place of worship. In addition, self-building enabled the liberty to build incrementally within people's means and without any pressure to follow building specifications. It was indicated that the houses that were self-built profusely met household needs; to some degree,it was the most cost-effective approach. A thematic content analysis was used to examine all research findings of the study.

The study envisaged informing further research on self-building in other peri-urban areas. It was recommended that a decongestion strategy be established to better manage rapid urban expansion. In addition, establish a self-builders association that will help protect the rights of local self-builders. The traditional authorities should be more knowledgeable and understand the local municipalities' future prospects of development. The local government, private sector, NGOs and academia should collaborate in developing skills including knowledge of households to enhance their capacity in the self-build housing process. Public and private actors to also avail development finance or credit to households.

TABLE OF CONTENTS   Page

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF PHOTOGRAPHS

Image 4.1: Residential settlements of uMzinyathi

Image 4.2: Traditional house (umuzi) typology

Image 4.3.: Modern house typology

Image 4.4.: Modern competed houses

Image 4.5.: Awaiting house consolidation: timber 'Wendy' house

Image 4.6.: Awaiting house consolidation: brick house

LIST OF APPENDIXES

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

UDL   Urban Development Line

EPHP   Enhanced Peoples Housing Process

UISP   Upgrading Of Informal Settlements Program

StatsSA   Statistics South Africa

NDoH   National Department of Human Settlements

IDP   Integrated Development Plan

KZN   Kwazulu-Natal

PINK   Phoenix Inanda Ntuzuma Kwamashu

UCCSA   Congregation Church of Southern Africa

UN   United Nations

UK   United Kingdom

DESA/PD   Department of Economic and Social Affairs/Population Division

RUGT   Rapid Urban Growth Triad

NGO   Non-Governmental Organization

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

1.1 Introduction

The world is rapidly urbanizing and irrepressibly so. Today, cities host a lion's share of the world population. Thus, numerous countries and cities in several developing regions of the world have experienced structural regeneration, growth, and development greatly informed by urbanization (Simon, 2008; Sietchiping et.al, 2014). It is projected that megacities within developing countries will comprise over 90% of the future population growth (African Development Bank, 2012). In the developing world, the scale of urban transition and development of African cities towards an 'urban age' has proceeded at an unprecedented rate in its swiftness (Güneralp et.al., 2017; Myers and Murray, 2006; Simone, 2001).

Though the African continent remains mostly rural in nature, it has become one of the greatest rapidly urbanizing regions globally. With an urban growth estimate of 3.5% per year over the last two decades. This rate is expected to hold into 2050 as some African cities inter alia (Johannesburg-Pretoria, Cape Town, Durban, Cairo, Lagos, Nairobi, Dar es Salaam, Luanda, Lusaka) will account for 85 % (approximately 1.339 billion) of the world population (African Development Bank, 2012; Güneralp et.al., 2017; Myers and Murray, 2006).

This hasty transition of the urban form of settlements has accumulated and bred poverty, inequality and ever-sprawling informal settlements that have characterized chaotic and disorderly African societies (Myers and Murray, 2006). Simone (2001) contends that African cities are mostly places of rising and expanding urban poverty and extensive informality, which function on extremely weak economic platforms through which it is difficult to distinguish any sense of long –term sustainability. Notwithstanding the latter, the distinct variation in the patterns of urban growth and development including historical specificities of African cities cannot be overlooked (Myers and Murray, 2006). Most of these cities have been subject to substantial restructuring following the past colonial and apartheid legacies, which had unsympathetically and systematically created conditions for racial and spatial discrimination.

The present-day spatial patterns, particularly in South African, have been significantly influenced by these past discriminatory legacies. The housing and spatial layout of most South African cities exists in the shadow of Apartheid. As a system sanctioned from 1948 through to 1994 by the National Party, apartheid was inextricably linked to urbanization (Wertman, 2015). From the establishment of supposed 'homelands' or 'Bantustans', which excluded and

confined the black population to peripheral areas with little to no service delivery and economic opportunities.

Which included the perpetuation of residential segregation through the creation of buffer zones between races; to the extensive displacement of residential settlements and places of work for the majority of the population, these were some of the attempts to constrain urbanization during this era (Smith, 2003; Wertman, 2015). Over time, some of the features and spatial patterns have faded into obscurity or reformed beyond recognition. Though many of the African cities have been tainted by these legacies, however, their subsequent growth and development over the years have not conformed to one uniform pattern (Myers and Murray, 2006).

The astounding dynamism and heterogenetic nature that African cities possess is remarkable. The diversity of these cities is reflected in their varied morphological forms, distinctive social and demographic compositions, and lastly their varying spatial (urban-rural) linkages and connections (Myers and Murray, 2006). Therefore, it can be attested that the rapid transition in the structure of human settlements has perpetuated the development of new socio-political and economic structures; including ever-sprawling settlement patterns on the outskirts of urban landscapes identified as 'peri-urban' zones.

These transitional zones encompass features of both urban and rural areas. This hybridity has heightened the existence of dual governance between local and traditional authorities in some developing regions such as uMzinyathi in eThekwini municipality (Sutherland et al., 2016). In literature, peri-urban areas have often been associated with informality, lack of social assimilation, inadequate infrastructural provision, and poor spatial planning. However, for self-builders, peri-urban areas have become zones of choice, creativity, opportunity, and constraints, where one can find peace and fulfillment of their wildest housing fantasies.

The global demand for housing has outstripped the growth rate of the urban population over the years. This has not only posed a challenge for urban dwellers, but also governments as they continue to lack sufficient capacity to meet the increasing housing demand for the rising population. In light of the latter, the hasty growth of peri-urban areas has heightened the urge to address the prevailing issue of inadequate housing experienced by most developing countries globally. Therefore, it goes without saying that self-built housing has become an increasingly prevalent mode of housing provision amongst peri-urban dwellers. Hence, this study critically examined self-built housing as a model for peri-urban areas focusing on uMzinyathi a peri-area administered under eThekwini Municipality.

1.2 Background

The rural and urban areas are commonly viewed as two definite entities that are not distinctly connected to one another. In this way, the boundary of where the 'core' for urban areas end and where the rural landscapes begin continues to be unclear and this makes the differentiation between 'urban' and 'rural' difficult (Tacoli, 1998). Over the past few decades, most of the developing countries globally have experienced a gradual movement of large segments of the population from the urban core and rural farms to resettle on the urban peripheries (Adewale, 2005). This process of reverse migration has perpetuated hasty spatial growth and transition of socio-cultural, economic, political and environmental formations of peri-urban areas.

The transition of the urban peripheries is due to various push and pull factors such as, inter alia, lack of job security, expensive housing markets that are not easily accessible to the low-income households; lack of security of tenure, overcrowding resulting into urban sprawl, growing crime rates; including poorly serviced rural areas (Adewale, 2005). Whereas, peri-urban areas are characterised by land accessibility, unregulated land-use allowing households to independently build what they desire; access to cheaper and /or free services (that is water, electricity, and sanitation). In addition, no municipal rates ought to be paid; the desire to experience low-stress rural lifestyle, including the tranquil and beautiful scenery of the indigenous environment. Moreover, factors such as reduced crime rates and close proximity to the urban core for employment and basic service opportunities have been major attractions (Adewale, 2005; Brown and Wardwell, 2013). Therefore, it is only fitting to assess the factors that influence the movement of people from the urban core and rural farms into the dynamic landscape of peri-urban areas. As this is a growing trend that has impacted the majority of the developing countries globally, namely, China, Peru, Brazil, Ethiopia, Tanzania, Angola, Egypt, Ghana, and Nigeria including South Africa amongst others.

Most of the above-mentioned countries have experienced past colonialism that unsympathetically alternated their socio-economic and governing structures. For instance, the spatial, economic, and social formation of towns and cities in South Africa has been shaped by the colonial and apartheid legacies. These were legacies of poverty, segregation by race, and exclusion from socio-economic opportunities specifically for the black people (Kilian et.al, 2005; Jedwab et.al, 2014; Wertman, 2015). Furthermore, this perpetuated the establishment of stratified and divided settlements and left most of the population on the outskirts of vibrant urban areas. This was with inadequate access to formal housing and land markets, basic services, economic, job opportunities, healthcare and education amongst other resources.

Consequently, people began rapidly moving back towards the cities after the country gained its independence in 1994 (Wertman, 2015). Hence, as the greater part of Africa and other developing nations globally, South Africa continues to experience constant urbanization (Kok and Collison, 2006).

It is needless to say, policies and regulations often fail to capture, protect, and account for the prevalent dualistic nature of governance including the dynamism of peri-urban areas. However, government's incremental interventions such as Enhanced Peoples Housing Process Programme (EPHP) and Upgrading of Informal Settlements Programme (UISP) amongst others; have empowered people to be drivers of their own development through participation in the housing delivery process and promoting security of tenure. EPHP program was re-enacted in 2008 replacing the previous People's Housing Process policy that was first introduced in 1998 (Newton, 2013; National Department of Human Settlements, 2009). This program aimed at harnessing community initiatives, encouraging effective participation in the planning and decision-making concerning the self-help housing delivery process (National Department of Human Settlements (NDoHS), 2009).

The UISP on the other hand only acquired its statutory significance in 2004. This program intended to improve living conditions of poor communities through the effective provision of basic services, the security of tenure and promoting in-situ (on-site) upgrading of existing informal settlements (NDoHS, 2009). Both of these programs form part of the National Housing Code of 2009 and are aligned to a more incremental people-centered approach to housing provision and the overall promotion of integrated development in communities. Subsequently, the constantly rising demand for affordable housing for the urban poor has previously had some improvements as housing has been made accessible through these programs (NDoHS, 2009). The above-mentioned programs are some of the mechanisms that have been informed by the phenomenon of self-help housing.

However, the surging numbers of the population over the years and presently still pose a challenge as governments in developing countries continue to lack sufficient capacity to eradicate the growing housing backlogs, and the prevalent housing market often fails to accommodate the needs of the urban poor (Amoateng, et.al, 2013; Appiah et al, 2014; Keivan and Werna, 2001). Therefore, the inability of the formal markets to absorb large segments of the growing urban population to purchase or lease property has made the provision of housing through the 'informal' markets a key component of urban growth and development in

developing countries (Keivan and Werna, 2001). This has perpetuated the unprecedented emergence of 'informal' settlements on the outskirts of cities that often fail to follow conventional processes of development. Consequently, governments have been forced to tolerate and accommodate a certain degree of illegality and irregularity that come with these unconventional forms of housing provision (Keivan and Werna, 2001).

Self-building in housing has become an increasingly prevalent and an unconventional mode of housing provision amongst peri-urban dwellers over the past few decades. Self-build refers to the practice or process whereby households 'self' mobilize their own resources inter alia (energy, time, finance, and skills) to invest in housing for their own use or exchange (Benson, 2017). This is averse to seeking housing that is provided through other actors, namely, state-assisted, civil society, including the market. Therefore, this notion of 'self-build' is depicted as a creative and cost-effective response by households to mass urbanization and incapacity of the state to house the growing urban population Parnell & Hart (2001) cited in (Landman & Napier, 2010).

Furthermore, it should be noted that 'self-building' does not certainly mean that the homeowner directly partakes in the actual construction of the physical structure of the house. However, their involvement in the development process could be purely based on being part and parcel of the planning, design and decision-making processes. Thus, for the purpose of this paper, the term 'self-build' is used to define any form of housing production whereby the homeowner/s to some degree are directly or indirectly involved in the development or construction process of the physical structure of their new home.

In light of the latter, the self-building approach to housing development has not merely become an ordinary practice in developing countries globally. But its rapid growth and development have created a new diverse, distinct and stable housing market, which has the ability to deliver affordable, sustainable and high-quality housing. This has also allowed self-builders to think innovatively and explore strategically some of the forms of self-help housing as it has become a key approach to expressing and satisfying their housing needs (Mathey, 1991). Hence, this study intends to explore the extent to which self-build housing is a pragmatic approach to housing the urban poor. In addition to the latter, this research also seeks to examine the motivation and some of the benefits of self-building in peri-urban areas. It will further explore the type and degree of security of tenure that the residents possess in these multifaceted and dynamic areas on the outskirts of cities.

1.3 Problem statement of the study

The dynamism of peripheral areas and the relation to their rapid transition remain greatly contested in literature. Thus, peri-urbanization has become both a striking and puzzling phenomenon that has been greatly contested by various academic luminaries within the urban and development studies domain. The theoretic contestations concerning peri-urbanization are greatly rooted in the history and development context based on Euro-American thought (Chulu, 2016; Mbiba & Huchzermeyer, 2002). This is problematic, as most developing countries, particularly in Africa have espoused development approaches from developed nations for decades. However, most of these Western development approaches are unrealistic and not efficiently applicable in an African context (Chulu, 2016). Therefore, inadequate research has explored the intricacy of the reverse in-migration into peri-urban areas, and the transition dynamics that manifest themselves in an African.

Juxtaposed to the urban sprawl, there is a distinct trend of good upmarket self-built houses within peri-urban areas obtained through an 'unconventional' housing market (Landman & Napier, 2010). Section 26 (1) of the South African Constitution of 1999 recognises the right for everyone to have adequate housing. However, in urban areas, whilst to enter the rental market might be challenging, it is even more difficult for the households to penetrate the housing market as owner. Consequently, the majority of the people particularly the low to middle-income households have come to realize this right of adequate housing through self-building their own homes on the outskirts of cities. According to Landman and Napier (2010), the self-help (build) housing process enables households to build gradually and incrementally in relation to the capacity and financial means they possess. Moreover, it is evident that self-builders possess sufficient potential, creativity and above all capacity to construct their most desired homes as argued by Turner (Westendorff, 2009).

However, modern dimensions and manifestations regarding the rapid usage of diverse forms of self-help housing particularly self-build within peri-urban areas is inadequately and/or partly explored in housing and development policy (Landman & Napier, 2009; Sullivan & Ward, 2012). In addition, although the urban periphery encompasses a greater part of residential development that is substantially established informally through self-building in developing countries. More often urban areas and developed regions internationally appear to be the focal areas of socio-economic and spatial development (Landman & Napier, 2010; Sullivan and Ward, 2012). Moreover, the self-built housing sector of the market to some degree does add to countries housing stock, however, it is often not accounted for as it does not follow and abide

by formal planning and building standards as in the formal housing markets. Therefore, this study seeks to bridge that gap of inadequate or partial exploration of this phenomenon through the efficient and distinct examination of self-built housing as a model for peri-urban areas.

In the context of this paper, uMzinyathi has been chosen as the focal area to conduct research for the purpose of this study. Like most rapidly transitioning regions in South Africa, uMzinyathi is no exception, as a peri-urban area administered under EThekwini Municipality it continues to experience rapid densification through informal self-building that has led to the transition of its natural spatial setting. The historical specificities of Durban as an apartheid city provides a basis for understanding the nature of the peri-urban phenomenon (Mbatha and Mchunu, 2016). The greatly segregated spatial patterns, particularly in residential areas, growing poverty, inequality, distorted property markets, and the peripheralization of the urban poor away from the vibrant urban areas, are some of the deep scars that characterise South African settlements today.

UMzinyathi is a peri-urban area located within iQadi a tribal (traditional) settlement to the west of the large townships of Phoenix, Inanda, Ntuzuma and KwaMashu (PINK) just outside the urban development line of eThekwini Municipality (Sutherland, Sim, Buthelezi and Khumalo, 2016: 8). Prior to the county's dispensation in 1994, uMzinyathi was considered rural and one of the 'homelands' for the black population. However, post-1994 saw a paradigm shift as small pockets of informal settlements started emerging and more people had the urge to move closer to the city. Thus, in efforts to restructure and restore the divided city, the post-apartheid local government through the Municipal Demarcation Board introduced a demarcation process to determine new municipal boundaries, which officially took place in the year 2000.

This was in accordance to the sanctioned Demarcation Act 27 of 1998 that "informed the expansion of administrative boundaries of the 'old' city of Durban to include a vast number of rural areas that had previously fallen under the former KwaZulu Bantustan government" (Mbatha and Mchunu, 2016: 280). Consequently, from 2004 to date spatial setting of most rural areas such as uMzinyathi have then gradually transformed into peri-urban areas. There are no clear statistics indicated in the literature regarding the population size or housing stock around the late 1990s in uMzinyathi, however, today it is home to more than 30 000 people who are predominantly traditional Africans of Shembe religion (Sutherland, 2016). In addition, the self-built houses have added to the country's housing stock, however, it remains unaccounted for as the area continues to densify.

1.4 Significance of the Study

Housing is an essential need and a basic human right. Section 26 (1) of the South African Constitution realizes this right by stating that "*Everyone has a right to have access to adequate housing*" (Department of Justice, 1996: 11). In addition to the latter, Section 26 (2) of the South African Constitution also stipulates that "*the State must take reasonable legislative and other measures, within its available resources, to achieve the progressive realisation of this right*" (Department of Justice, 1996: 11). However, for some people, this is only a pipe dream as the government continues to lack sufficient capacity to eradicate the growing housing backlogs and the market often fails to accommodate the surging numbers of the population. To this end, the majority of the middle to low-income groups have turned to the informal housing markets in efforts to access and procure affordable quality housing in developing countries (Keivani and Werna, 2001). Thus, people within society continually engage in self-help as a means of housing provision. This approach has created a platform for people (self-builders) to be innovative and strategic thinkers who form part and parcel of the housing delivery process.

The findings of this study thus endeavored to understand the prevailing trends of self-built housing within the multifaceted peri-urban areas in South Africa focusing on uMzinyathi as it continues to experience rapid densification. Although the study has a narrow focus on uMzinyathi, it is anticipated that it will inform future studies within the EThekwini region and greater South Africa towards the direction of understanding emerging trends concerning self-built housing within peri-urban settlements.

Moreover, the partial and inadequate exploration of rapid transition and ongoing trends relating to self-building in these dynamic landscapes justifies the need for effective and in-depth analysis. This will not merely broaden the spectrum of knowledge surrounding rapid peri-urbanization and self-building through unconventional housing markets. But the study will help reveal other crucial areas of the housing delivery process that might seek further exploration in literature. Furthermore, given the current growing need for planners and policymakers to link rural and peri-urban areas to the urban cores in the majority of developing regions particularly in African cities, it is only fitting to contribute and expand relevant information towards that body of knowledge.

The study further contributes towards a better understanding and an effective capturing of dweller perceptions regarding the motivation behind the decision to self-build and factors that influence the movement of people to peri-urban areas. This will be of great significance and

tremendously beneficial in developing knowledge, raising awareness, and much-needed recognition of emerging and diverse forms of self-help housing approaches that relate to the dynamic context of peri-urban areas. Moreover, since policies and regulations often fail to capture, protect, and account for the dualistic nature including dynamism of peri-urban areas. There is a growing need for policymakers to acknowledge and fully understand the context that informs the prevailing development trends on the outskirts of cities prior to enacting or addressing any policy related to housing delivery effectively. Consequently, this study might inform future studies by scholars who also envisage expanding and contributing crucial knowledge to better-understanding housing on ever-sprawling peri-urban settlements.

1.5 Aim

The study aims to critically analyse self-built housing as a model for the rapidly densifying peri-urban area of uMzinyathi located within EThekwini Municipality.

1.6 Objectives

- To assess the factors that influence the movement of people to peri-urban areas like uMzinyathi
- To understand the involvement of peri-urban dwellers in the decision making and housing process concerning the planning, design, construction, and overall management of their own housing.
- To examine the motivation for and benefits of self-building in peri-urban areas
- To explore the degree of security of tenure that dwellers possess in peri-urban areas

1.7 Research Questions

1.7.1. Main research question

How has self-built housing been a pragmatic model of housing in peri-urban areas?

Notwithstanding the main research question, there are subsidiary questions that assist with reinforcement of the main question. These are as follows:

1.7.2. Subsidiary Questions

- What factors influence the movement of people to peri-urban areas like uMzinyathi?
- To what extent are peri-urban dwellers involved in the decision-making and housing process concerning the planning, design, construction, and overall management of their own housing?

- What motivates for self-building and benefits doing so in these dynamic landscapes of peri-urban areas?
- What type and degree of security of tenure do dwellers possess in peri-urban areas?

1.8 Conceptual Framework: Defining Key Terms

1.8.1.   Urban Sprawl

'Urban sprawl' also known as 'suburban sprawl or 'sprawl' refers to patterns of unplanned and irregular gradual outward growth of cities or towns beyond the set metropolitan development boundaries into the surrounding rural landscapes (Squires, 2002). It is often characterised through low-density housing, rapid population growth and migration, fragmented land-use patterns, major infrastructure expansion (roads, communication, electricity, water, and sanitation systems), increased dependency and utilization of private vehicles for transportation purposes, including environmental degradation (Squires, 2002; Woltjer, 2014). In light of the latter, urban sprawl is also often perceived as development that is tremendously unsustainable in nature and often lacks defined hubs of commercial development. However, the change in the nature and structure of human settlements for most developing countries is largely informed by this process of urban growth and development that often perpetuates rapid urbanization of these regions.

1.8.2.   Urbanisation

Urban growth has been a key contributing factor in rapid urbanization and the development of many cities in developing regions globally. Urbanisation is a complex phenomenon that has no rigid meaning, but it is commonly described as the process where the quantity of individuals living in cities grows relative to the number of people living in rural settings (McCatty, 2005). The concepts of urbanization and migration are inextricably linked. In literature, urbanisation is usually explained through the rapid movement of people from rural into urban areas driven by 'push and pull' factors from both places also known as 'rural-to-urban migration (Bloom, Canning, and Fink, 2008; McCatty, 2005). This movement is often on an interim or permanent basis depending on the condition/s that brought about the decision to move.

Most of the developing countries particularly in Africa, circular migration has become the most important and common practice of migration from urban peripheries into the urban core. According to Hugo (2013: 2) circular migration refers to "repeated migration experiences between a place of origin and destination involving more than one migration and return". Thus, this refers to mobility that is more on a temporary basis, where factors such as employment

opportunities (i.e. enable individuals to send remittances to family), education, access to healthcare institutions, shopping centres, and visiting family amongst others (Hugo, 2013). Hence, for the purpose of this study, the notion of urbanisation used in the literature review signifies a process that has induced the rapid movement of people into peri-urban areas

1.8.3.   Migration

Migration is a key factor in the growth of numerous counties globally. It is a multifaceted phenomenon that has assumed an eminent role in rebuilding the economic, socio-cultural, political and environmental structures of societies worldwide for centuries. According to McCatty (2004) migration refers to the movement of an individual, a group of people or species from a single place of origin and to settle in another area. This could be on an interim or permanent basis Migration comprises of different forms of its sort. 'Rural-urban' and 'circulatory' movement of people between space has been the most popular modes of migration within both developed and developing regions over the years. Circular migration being the most prominent form of human mobility in the developing world.

Consequently, a process of 'reverse migration' has emerged in developing nations whereby countries have experienced gradual migration of people from the core of urban areas and rural farms going to settle in urban peripheral areas that are infused with both rural and urban characteristics. Therefore, this study seeks to explore some of the major factors that inform the rapid movement of people into peri-urban landscapes. Migration comprises of different methods of its sort. 'Rural-urban' and 'circulatory' movement of people between space has been the most popular modes of migration within both developed and developing regions over the years. Circular migration being the most prominent form of human mobility in the developing world.

1.8.4.   Urban Area

The definition of 'urban' varies from one country to another. An urban area can be seen as a formal settlement that is strategically and systematically defined by official local town plans and standards that guide and manage development patterns. Thus, it is an area that is characterised by administrative standards and boundaries within the jurisdiction of a municipality; a certain threshold of the population size within urban settlements that often varies across all regions globally between 200 or 50 000 people and occasionally with a bare minimum of 2 000 inhabitants per square kilometre; a dynamic economic system that is not mainly agricultural and creates job opportunities; including a surplus of infrastructure

development *inter alia* (e.g. public roads, medium-density housing, water, sanitation, electrify, opens spaces/parks, cemeteries, hospitals, market places including schools) with at least three of the listed infrastructure is accessible to people (Gordon et.al, 2007; Kilian et.al, 2005; Tacoli, 1998; United Nations Department of Economics and Social Affairs/Population Division (UNDESA/PD) , 2018). However, it should be noted that what might be considered 'urban' for one country could form part of 'rural' settlements of another in terms of population size. Thus, the meaning of 'urban' and 'rural' is dependent on the context of the country in which it is being defined. Thus, this makes the distinction of defining urban and rural settlements a bit problematic and controversial.

1.8.5. Rural Area

A rural area refers to a homogenous geographic landscape beyond the local municipal administrative boundaries (Adell, 1999). It is often perceived to be characterized by poor infrastructure development that is frequently limited to those people closer to the city, low-cost housing that is informal in nature, low-population density, and low cost of living as opposed to the urban area including. In addition, the economic industry is largely agricultural in character and communities within rural landscapes are dependent on the urban areas for social and economic opportunities. Communities have limited to access to educational, health-care and other public institutional services. Spatially, rural areas encompass fragmented spatial patterns of undeveloped land that is under the jurisdiction of traditional authority (custodian of the land) (Adell, 1999).

1.8.6. Peri-urban

Peri-urban is amongst the most frequently used terms in this paper. The term peri-urban has become somewhat of a buzzword that has been widely used across social sciences and urban development studies. However, there seems to be no growing consensus amongst scholars about its definite meaning or what actually constitutes a peri-urban area, but instead, various distinct definitions are perceived to relate in different contexts. Douglas (2006) defines peri-urban as a transitional zone, where the urban and rural functions juxtapose and interact, and where the spatial landscape features are more inclined to swift transition induced by human activity.

Whereas, Ravetz et.al. (2013:14) postulates that "*peri-urban is where the urban structure transitions into the rural landscape*". In addition, Webster and Muller (2009) further support the latter definitions by relating the meaning to a geographical context; by which they define

peri-urban as a zone characterized by mixed land uses (i.e. agricultural, commercial, residential and industrial land-uses), blurred inner and outer boundaries, and often governed by dual governance (traditional and local municipal authority) in which commonly is part between various administrative zones.

 In contrast, scholars such as Iaquinta and Drescher (2000) contest the inclination by scholars to often define peri-urban in spatial terms, they attest that it should support the importance of latent institutional contexts as a variety of functions that derive between rigid urban and rural jurisdictions are encompassed peri-urban areas. In a similar vein, Brook, Purushothaman, and Hunshal (2003) further argue that peri-urban should be better understood as a 'process' rather than a 'place'. This implies that peri-urban is not characterized by its imminence to the urban core but instead, it is the presence of both rural and urban characteristics and relations.

Moreover, it also includes the efficient movement of goods and services that upsurge the growth of distinct patterns and types of peri-urban interfaces (Brook, Purushothaman & Hunshal, 2003). Other scholars such Simon (2008); Ravetz et.al. (2013) further refer to peri-urban as the 'urban-rural fringe' or 'outer edge' of socio-economic change and spatial restructuring in a developed countries context; and a 'peri-urban interface' of dynamic and chaotic urbanization leading to urban sprawl in the context of most developing countries as most of them continue to bare scars of the past colonial and apartheid legacies.

In light of the above definitions, it is noteworthy that as much as scholars have given a different definition in relation to peri-urban. The idea pertaining to the change or growth of the urban form, including the boundary where rural and urban functions converge remains the same in all contexts. Therefore, 'peri-urban' is a space neither between rural nor urban in all settings. It cannot be understood as merely a fringe or intermediate zone between urban and rural. However, it should be perceived as a new kind of hybrid and multi-functional territory that moves beyond the rural-urban dichotomy (Ravetz et.al., 2013). In the context of this study, peri-urban refers to zones have emerged on the outer edge of the urban core, beyond the identified municipal urban development line. Furthermore, a developing world's perspective was used in defining peri-urban areas. In this regard, substantial consideration has been made towards Douglas 2006; Webster and Muller 2009; including Brook, Purushothaman and Hunshal 2003 definitions of peri-urban.

1.8.7. Urban Development Line

The urban development line (UDL) also known as urban growth line (UGL) is defined by EThekwini Municipality as:

> "*A line demarcating the extent to which urban development will be permitted to be established within an urban development corridor or urban node. It is a line that promotes efficient, equitable and sustainable settlement form. It indicates the outer limit of urban development within a corridor or node. The UDL implies that there is a rural hinterland different in character and servicing needs, and which supports different lifestyles and densities*" (EThekwini Municipality, 2017: 19).

Therefore, as cities continue to expand outwards away from the urban core, the development line is designed to guide and manage the surging socio-economic and infrastructure development patterns in accordance with spatial planning principles. However, the patterns of socio-economic connections rarely follow the administrative boundaries of the local municipal governments. Consequently, it becomes a persistent challenge for UDL's to capture precisely the extent and definite patterns of socio-economic connections that prevail within them.

1.8.8. Densification

Densification refers to the effective utilization of space within an existing area (city or town) or new development both horizontally and vertically, which is often defined by the population size or physical development within a given hectare (EThekwini Municipality, 2017). The compactness of urban areas is measured through densification, which allows the provision of efficient and cost-effective service delivery including access to socio-economic opportunities and public transport (EThekwini Municipality, 2017). Densification can occur in any area within the city, namely, Greenfield sites and vacant or under-used infill sites within already developed or underdeveloped areas.

1.8.9. Self-help housing: unconventional 'self-build' model

The self-help housing approach encompasses three distinct forms of its kind, firstly, the 'unaided' self-help that is effectuated without support from any government in the development process, and this approach has been very common amongst self-builders in low-high income households for over centuries. Secondly, 'aided' self-help that is assisted through various development agencies and/or government, and the 'sites-and-services' strategy to housing delivery has been the most mutually shared approach amongst developing countries. Thirdly, 'institutional' self-help that is delivered through established bureaucratic institutions, known

as housing cooperatives which have played a crucial role as a housing delivery strategy in developing countries such as Zimbabwe, Zambia, India, Cuba, Thailand amongst others (Harris, 2003; Keivani & Werna, 2001).

The phenomenon of 'unaided' self-help housing being 'self-build' in this case, better explains the reality and prevailing housing production trends within peri-urban settlements of most developing countries. It should be noted that 'self-building' does not certainly mean that the homeowner directly partakes in the actual construction of the physical structure of the house. However, their involvement in the development process could be purely based on being part and parcel of the planning, design and decision-making processes. Thus, for the purpose of this paper, the term 'self-build' is used to define any form of housing production whereby households to some low to a greater extent are directly or indirectly involved in the development or construction process of the physical structure of their new home. After the completion of the housing construction process, the individual households then become homeowner's of the constructed house

1.8.10. Sweat Equity

Sweat equity refers to the process in which households contribute their own labour power (sweat equity) in the construction of their homes (Harris, 2003). This is often due to the lack of affordability to hire qualified and skilled building artisans, and the maximization of opportunities but minimization costs that the construction process might incur over time in the duration of the project. This process does not merely ensure housing construction that suits the needs and lifestyle of each individual household, however, it enhances the capability to acquire new skills and positive life experiences that in turn brings about new innovative ways of thinking in order to solve growing housing problems (Harrison, 2003).

1.8.11. Informal Settlements

In an urbanizing world, where governments continue to lack sufficient capacity to house the growing urban population, informal settlements have not merely become a constant feature of urbanization but they have also emerged as an integral part of urban development in the developing world. The definition surrounding what constitutes an informal settlement is based on the context in which the concept is being defined as it holds different meanings from one country to another. In light of the latter, phrases like 'slum' settlements, 'squatter' settlements, 'shanty' towns, and 'informal' settlements have been used across literature to conceptualize this form of settlement. Amongst chattering classes such as governments, policymakers, and

scholars, 'informal' in settlements is generally understood as any irregular patterns of settlement that fails to comply with the set formal building standards and urban planning regulations.

According to Habitat (2015), informal settlements refers to residential areas where there is an absence of security of tenure of the occupied land or property by residents. An area that lacks efficient access to basic services or urban bulk infrastructure provided through municipal administrative entities. Furthermore, housing that is not in compliance with the building and planning standards, and located on geographically and environmentally hazardous areas are regarded as informal whether it is of high quality or not (Habitat, 2015). Thus, for the purpose of this study, informal settlements refer to any physical residential development that has not complied with formal building and planning standards and regulations set by government, policymakers or the conventional housing market. This also includes any low or high-quality housing that has been constructed on 'unplanned' and geographically and/or environmentally hazardous areas that are not suitable for human habitation.

1.9 Outline of the Dissertation structure

1.9.1. Chapter One: Introduction to the study

This is an introductory chapter for the study, it offers a brief background concerning the nature and extent of peri-urbanization in developing countries that have perpetuated self-building in housing within peri-urban areas in relation to the study's context. It further defines the study's problem statement, significance, including its aim, objectives and research questions. The problem statement gives a clear outline of the research problem being explored. Whereas, the aim, objectives and research questions presented in this chapter act as a guide for the study.

1.9.2. Chapter Two: Conceptual and Theoretical Framework plus Literature Review

This chapter presents the conceptual framework which embodies a distinct but yet minimal explanation of the main concepts and their presumed relevance to the context of the study. The theoretical framework that underpins the phenomenon of self-help (self-build) housing. Turner's theory of 'self-help' housing guides and influences the content of this study, particularly around his idea pertaining to 'freedom to build' whereby dweller control is key to the success of any housing development process. Moreover, the literature review is also presented in this chapter. It examines the notion of peri-urbanization and self-help (self-build) housing from a developing countries context, and later into a South Africa context as an approach prevailing within its rapidly transitioning peri-urban areas.

1.9.3.   Chapter Three: Research Methodology and UMzinyathi Case Study

This chapter provides a detailed description of the chosen study area for the research. It further outlines the research design and methods that have been employed in the study to conduct research. It takes a constructivist view of the research problem and a qualitative approach to research study has been employed. A brief introduction to the case study area of uMzinyathi has also been provided. Furthermore, the primary and secondary data collection methods in relation to the study's context have been used. The primary data is collected by means of in-depth interviews with key participants, observation and audio-visual data (i.e. voice-recording and images). In addition, this chapter discusses the chosen sampling methods for the study and provides the basis for the data analysis presented in chapter four. The historical background of the chosen study area of uMzinyathi area outlined, and reasons as to why it was selected as the focus area to conduct research in relation to the study's context have been discussed.

1.9.4.   Chapter Four: Data Presentation and Analysis

The chapter presents the findings of the study based on the analysis of the data gathered for this study. This is from the primary and secondary data from both the selected participants and traditional council relevant to the study area.

1.9.5.   Chapter Five: Recommendations and Conclusion

This chapter makes conclusions and recommendations based on the research findings of the study. It captures key themes emerging from the study, literature and theoretical embeddedness of key findings.

1.10 Conclusion

This chapter introduced the research study and highlighted the prevailing trend of self-building as a mode of choice in housing production amongst peri-urban dwellers of uMzinyathi. The background offers insights on the rural-urban dichotomy that often surrounds the phenomenon of peri-urbanization. It outlines the nature of peri-urban areas and factors that influence the movement of people to these areas. Furthermore, the phenomenon of self-help (self-build) as a pragmatic approach for the transitioning peri-urban area of uMzinyathi is discussed briefly. In addition, the problem statement and significance of the study have been detailed explicitly. The aim of the study is to give a critical analysis of self-built housing as a model for the peri-urban area of uMzinyathi. Whereas, the objectives and main research questions of the study have already been outlined above. It further outlines the conceptual framework that briefly discusses key terms that appear in the study. Finally, the chapter concludes with an outline of the dissertation structure.

CHAPTER TWO: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Introduction

This chapter encompasses two key sections; namely, theoretical frameworks which underpin and form the basis of understanding the phenomenon of self-help (self-build) housing in peri-urban areas. The Rapid Urban Growth Triad framework encompasses elements which form the basis of understanding drivers of rapid peri-urban growth in a developing country context. Furthermore, Turner's theory of 'self-help' housing guides and influences the content of this study, particularly around his idea pertaining to 'freedom to build' whereby dweller control is prime to the success of any housing development process. The last section is the literature review. This part unpacks the various debates by scholars pertaining to the phenomenon of self-building in peri-urban areas and its overall trends of transition and development.

2.2 Theoretical Framework

2.2.1. The Rapid Urban Growth Triad Framework

The rapid urban growth triad (RUGT) framework by Kyle Farrell as presented in **Figure 1** asserts that urban growth of developing nations ought to be viewed through the lenses of a multidisciplinary process that is not ubiquitously and solely driven by migration as its major component. But rather, a full recognition should also be directed to the contribution of the natural population increase and rural reclassification as other central components to the present growth of third world countries (Farrell, 2017).

The nature of the unprecedented urban transition prevailing within developing regions has been constantly misconstrued. Popular reference in literature, to this transition, is often attributed to the rapid urbanization process that is mainly driven by rural-urban migration as in the historical industrial context of European countries. Farrell (2017) argues that the urban growth of cities in developing countries today is inconsistent with past urbanization, as to some great extent it is derived from the natural urban population increase, internal migration, and the reclassification of rural settlements into urban, of which subsequently perpetuates the emergence of peri-urban landscapes.

Smart and Ling (2015) further contend that the first industrial age was established on the focus of production and dividing the rural landscapes from more urban settings. However, transition in the 21st century particularly within developing regions is concentrated towards

decentralization, diversifying production (that is industrial and agricultural) and fostering efficient linkages and juxtaposition of urban and rural settings as cities continue to expand outward.

Furthermore, the process of urbanization often overshadows that of urban growth, thus it is crucial to clearly distinguish both processes in relation to the prevailing context of a specified region (Farrell, 2017). According to Farrell (2017: 2) the former, refers to the "*increase in the proposition (or share) of the population that is urban rather than rural, whereas the latter refers to the absolute number of people living in cities*". However, both these processes are underpinned by elements of natural population increase, internal – migration and rural reclassification in most developing regions as presented by the RUGT.

Figure 2.1: Rapid Urban Growth Triad Model
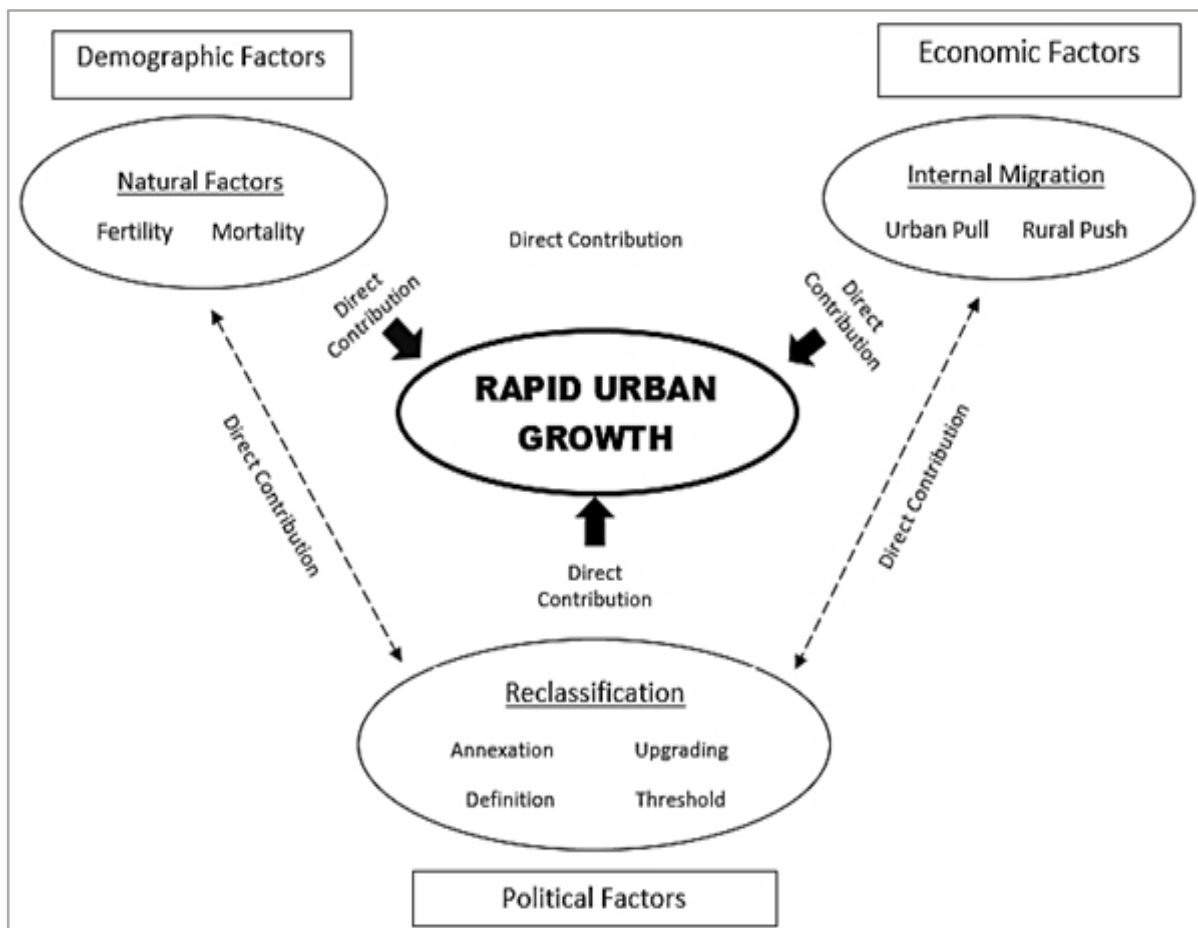
Source: Farrell (2017: 12)

Therefore, understanding each of the distinct components through which urban transition occurs and their effects on emerging peri-urban settlements is important. Hence, those components that were formerly neglected had to be explored, along with each of their contribution (direct and/or indirect) to the RUGT:

- Demographic Factors: Natural Population Increase

The demographic component in urbanization is ever so silent and partially explored in literature. The rate of natural population increase is a distinct and important demographic factor through which the process of rapid urbanization occurs, and a key feature in understating the nature of urbanization within developing regions today (Jedwab et al., 2014; Bloom et.al., 2008). Rapid urban growth is inextricably linked to demography that solely measures the rates of population increase through elements of mortality and fertility. The rate of natural population increase may vary for both rural and urban settings as levels of mortality (deaths) and fertility (births) differ substantially.

Rural settings amongst most countries in the developing world often have higher fertility rates as opposed to urban areas. This is essentially due to the significant representation of younger aged populations with cohorts (partners) and more equal sex ratios, which in essence means their fertility levels are higher than most demographic groups of the population (Farrell, 2017). Thus, out-migration patterns to cities would consist primarily of the younger immigrants who often seek socio-economic opportunities to better their standard of living and this inversely increases the fertility rates within urban areas.

Furthermore, though urban areas possess lower levels of fertility, it is the cities substantial decrease in mortality that contributes to the unprecedented natural population increase in urban areas (Farrell, 2017). This is often due to the significant and innovative advancements in medical technology and public health, which results in an overall improved standard of living. Therefore, a change in the patterns of mortality and fertility rates holds the ability to double populations as the growth is accelerated drastically. In addition, while mortality rates have declined in most of the developing countries - with an average occurrence rate of 20% between the year 2000 and 2010, fertility rates have continued to soar even higher during the 21st century, where there have been approximately 50 births per 1000 people between mid-1900s to 2010 (Jedwab et.al, 2014).

This essentially means that if in every 18 years' urban populations in developing countries double, then bulk infrastructure (water, sanitation, and electricity, road systems), basic amenities (healthcare, education, recreational spaces, communication and transportation networks), human capital, including housing stock to accommodate surging populations also needs to increase twice as much (Jedwab et.al.,2014). This is, unfortunately, one of the major challenges that governments constantly grapple with due to lack of capacity and/or resources to meet the growing demand. The subsequent high rate of urban natural population increase exacerbates the effects of migration on urban growth, which also provides clarification regarding the swift growth of developing nations today, and particularly within the African continent (Jedwab et.al., 2014; Farrell, 2017).

Moreover, the factor of natural population increase also has indirect effects on other major components of urban growth. This is viewed through its complex but yet distinct contribution to the growth of many cities and small towns through high levels of fertility, which ultimately exceed the known rural population thresholds of many developing countries, and an instant reclassification process of those areas into urban occurs. For instance, between the year 2000 and 2010, 148 of settlements within the rural landscape exceeded the defined national threshold of 20 000 inhabitants in Nigeria and were later reclassified as urban (Farrel, 2017). In addition, rural-urban migration patterns are also indirectly impacted by this factor, as high population growth rates in rural areas often exacerbate pressure on limited local resources in order to meet the growing demand, which eventually increases out-migration from rural areas in efforts to seek better socio-economic opportunities and stability (Farrell, 2017).

- Economic Factors: Internal Migration

Migration is a global phenomenon that has been an eminent component in the development and growth of many societies. It is a multifaceted phenomenon in rebuilding the global economic, socio-cultural, political, and environmental systems in societies over the centuries (Brown and Wardwell, 2013). No definite meaning is attached to this phenomenon, however, it is often considered as the movement of individuals and/or species from a single place of origin and to settle in another area. This could be on an interim or permanent basis (McCatty, 2004). Migration comprises of different methods of its sort. 'Rural-urban' and 'circulatory' movement of people between space has been the most popular modes of migration within both developed and developing regions over the years. Circular migration being the most prominent form of human mobility in the developing world. According to Hugo (2013: 2), circular

migration refers to "*repeated migration experiences between a place of origin and destination involving more than one migration and return*". Thus, people often move on a temporary or permanent basis from peripheral areas of cities into their urban cores and *vice-versa* across all regions informed by various factors that might have influenced the decision to move (McCatty, 2004).

The rapid transformation of the urban spatial setting and the gradual degradation of rural environments has perpetuated the emergence of a new form of landscape interface known as 'peri-urban'. which is neither rural nor urban but a juxtaposition of both their characteristics (Simon, 2008; Ravetz et al., 2013). Hence, the constant transition and densification of this form of settlement are often best explained through rural-urban linkages. The interactions are also known as 'linkages' through space *inter alia* (flows of people, goods and services, money, wastes, including transportation, communication, and knowledge) between urban and rural have become cornerstones of rapid transition and growth for many societies of the developing world (Smart and Ling, 2015).

Most literature on migration has been delineated between 'push-and-pull' factors of urban and rural settlements that are underpinned by economic, social and environmental changes (Appiah et.al, 2014; Bloom et al., 2008; Jedwab et al., 2014; Farrell, 2017). 'Push' forces are often ignited by involuntary migration *inter alia* (political instability, wars, family feuds, crime) due to circumstances that cannot be changed. Whereas, 'Pull' forces are more voluntary movement comprises of migration done by choice inter alia (access to land tenure in rural areas, housing conditions, inheritance, employment opportunities, education, infrastructural provision).

- Political Factors: Rural Reclassification

The reclassification of rural areas into more urban settings is one of the major factors and processes that has informed the transition of the structure of human settlements for most cities of the developing world today. In contrast to the literature on natural population increase and migration, rural reclassification has been inadequately explored in literature particularly concerning its historical accounts (Farrel, 2017; Bloom et.al., 2008). Rural reclassification is considered as a political or administrative process that ought to stimulate economic growth and development within a specific region. This is often based on the assertion that "*adjustments to the overall structure of the system of cities within a country has the ability to influence a country's social and economic composition, thus leading to further growth and development*" (Farrell, 2017: 10).

In light of the latter, reclassification often occurs through four significant subcomponents or forms of its kind that comprise of the "*expansion (or contraction) of existing urban boundaries, the annexation (or surrender of adjacent settlements, and the addition (or subtraction) of new settlements that grow beyond the designated threshold, including the adjustment of the definition of urban*" (Farrell, 2017: 10)**.** Thus, the constant growth in population densities through natural increase and change in migration patterns in most cities has perpetuated their rapid spatial expansion into more rural settings beyond the existing administrative or municipal boundaries. The hasty growth of many cities and emergence of new small towns in the developing world has roused the immediate reclassification and/or definitional change or adjustment of 'rural' into 'urban', as population thresholds of some rural settlements continue to transcend beyond identified urban population thresholds as illustrated by **Figure 2.2** below.

Therefore, more rural settlements in developing countries have become disproportionately absorbed by urban areas as their urban form continues to outspread far and wide beyond the initial core regions (Bloom et al., 2008; Jedwab et al., 2014; Smart and Ling, 2015). In recent years, urban and rural landscapes have gradually become inextricably linked. As the once prevalent 'dichotomy or divide' between these regions has gradually diminished over time. Smart and Ling (2015) argues that the notion and tendency of viewing cities as isolated, fixed and organized entities, where flows of people, activities, and resources (income, knowledge, natural environment, and capital) are congested into a small autonomous landscape away from other surrounding areas that are non-urban are problematic. In support of the latter statement, scholars such as Webster and Muller, 2009: 282; Rauws & De Roo, 2011; Ravetz et al., 2013 further postulate that rural no longer exists autonomously to urban, but rather an irregular colloidal blend of features (i.e. residential, agriculture, commercial, and industrial land-uses) that are juxtaposed and interacted into new transitional settlements that are neither rural nor urban but in-between.

The emergence of this form settlement has made the distinction between the inner and outer boundary of where urban ends and rural landscapes begin blurred of which is problematic. However, relations between urban and rural forms of settlements have proven to be greatly reciprocal and an appropriate way to understand the nature of development trends within both contexts (Steinberg, 2014). Thus, distinctly administered under dual governance of traditional (chief and headsmen) and local municipal authorities; 'peri-urban' functions as a litmus test of transition not just as a rural-urban 'zone or interface', but rather it holds great significance in the overall spatial and structural formation of various cities (Rauws & De Roo, 2011; Ravetz

et.al., 2013). Furthermore, urban peripheries are increasingly attracting the low-middle class populations of most developing countries particularly in Africa, of which is predominately due to their multifaceted nature, land accessibility including building processes that are to some degree self-determined by households (Simon, 2008; Appiah et.al, 2015).

Figure 2.2: Rural reclassification into the urban setting
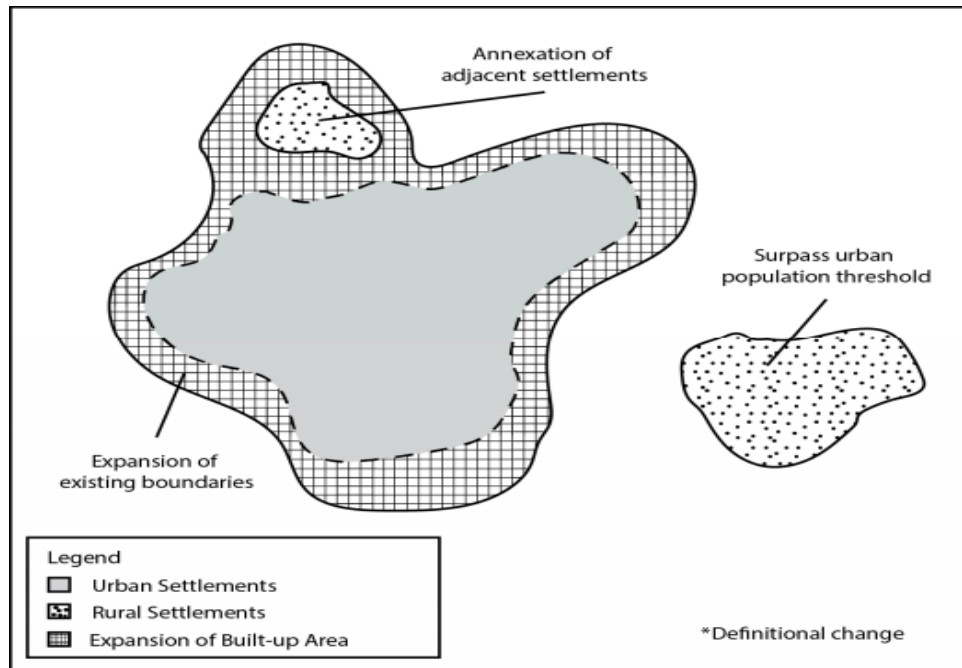
Therefore, the RUGT framework relates adequately with the context and purpose of the study primarily because; it does not merely provide a conceptual basis of understanding the complex and unprecedented urban growth trends of developing countries today. But it also demonstrates insight into the various significant and distinct components that are disproportionately linked Source: Farrell (2017)

to urban growth and the overall urbanization process in a developing world's context. Furthermore, this framework advocates for modern rapid urbanization and growth of developing countries to be seen as a multidisciplinary process that is not merely viewed as a product of rural-urban migration as in developed regions. Rather the contribution of other distinct elements such as natural population increase and the reclassification of rural landscapes into urban settings ought to be equally recognized. Understanding the contribution of each of these components to rapid urban growth also creates a platform for one to comprehend the multifaceted and dynamic nature of emerging peri-urban landscapes that have become areas of choice for self-builders.

2.2.2 Turner's Self Help Housing Theory: an approach to 'dweller control'

John. F. Turner's work on self-help became known in Latin America between the 1960s and 1970s. Though not being the first scholar to coin and advocate for the self-help housing, there can be minimal uncertainty that Turner's ideas and writings tremendously influenced housing policy and is often cited in most literature pertaining self-help (Harris, 2003). Turner's work was based on numerous ideological perceptions pertaining to housing. However, this study does not intend to provide a comprehensive examination of all the principles, but rather only those aspects that are regarded as significant to the purpose of the study will be explored. Thus, Turner's theory on self-help in housing will guide and influence the content of this study, particularly around its principle pertaining to 'freedom-to-build' where 'dweller-control' is crucial to the success of any housing development process.

The initial argument by Turner on 'dweller control' has had partial influence in spheres of housing policy and literature, of which is the essential reasoning behind focusing on this aspect of the theory for the study. The 'self-help' in housing theory accentuates people's right and capacity to participate in the decision-making and housing process concerning the planning, design, construction, and overall management of their own housing (Harris, 2003; Pugh, 2001; Turner and Fichter, 1972; Burns and Shoup, 1981). Thus, this means that through self-help, households (owners) do not merely invest sweat equity in housing development, but similarly devote methods of planning, design, and management of their homes essentially for the effective enhancement of individual and social wellbeing (Harris, 2003).

Turner emphasised the need for housing to be viewed as a 'verb' rather than a noun (commodity or product). Where it is considered as an activity or a process that occurs over time in which the use-value for the house, housing needs of the household occupants, including the financial means and capacity that they possess, are all adequately realized (Harris, 2003; Turner and Fichter, 1972). Turner and Fichter (1972: 152) claim that *"Housing problems defined by material standards and housing values are judged by the quality of the materials of the houses produced, or by the material quantity of the related products, such as profit or equity"*. Turner did acknowledge that standards held significant and distinct uses in housing and development, it might be difficult to plan or accomplish any process that proves to be intricate. However, it was seen as inappropriate to measure human value by those standards.

Thus, through this theory, Turner contended that a house should not be measured through its physical features, as its significance is distinctly defined by 'what it does' for homeowners and

not in 'what is' to other people. In essence, this meant that if people were given 'freedom to build', the standard physical features of most self-built homes ought to improve over time through the gradual or incremental processes of upgrading (Harris, 2003; Turner and Fichter, 1972). In addition, key aspects such as sweaty equity, human satisfaction and/or frustrations relating to housing cannot be measured similarly to other material or physical characteristics of houses. Thus, to the owner, the value that a house possess is inextricably connected to the level of control they have in the construction process of their homes, though the homeowner might not necessarily partake in actual physical construction (Turner and Fichter, 1972).

Furthermore, Turner saw value in self-help, as it did not merely assist families in easing possible housing costs, but similarly ensure that self-built houses suit needs and overall lifestyle for each household that decides to engage in this process. Though he was a major critic of state-funded schemes that often fail to meet housing needs and appropriately adapted to circumstances of dwellers. However, Turner still acknowledged and attested that the government should recognize the existence of such processes and create an enabling environment for it to take place as people are the best judges of their own needs after all (Harris, 2003).

Turner's self-help housing theory has not gone uncontested in literature particularly by Marxist scholars. Burgess (1978) argued that Turner's idea on self-help lacks the capitalist perspective of housing as a commodity with use-value and market-value. By this Burgess meant that Turner failed to recognize;

> "1. The transformation of the self-help house into the commodity form by the producer himself; 2. The fact that one man's use-value can be another man's exchange value and vice-versa; 3. That a self-help house can be a very different commodity to the various interest groups operating in the broader urban market" (Gough, 1998: 149).

In essence, self-help promotes the commodification of housing, and it does not merely have use-value but it encompasses exchange value within the housing market (Roy, 2005). Other scholars such as Pugh and Harris (2001; 2003) saw Turner's notions on self-help as 'inherently capitalistic' due to its momentous influence on the 'site-and-services 'policy schemes directed by the World Bank in the 1970s. In support of the latter claims, Conway 1982 cited in Gough (1998) further argues that self-help houses ought to be considered as potential commodities. As in some circumstances, the exchange value of self-built houses can adopt its commodity form as the significance it holds to the homeowner grows. However, Smart contends this claim by asserting that labeling self-built houses as 'potential commodities' does not say much since

in societies that are predominately driven by the production of commodities use-value can turn into exchange value (Gough, 1998).

However, it is noteworthy that the World Banks approach to 'self-help' economized housing, whereas Turner's initial idea on 'self-help' was based on dweller-control over the housing process, thus it cannot be entirely dismissed. Burgess (1978) further contends that the socio-political context in which the self-build process takes place is inadequately explored as Turner holds an individualist perspective to the self-help housing phenomenon. In consideration of the latter information, the self-help housing theory was ideal for the study because it did not merely act as a frame of reference within the development and housing domain. However, it also provided a conceptual basis in understanding prevailing trends relating to self-building in peri-urbanizing areas supporting dweller perception and control. Moreover, it may be an old and well-tried phenomenon but it is still relevant to the context of many developing regions as they continue to unprecedentedly urbanize.

2.3 Literature Review

2.3.1 Peri-urbanization: a rising global growth tide?

Urbanization has been a key component that has added to urban development. The rapid global urban growth of many societies has fuelled the hasty spatial expansion of large metropolises onto the adjacent rural landscapes, where conversion of agricultural land into non-agricultural land-uses remains very prominent. More recently, cities in many countries globally have experienced speculative urban growth in physical, economic, and social character (Adedire et.al., 2016). Thus, as urban populations increase the demand to house and meet other developmental needs of those people has also remained significantly high. In this regard, peri-urban areas have since become sanctuaries for surging socio-economic and residential developments not merely for the urban poor but similarly amongst the low-middle income households. Peri-urban development can be ignited by either push or pull forces from both urban and rural settings (Adedire et.al., 2016).

As illustrated in **Figure 2.3** below, the constant change in conditions of urban structures often 'pull' people towards the urban areas for reasons that are not limited to; infrastructural accessibility (e.g. water, electricity, sanitation, roads), recreational space, and better education. In addition, skills, socio-economic stability (i.e. social networking and employment opportunities, including higher income), accessible transportation and communication networks are also major contributing factors (Adedire et.al., 2016; Farrel, 2017; Smart and

Ling, 2015). Bloom et.al (2008) further contends that some countries political instability has further exacerbated the surging flows of immigrants towards cities, and limited economic sustenance for rural dwellers often attracts them to urban areas with urban bias policies that often favour urban populations. In this regard, cities might not necessarily attain ultimate economic succession as the 'Asian Miracle' of four economies (namely, Singapore, Hong-Kong, Taiwan and South Korea) swift growth progression, but rather they may transition and grows rapidly in the population of which is a rising challenge amongst most developing nations globally (Bloom et.al., 2008; Farrell, 2017).

Though inadequately explored in literature, the direct 'push' elements from urban areas into more rural settings comprises of lack of security of tenure for the urban poor, congestion, urban pollution, expensive housing and land markets that are unaffordable and accessible to the urban poor, social instability (homelessness and family feuds), including high crime rates amongst other factors (Adewale, 2005). Jedwab et.al (2014) further asserts that the 'urban push' is related with greater segments of the urban population living in informal settlements, inadequate capacity by the government to cater for the surging population. Lack of investment in human capital (knowledge and skills) to create economic value and opportunities for people, and emerging informal labour markets that often accommodate low or un-skilled urban dwellers are other factors (Jedwab et.al, 2014).

 In contrast, nowadays there is a rapid movement of people towards more rural settings, particularly amongst countries of the developing world. This is often to the rural 'pull' of housing affordability (as peri-urban often have relatively low thresholds of entry into their housing markets), land accessibility, larger land plots, property investment; inheritance purposes, unregulated land-use that allows freedom to build without any restrictions. Proximity to the city, limited or no municipal rates to be paid, access to cheaper basic services, liberty to exercise cultural practices, lower crime rates, and low stress rural lifestyle, home burial for loved ones, including beautiful scenery and tranquil nature of the environment (Adewale, 2005; Adedire et.al., 2016; Brown and Wardwell, 2013; Jedwab et.al, 2014; McCatty, 2004; Farrell, 2017).

However, rural 'push' often occurs as an inverse response to rural land inheritance politics, lack of economic opportunities, unemployment, poor infrastructure and service delivery, poor or inadequate healthcare facilities, political instability and prevailing environmental degradation (Appiah et.al, 2014; Farrell, 2017; Jedwab et.al, 2014; McCatty, 2004). In light of

the latter, this creates a chain of effects or patterns that underspin rural-urban relations. Thus, peri-urban settlements inevitably resemble most of the former and latter features as it is inextricably linked to both urban and rural settlements.

Over the years, peri-urban settlements have occupied different contexts and meaning across all countries particularly of the developing world. In the developing countries, peri-urban regions have often been seen as chaotic, deprived and poverty-stricken areas, which are often synonymous with informal settlements that fail to conform to entrenched conventional standards and principles. However, Smart and Ling (2015: 3) argues that peri-urban settlements may not necessarily conform to the presumed principles of 'order' and are "*mistaken for 'urban chaos' what is more likely to be a newly emerging order whose signal qualities are complexity and diversity*". This essentially means that what is often considered as unprecedented 'chaos' and tremendously 'disorganized' for one, maybe 'organized chaos' for others. Hence, there needs to be a reconfigured way of defining and relating to emerging 'informal' settlements that do not necessarily follow conventional processes or customs of what ought to be formal and permissible urban growth and development. Roy (2013) further argues that

> "Informality lies within the scope of the state rather than outside it. It is often the power of the state that determines what is informal and what is not. And in many instances the state itself operates in informalized ways, thereby gaining a territorialized flexibility that it does not fully have with merely formal mechanisms of accumulation and legitimation" (Roy, 2013: 836).

This essentially means that the rapid peri-urbanization prevailing on the outskirts of large metropolises is a process to a great extent informalized, conventionally in contravention of planning policies, action plans (Master Plans) and regulations sanctioned by the state. Hence, informality is by no means an unregulated realm, however, it is shaped by several forms of extra-legal territory, social and rambling regulation (Roy, 2013). Furthermore, this is also very problematic as 'informality' is a prevalent mode of housing production for most cities of developing regions in the 21st century. Urban peripheries have become significant areas of informal housing practices not only just for the low-income but also the middle-high income households (Roy, 2005).

Unprecedented settlement patterns of peripheries often cannot be efficiently regulated as in developed nations. This is due to the prominent and dualistic nature of governance between traditional and local municipal authorities. In recent years, there has been an upsurge in informal subdivisions of customary land in peri-urban areas of most developing countries, namely Nigeria and Ghana. In this case, original custodians of the land (tribal leaders) allocate

land to desiring households whom in turn offer some form of small payment as a gift and received a receipt declaring 'ownership' (Keivan and Werna, 2001). While traditional authorities allow for 'informal' subdivisions and development in these areas, governments continue to grapple with mounting backlogs in housing, and insufficient capacity to extend infrastructural services into peri-urban areas (Keivan and Werna, 2001).

Urban peripheries have been increasingly attracting the low-middle class populations in most developing countries particularly in Africa. In the context of Southeast Asia, peripheral growth has been labeled as 'desakota' an Indonesian concept referring to a distinct fusion or merging of urban and rural. Whereas in Latin America Mexico City, it is recognized as a 'polycentric expansion' meaning the combination of small towns and rural peripheries within dispersed regions of metropolises; however, for Egypt this form of transition is often understood as 'post-metropolitan urbanization' of which refers to a diffusion of urbanity across various large regional landscapes (Roy, 2005; Aguilar et.al., 2003.). Moreover, peripheral growth in Ghana developed as a measure to support an overflow of industrial activity and accommodated the housing demand and needs for surging urban populations. Whereas in Greater Cairo, major driving forces relate to lower-costs in land accessibility and ensuring the provision of inexpensive housing initiatives in informal housing markets (Adedire et.al., 2016).

In developed countries, the spatial character of their peri-urban landscapes is often conserved through the effective endorsement of various regulations and policies that restrict any major land-use transition (Kombe, 2005). Thus, local municipal governments carefully regulate any growth on the outskirts of metropolitan areas in efforts to avoid the formation of irregular settlements patterns and social conflicts that might result in the degradation of the natural environment (Choy and Sutherland, 2008). Hence, most of these countries are more suited to handle any rapid land-use change occurring on the outskirts through systematic restrictions.

Furthermore, governments within developed nations can afford to extend infrastructure and ensure the efficient provision of basic services beyond the metropolitan boundaries (Choy and Sutherland, 2008). This essentially means that there is no pronounced change in the prevalent forms of land-uses as peripheral settlements of these regions are fairly developed. Moreover, tremendous prospects of housing development are often seen in urban peripheries of developed nations, thus, elements of poverty and overpopulation do not necessarily characterise these regions as it would in the developing world (Naab et.al, 2013). Planning also remains a central

element to guide and regulate any emerging form of growth, and this allows for the efficient provision of basic services (Lloyd et.al, 2015).

2.3.2 Conceptualizing the notion of self-build in housing

Self-help is not merely an old and well-tried phenomenon but it has been perceived to be a key tool of housing production for the poor, low-income and the middle-class in developing countries (Harris, 2003; Pugh, 2001). The notion of self-help in the context of developing countries is often attributed to John. F.C Turner who argued that "*when dwellers control the major decisions and are free to make their own contribution to the design, construction, and management of their housing, both the process and the environment produced stimulates individual and social well-being*" (Burns & Shoup, 1981: 108). In light of the latter, self-help refers to a housing production system or process where individual households 'self' mobilize their own resources *inter alia* (time, energy, finance, and skills) to invest in housing for their own use or exchange (Benson, 2017; Harris, 2003).

The forms of 'self-help' and 'self-build' are often used interchangeably in the literature. However, it is crucial to distinguish the difference between the two. Self -help housing is more of an umbrella term that encompasses two majors forms of housing delivery systems, namely, 'unaided' self-help, which relates to 'self-build' or 'self-provided' housing by individual households without any assistance from the state or other agencies (civil society and private market) in the housing delivery process (Harris, 2003; Landman & Napier, 2009; Pugh, 2001). According to Alagbe and Opoko (2013) self-build refers to the construction of a fixed housing structure by the homeowner from inception to completion instead of hiring a professional consultant or developer to undertake the whole building project on the owner's behalf. In some cases, it may be undertaken collectively, where the owner decides to delegate some physical building responsibility to a local builder, subcontractor or package company (Alagbe and Opoko, 2013).

However, key decisions pertaining to planning, design and the overall management of the project remain to be made by the owner. This allows homeowners to still participate in the production of their homes, and also have added control over the construction process (Marais et.al., 2008). Therefore, this type of self-help is often viewed as an 'unconventional' or 'informal' form of housing production that often bypasses the traditional building standards and bylaws that one might find in a formal housing market. The homeowner through the efficient and effective mobilization of their own resources often covers the overall costs,

particularly through contracting a local builder and material costs incurred in the building process. In light of the latter, local governments often have to tolerate a certain degree of illegality that arises through this form, as 'self-build' is inextricably linked to informal settlements particularly in the developing world (Marais et.al., 2008).

 Furthermore, 'aided' self-help is another form of self-help housing of which is the conventional model where households housing delivery process is assisted (e.g. credit/finance, provision of standard building plans, material procurement and technical assistance) through the state or other agencies (Pugh, 2001; Marais et.al., 2008). In this form, the State subsidizes standard social housing through availing and ensuring acess to loans, savings, or labour. This is often seen in official self-help strategies (EPHP, UISP and 'Site and Services') by governments that support efforts of low-income people to be drivers of their own development and homeowners (Bredenoord and Lindert, 2010; Harris, 1998; Landaman and Napier, 2010; Marais et.al., 2008).

Within aided self-help, there is also institutional' self-help that is delivered through established bureaucratic institutions, known as housing cooperatives which have played a crucial role as a housing delivery strategy in developing countries such as Zimbabwe, Zambia, India, Cuba, Thailand amongst others (Harris, 2003; Keivani & Werna, 2001). Therefore, the use of sweat equity in all the above-mentioned forms of self-help housing makes it the most cost-effective process of providing housing. Thus, this study intended to provide a comprehensive analysis of the 'unaided' form of self-help (self-build) in housing, where it has become a prevalent approach to housing production amongst peri-urban residents.

2.3.3   Motivation and benefits of self-building

Motivations and benefits that bring about the decision to self-build a home are countless and vary between households and across countries globally. The motivations and benefits of self-build are but not limited to; the minimization costs to enhance savings, absolute autonomy and dweller control of the production process, including housing access, affordability, and choice. Self-build housing approach has been long realized as the most cost-effective approach to housing production particularly for those who cannot partake in the formal housing market being the low-income.

Thus, self-builders are afforded an opportunity to save money and reduce any costs that households might have incurred during the production process. Duncan and Rowe (1993) assert that these costs are often reduced through 'sweat equity' of unpaid labour by homeowners. The

contribution of homeowner's labour power can be through partaking in the actual construction of their house or initiating and managing key tasks of the production process pertaining to planning, design, and construction known as 'white collar sweat equity' (Duncan and Rowe, 1993; Harris, 2003). These tasks comprise of;

> "…promotion (arranging finance, obtaining land, getting planning and building permission, sorting out the design) and administration (organising the development process) as well as more detailed management (e.g. buying materials, arranging deliveries, on-site management). Self-builders will normally carry out a large proportion of this 'white-collar' work in addition to construction labour itself" (Duncan and Rowe, 1993: 1337).

More often than not, during self-building households will assume some if not all responsibility of the process as articulated above. Harris (2003) contends that households often cannot afford to employ professional artisans or private consultants to assume control over such tasks. In addition, self-build allows households to build incrementally in accordance with the availability of their means (Algabe and Opoko, 2013). This does not merely minimize costs and ensure savings, but it demonstrates the flexible nature of this housing production approach. Moreover, savings can also be attained by avoiding any overhead expenses paid to private developers or contract builders (Duncan and Rowe, 1993). Through self-build, households are often in a better position to negotiate for lower labour costs, which results in the minimization of initial payments or profits for building contractors.

Furthermore, building one's home allows for absolute autonomy and household (dweller) control over the production process. Consequently, this enables the homeowner to partake in decision-making at virtually any stage of the project and can improve their overall individual and social well-being (Algabe and Opoko, 2013). Another key motivation and benefit for self-build relate to housing access, affordability, and choice. Unaffordable and inaccessible land and housing markets, including mounting deficits in public housing in several countries, have perpetuated the desire for most households to become homeowners through the self-build housing approach particularly in developing countries. Thus, this approach offers households an opportunity to choose or incorporate any desired features to the planning and design of their houses (Duncan & Rowe, 1993).

2.3.4 Barriers and challenges to self-building

Self-building a house encompasses many benefits. However, households still encounter numerous challenges and barriers in the housing production process. Homeowners are often inadequately equipped with knowledge on management and technical skills in designing,

planning, financing, contracting and executing house building (NUSP, 2015). This can affect the building timeline and quality of the house. In addition, some households lack access to adequate credit or finance to fund house construction and additional building materials required for successful completion. Unapproved building plans through the local municipality are also a challenge, as some do not follow building standards or requirements when building. In most cases, building plans constantly change in order to satisfy the households and that can be very costly and time-consuming (NUSP, 2015).

2.4 Conclusion

This chapter presented theoretical frameworks that underpin and form the basis of understanding the phenomenon of self-help (self-build) housing in peri-urban areas. The frameworks consisted of the Rapid Urban Growth Triad framework and Turner's theory of 'self-help' housing. It further explored literature that unpacks the various debates by scholars pertaining to the phenomenon of self-building in peri-urban areas and its overall trends of transition and development.

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

Research forms an integral part of understanding overall day-to-day social life and realities. The concept of research has been considerably used in literature often to refer to a process or activity of systematically investing a certain social phenomenon (that is a specific event, issue or case). Which has been inadequately explored, and this is with an intent to uncover interesting or new facts about that phenomenon in order to advance frontiers of knowledge (Walliman, 2017). Thus, research methodology encompasses all the relevant practical tools and techniques that are required to do research, and they offer ways to collect, sort, and analyse information in order to come to some conclusions about the investigated case or issue (Walliman, 2017; Hesse-Biber, and Leavy, 2010). Hence, it is only fitting to present a chapter that discusses all the relevant research methodologies that form bases for this study.

This chapter outlines the research design and methods that have been employed in the study to conduct research. It employs a qualitative approach to research study and takes a constructivist view of the research problem, of which both concepts have been described in detail. Furthermore, the chapter identifies and describes the primary and secondary data collection methods that have been used. The primary data is collected by means of in-depth interviews with key participants, observation and audio-visual data (that is voice-recording and images) and the secondary data through document analysis. In addition, this chapter discusses the chosen sampling methods for the study and provides the basis for the data analysis presented in chapter four. Lastly, the ethical considerations and limitations of the study have also been discussed.

3.2 Research Design: Qualitative, Constructivism and Case Study.

3.2.1. Research approach: Qualitative

The study employs a qualitative approach. Qualitative research is broad and encompasses a variety of approaches that are used to collect and analyse data (Maree, 2007; Hesse-Biber, and Leavy, 2010). "*It has no theory or paradigm that is distinctively it's own, nor does it have a distinct set of methods or practices that are entirely it's own*" Dezin and Lincoln, 2011 cited in (Ritchie, Lewis, Nicholls and Ormston, 2013: 2). Thus, qualitative research has no clear meaning attached to it and may differ from one research discipline to another (Ritchie et.al., 2013). Flick (2011) describes qualitative as contextual research that is driven by or potentially employs inductive research approaches for the sole basis to acquire information on the broad

social context. Whereas Hollard & Campbell (2005: 5) postulates that *"qualitative research provides insight into the 'black box' of social and economic processes and relations which are poorly understood, ambiguous, or sensitive in nature"*. In support of the latter, Holloway & Wheeler 1996 cited in Maree (2007:4) further asserts that "*qualitative research studies people or systems by interacting with and observing the participants in their natural environment and focusing in their meanings and interpretations*". The latter definitions are consolidated into one in Creswell's definition of what constitutes qualitative research:

> "Qualitative research begins with assumptions, a worldview, the possible use of a theoretical lens, and the study of research problems inquiring in the meaning individuals or groups ascribe to a social or human problem. To study this problem, the qualitative researcher uses an emerging qualitative approach to inquiry the collection of data in a natural setting sensitive to the people and places under study and data analysis that is inductive and establishes patterns or themes. The final written report or presentation included voices of participants, the reflexivity of the researcher, and complex description and interpretation of the problem, and it extends the literature and signals a call for action" (Creswell, 2007: 37).

The above definitions convey and emphasize the constantly changing nature of the qualitative inquiry, from philosophical perspectives to social constructs or worldviews, through the theoretical lens that forms the basis of understating, and on to the processes involved in investigating and interpreting social realities or issues (Creswell, 2007). In addition, there is also some shared consensus about this notion amongst scholars (Creswell, 2007; Flick, 2011; Hollard & Campbell, 2005; Maree, 2007) pertaining to learning about various processes and socio-cultural contexts that motivate several behavioral patterns within society and to establish their construct meanings.

Thus, in contrast to focusing on data that is rigorously measured and scrutinized as in quantitative research. Qualitative research is more concerned with understanding social reality and extracting meaning from data, whilst also providing emphasis on the quality and depth of information. Moreover, it intends to explore questions such as 'what', 'why', or 'how' in research. It addresses social realities pertaining to certain experiences, interests and broader societal insights of a given issue (Hesse-Biber & Leavy, 2010; Holliday, 2002). Therefore, this research approach intends to capture judgments, perceptions, and meanings of unmeasurable cause-and-effect processes regarding rapid housing development through the self-built model in peri-urban areas.

3.2.2. Philosophical paradigmatic perspective: Constructivism

Qualitative research is held together by general philosophical assumptions or worldviews that attempt to understand or explain social and human issues. Positivism, critical theory, pragmatism, and constructivism are some of the frameworks that form the theoretical basis of understanding the human subject and researcher's position in qualitative research (Creswell, 2007; Patton, 1990 Walliman, 2017). For the purpose of this study, a constructivist view of the research problem has been employed. Phrases such as interpretivism, relativism, and idealism have been some of the terms combined with or used to label the constructivism paradigm. This paradigm has no rigid meaning as it is often understood in the form of multiple social contexts. According to Mackenzie and Knipe (2006) constructivism attempts to make sense of the realm of social experiences in their natural setting. Thus, it suggests that reality is socially constructed and experientially based (Dezin &Lincoln, 2008; Guda & Lincoln, 1994). In an attempt to give a somewhat clear meaning of what constitutes the theoretical underpinnings of this paradigm Walliman asserts that:

> "The constructivist paradigm maintains that the view of the world we see around us is the creation of the mind. This does not mean that the world is not real, but rather that we can only experience it personally through our perceptions which are influenced by our preconceptions, beliefs, and values; as we are not neutral, disembodied observers but part of the society" (Walliman, 2017: 22).

Sarantakos (2005) further supports the latter definition by stating that construct meaning is not fixed or uniform, and can only develop out of peoples connection with the world. It does not exist until the mind connects with it. Subsequently, what people often consider to be 'reality' is not in the actual sense. However, what is often constructed through people's personal experiences, culturally defined and historically found interpretations are all perceived as 'reality' (Sarantakos, 2005; Hesse-Biber & Leavy, 2010). Interaction amongst people forms a significant and distinct feature of social life in which subjective meanings derive. Thus, constructivists often focus on certain contexts in which individuals live and work for the purpose of understanding or interpreting the historical, cultural or institutional setting of the people being studied (Creswell, 2007; McNeill & Chapman, 2005). Moreover, constructivist researchers acknowledge that their interpretation of the world or social issue is formed through their background, and they also recognize how their own understanding or perceptions in the study are embedded in their personal, cultural, and historical experiences (Creswell, 2007). In other words, historical, cultural, institutional, and interactional norms and eventualities inevitably condition each act of 'seeing' and 'saying' in people's lives (Holliday, 2002).

The philosophical descriptions presented above of the constructivist paradigm emphasize the inextricable connection of the researcher and the human subjects or case being investigated. Contrary to quantitative research, the researcher cannot be a neutral observer but needs to part and parcel of the research process. This creates an approach that is largely subjective and inductive in nature, particularly pertaining to creating meaning and value from the data collected in the field (Creswell, 2003; Walliman, 2017). In addition, it shows that this paradigm does not subscribe to any one reality or basic belief, but rather it acknowledges that there are other social realities or perspectives of the world including the researchers that construct meaning around prevailing social or human issues. As it generally seeks to understand a certain case or issue through ascribed interpretations assigned by people through the broad lenses of constructivist worldviews. Therefore, this paradigm best describes the nature of this study as it relays much on the participant's experiences and perceptions pertaining to self-building and homeownership in peri-urban areas. It also allows the researcher to observe and understand interactions amongst people, and openly explore the prevailing context of uMzinyathi in relation to the subject matter of the study.

3.2.3. Qualitative approach to inquiry or design: Case Study

The philosophical paradigms or worldviews of qualitative research, through their broad lenses, encompass several approaches of qualitative inquiry or design, namely, case studies, narrative research, phenomenology, grounded theory, ethnography, and participatory action research (Creswell, 2007). It would be ideal to discuss each approach in-depth, however, only one research design is congruent with the chosen philosophical assumptions of constructivism in the context and the overall purpose of this study, of which in this case is the case study design. Maree defines research design as:

> "A plan or strategy which moves from the underlying philosophical assumptions to specifying the selection of respondents that data gathering techniques to be used and the data analysis to be done. The choice of the research design is based on the researcher's assumptions, research skills, and research practices, and influences and the ways in which she or he collects data" (Maree, 2007: 70).

In consideration of the above definition, research designs (also known as strategies of inquiry) refers to forms of inquiry within the qualitative methods approach that provides detailed and distinct direction for processes or techniques to be used in a specific research design (Patton, 1990). Now bringing it back to the chosen research design, there seems to be no distinct meaning attached to defining a case study as it is understood differently by people. For Creswell (2003) a case study refers to an in-depth investigation of a specific issue through one or more

cases within a given setting or context (also known as a bounded system). The researcher investigates these cases through in-depth data collection comprising of numerous tools of information *inter alia* (interviews, observation, audio-visual, and documents), which are strategically categorised into primary and secondary data sources (Creswell, 2003).

Therefore, case studies are not merely designs of inquiry but are also methodologies used to develop an in-depth analysis of a certain case, event, program, activity, or a process. Cases are often constrained by time and activity, and relevant in-depth information can be collected by the researcher through several data collection techniques overtime (Creswell, 2003; Patton, 1990). In this regard, the study used a descriptive case study research design. This was primarily due to the flexible nature of the design and how well it relates with the chosen sampling, data collection strategies and the over research questions of the study. The descriptive design will assist in understanding and gaining more insight about the dynamics including the complexity pertaining to the emerging trends of self-building formal (high quality) housing but that is recognized as informal within the peri-urban landscapes such as uMzinyathi.

Furthermore, through this design, the study seeks to explain why people are gradually moving into peri-urban areas, and this is expressed in a detailed discussion of major factors that inform this movement. Given the surging trends in housing development through the self-built housing process in peri-urban areas, this design also sought to clarify the motivation for and benefits of self-building in areas like uMzinyathi. In addition, intends to better understand and clarify the degree in which peri-urban dwellers are active participants in the decision-making, and overall housing process pertaining to the planning, design, construction, and general management of their own housing. Lastly, it helps explain the type and degree of security of tenure that peri-urban dwellers possess. Hence, in order to answer the research questions and effectively achieve its objectives, the explanatory research design had to be employed.

3.3 Data Collection Methods

Data collection provides the researcher with a better illustration of sampled techniques for assessing research design within each stipulated approach to inquiry (Creswell, 2007). This study then engaged with the following data collection strategies: -

3.3.1   Primary data sources

- Semi-structured interviews

Semi-structured in-depth interviews with participants have been the main source of primary data for the study. An interview is a reciprocal dialog between an interviewer (researcher) and an interviewee (participant or respondent), where the interviewer poses a set of questions to the interviewee in an intent to collect information and acquire detailed insight concerning individual perceptions, values, and experiences of participants (Maree, 2007). This is a formal data collection method that often seems informal and unstructured interviewing. It allows the researcher and the participant to engage in an in-depth dialogue concerning a specific issue. Numerous questions are prepared to prompt discussion and to cover the intended scope of the interview (Flick, 2011). Interview data was collected through audio-recordings for those participants who consented for the interview to be recorded and collected information was later transcribed by hand. The study reached saturation after 16 interviews out of the 20 that were initially conducted. Some participants did agree to be interviewed but did not consent to be recorded as they expressed that it made them uncomfortable even though they were reassured identity will be protected.

- Non- participant observation

Observation refers to the "*systematic process of recording the behavioral patterns of participants, objects, and occurrences without necessarily questioning or communicating with them*" (Maree, 2007:83). In this regard, the researcher takes a role of being a complete observer or non-participant, where there is persistent and direct observation of the surrounding environment, socio-cultural setting in the field in order to gain a more comprehensive understanding of the people, but also providing an outsider perspective to the issue being investigated (Maree, 2007). Thus, the quality, maintenance and overall management of the housing process for newly self-built houses were observed. In addition, for those houses that were still in the process of completion and, the types of building material and dweller (homeowner) participation in the overall production process of their houses were also observed.

- Audio-visual data

Audio-visual data, namely, video, voice-recording, images, and films have gained much recognition as alternative instruments for collecting data that is produced for research purposes (Flick, 2011). Thus, the study used some of these tools such as a camera to take pictures of the

houses and the surrounding environment. Audio/Voice recorder was also used as an apparatus to record discussions during interviews with the permission of the interviewees.

3.3.2 Secondary data sources

- Document analysis

Document Analysis refers to the use of existing and available secondary data both domestic and international inter alia (published journal articles, official statistics, images, books, government legislative and/or policy documents, including reports and the internet) (Flick, 2011). Thus, many of the existing datasets were analysed and used to explore further knowledge for the research project. This allowed the researcher to gain access to and use already existing knowledge from other contexts, which was initially not produced for the proposed research project but for other purposes such as documentation (Flick, 2011).

3.4 Sampling Methods

Sampling is one of the most important features and processes in qualitative research. Maree (2007: 5) defines sampling as a "*process used to select a portion of the population for the study*". This process encompasses a variety of strategies or approaches that work as guiding principles in collecting qualitative data for any investigated case. The sampling strategy or approach that had been selected and used by this study have all been enlisted below.

3.5.1 Sampling strategies

- Purposive Sampling

The concept of purposive sampling is frequently used in qualitative research. Thus, this study takes a purposive sampling approach in the sampling of relevant participants for the study. Purposive sampling refers to a subjective non-probability sampling technique whereby information-rich cases are selected for an in-depth study and according to a defined criterion by the researcher for the issue of the study (Flick, 2011; Patton, 1990; Robinson, 2014). In other words, the researcher purposefully identified and selected specific participants because they were eminent to provide information, experiences and/or perspectives that validated and related well with the theoretical context and main research questions of the study being conducted.

- Study Population: identifying key research participants

The study population is located in uMzinyathi as stated previously, and the unit of analysis for the study comprised predominantly of households (self-builders) who have recently moved into the areas and currently reside in the new self-built high-quality housing emerging in the community. This includes a combination of young adults and/or elders (females and males) who are homeowners within the chosen area of study. Furthermore, the Chief and iziNduna from the traditional council were also be selected as participants of the study, as they shared critical information and perspectives pertaining to the current trends of self-built housing in the area. Interviews comprised of 16 participants, of which is where the study also reached saturation as identified participants started providing the same information.

The study employed the purposive sampling strategy in recruiting relevant participants. Izinduna (headsman) and other community members played a pivotal role in that regard as they gave clear direction as to which participants were most likely to provide relevant information to address the study's research questions. Furthermore, mere observation of any housing construction projects prevailing within the community during the period of the field visit, it also assisted in identifying relevant participants. The researcher then seeks permission to interview each participant who had been selected in line with the study's main purpose and research questions.

- Sample size

The size question is very an eminent and critical feature of research studies, particularly when making decisions pertaining to sampling strategies to be used in the data collection process. In qualitative research, there is no predetermined sample size, sampling stops when a thorough understanding of the phenomenon is reached, an end point known as 'saturation' (Kuper, Lingard & Levinson, 2008; Patton, 2001). Data saturation refers to a point in research where no more substantial or new information that can be acquired through additional participants or until there are no more participants accessible for the study. However, Maree (2007) contends that the purposive sampling approach could be conceivably flawed as it might lead to unsaturated data. In order to counter that challenge, purposive samples ought to be determined based on 'theoretical' saturation, of which is a stage in data collection when new information no longer provides further perceptions to the research questions (Maree, 2007; Boejie, 2010).

Thus, samples in qualitative research are often small as opposed to quantitative studies, however, that is not a rule that is fixed or 'carved in stone' as cases do vary in research

(Creswell, 2007; Maree, 2007). In light of the latter, as postulated by Creswell (2007: 126) that "*the intent in qualitative research is not to generalize the information (except in some forms of case study research), but to elucidate the particular, the specific*". Consequently, this leaves the question of sample size open. However, Maree (2007) argues that sample size ever so often depends on available time and means for the researcher, and this also varies as the size might or might not be fixed before data collection. This then means sample 'size' is often predetermined by the elements of time and resources if one has sufficient time and adequate resources (funding or sponsorship) to facilitate the research then it is very possible to have a bigger sample as one thinks their study requires.

Most small qualitative studies often range between a sample size of 15 to 25 participants depending on the researcher researches and purpose of the study. Thus, For the purpose of this study, a sample of 20 participants were selected through the guiding principles of purposive theoretical sampling, and this was in order to obtain clear insights and experiences of participants of which allowed the researcher to critically analyse the obtained information. However, the study reached saturation on 16 of the participants who were interviewed. The initial sampling began with the Chief and Izinduna (also known to be gatekeepers of the area) from the Qadi traditional council, and later to new self-builders (home-owners) within the community to seek permission to be participants in the study.

3.5 Data Analysis Method: Thematic Analysis

Data analysis is an important component of qualitative research. Raw data or information consisting of participant's experiences, perceptions, and behaviors, acquired through various data collection methods cannot be recorded as is and/or presented as the final findings of one's study. But rather it needs to be broken down into smaller distinguished parts in order to identify specific patterns or sequences from the collected data, and later synthesized back into one coherent and meaningful whole that is in line with research questions and the purpose of the study. Boeije defines qualitative data analysis as:

> "…the segmenting of data into relevant categories and naming of these categories with codes while simultaneously generating the categories from the data. In the reassembling phase the categories are related to one another to generate theoretical understanding of the social phenomenon under study in terms of the research questions" (Boeije, 2010:76).

Therefore, it is eminent that the notion of dividing information into what is thought to be relevant and meaningful elements of data, and the systematic restructuring or integration of those elements are distinguished processes of data analysis. Qualitative research encompasses

a variety of data analysis approaches that are extremely diverse and multifaceted. However, 'thematic' analysis is extensively used and a common analytic approach in most qualitative studies. Thematic analysis refers to "*a method of identifying, analysing and reporting patterns (themes) within data. It minimally organizes and describes your data set in (rich) detail. However, frequently it goes further than this and interprets various aspects of the research topic*" (Braun & Clarke, 2006: 79). Thus, thematic analyses intend to find and reveal themes that are prominent in textual data, and are systematically arranged and interpreted through an open coding process of condensed codes that are later illustrated on representational tools such as figures, tables, or written discussions (Attride-Stirling, 2001; Boeije, 2010; Creswell, 2007).

The findings of this study were analysed through the thematic analysis approach. All data acquired through observations, pictures and particularly interview sessions with participants were organized, transcribed and read thoroughly prior to being categorized into smaller coded themes. In relation to this study, 'codes' refer to specific words or a sequence terms used to label identified themes or categories created during data analysis. An open coding process (of segmenting, examining, and matching, including conceptualizing and categorizing data) was followed in the analysis of these themes as they encouraged a thematic approach.

Through this process, the researcher was able to determine any mistakes or repetitions that were made. Furthermore, it also created a platform to seamlessly review whether all collected information and identified themes were meaningful and applicable to the research questions and purpose of the study. This then allowed the researcher to orderly interpret and make sense of what the collected raw data really comprised of in relation to the study. Thus, the research findings from participants were taken from codes that best describe the perceptions and experiences of self-builders within peri-urban settlements.

3.6 Reliability, Validity and Rigor

In efforts to ensure that the reliability, validity, and rigor of the study are achieved, a number of strategic techniques were employed as follows (Shenton, 2004):

3.7.1.   Data Triangulation

The use of different data sources to produce a more comprehensive view of the phenomenon or research question being explored. Observation, semi-structured in-depth interviews, and audio-visual (pictures and voice-recorder) data are some of the major data collection strategies that were employed in this study. Moreover, the analysis of published documents from existing

secondary data sources (that is published journal articles, official statistics, images, books, government legislative and/or policy documents, including reports) was also instrumental in gathering relevant data to the study. This allowed for cross-checking individual viewpoints and experiences that can be verified against other participants from interviews and observations.

3.7.2. The use of appropriate methods

Research methods that are well established and appropriate for the study were adopted to answer the research questions, which considered the nature and context of the subject matter being investigated by this study. This further extends to the selected approach and paradigmatic perspective that guide and underpin the chosen tools of data collection.

3.7.3. Ensure honesty in informants when sharing data

Every individual who partook in the research project was given an opportunity to refuse to participate, and this was in order to ensure that only those who are genuinely willing and prepared to offer relevant information freely are involved in the data collection sessions. Moreover, it was made clear that participants may withdraw from the study at any point as it is their right, and before the beginning of each session participants were encouraged to be forthright when contributing their ideas and experiences for the project.

3.7.4. Iterative questioning

Probes were used to elicit details from participants. This was done by returning to issues previously raised by the participant/s, and extract related data through rephrased questions. If any contradictions emerged, a decision to discard the suspect data from the project was taken.

3.7.5. Member checks

During interviews, checks relating to the accuracy of the data collected were conducted 'on the spot' and the end of each session in the project. Thus, participants were given an opportunity to proof-read the field notes or transcripts of dialogue in order to establish whether it matches what they intended to say and the voice recording supported the accuracy of the capture.

3.7 Ethical Considerations

The study centers around human participants and to an extent their livelihoods. Thus, as a researcher one is ethically inclined to protect the rights and welfare of any chosen participants for the study. Issues of confidentiality, protection of participant identity, including obtaining letters of consent and seeking permission to conduct interviews amongst other things is very crucial (Maree, 2007). Hence, permission to conduct the research was obtained from the respective gatekeeper/s of the study area (uMzinyathi) being the traditional authority under iNkosi (Chief) B.M Ngcobo of the Qadi Clan. The researcher visited the Qadi traditional court to be granted permission to see the Chief. Thereafter, a brief introduction of the main title, purpose, and objectives of the research project was presented to the council. A drafted hardcopy of a gatekeeper's letter to seek the participation of both the traditional authority and community members in the research project was issued to sign for permission by the Chief. Approval for the study to be conducted was granted accordingly.

Concurrently to the latter, an application for ethical approval for the study was submitted to the University's (UKZN) Humanities and Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee (HSSREC). The application was approved; thus the researcher was cleared to commence with data collection on the field. Furthermore, a letter of consent to participate in the study was provided to each of the participants to read and understand before signing in agreement to the terms of the study prior to interviewing. It clearly outlined that participation is voluntary, the research was purely for academic purposes and confidentiality including anonymity of all those who choose to participate in the study was adhered to and assured. Participants were also free to withdraw from participating in the study at any point. However, the participant had to provide reasons for withdrawal from the study to the researcher for reporting purposes.

For confidentiality or anonymity purposes, the researcher ensured that in place of identifying information of participants such names, addresses, or contact details amongst others, codes were used on data collection techniques in order to protect participant responses and identity. These codes did not directly link or associate any data collected to a specific participant/s. In addition, any data stored electronically was protected by passwords. At the beginning of every session (interviews), the participants were requested to not disclose any information that is shared and discussed in the session outside of it.

However, this could not be guaranteed as some participants insisted on sharing some of the information with friends and family members over the excitement of the research project. The

audio-recorded interviews had to be transcribed accordingly. Moreover, contact details of the researcher were provided to participants in case they wanted to do a follow-up or discuss any relevant concerns regarding the study. Relevant information regarding the study was communicated directly to participants and traditional authority through verbal and written correspondence to share feedback about the progress and outcome of the study.

3.8 Limitations of the Study

It has always been a dream to learn and acquire knowledge about the current trends of development in various communities and how people live. However, through this research study one has acquired not merely a broader insight concerning the varying contexts of communities and but also a bit of a culture shock in relation to the traditional beliefs and values that traditional communities still abide by in this modern day. In the quest to adequately investigate the chosen case of study and answer its identified research questions and purpose. There were several challenges that were encountered particularly relating to accessing the study area and participants, including conduction the interviews and acquiring appropriate information that relates to the study.

3.8.1. Access to study area and participants

Acquiring a gatekeeper's permission to access the research site and participants was one of the major challenges that were encountered. Given the fact that the researcher was not a resident of the area and a woman who had traveled alone the first time to seek permission to conduct the study in uMzinyathi. Traditionally and customarily in the Zulu culture, a woman of any age cannot address the traditional council being izinduna (headsmen) particularly the iNkosi (Chief). But rather any woman who needs to address iNkosi ought to have a male representative to accompany her and speak on her behalf. Consequently, the gatekeeper's took longer than anticipated to acquire as the council tended to a bit difficult and somewhat territorial to the area at times.

The researcher did get an opportunity to speak to iNkosi at first regarding interest to conduct research in uMzinyathi. However, an opportunity to present the full case material (proposal, consent forms, and interview questions) for the study was constantly postponed for some reason or the other. Each of the dates that were provided for a revisit to the traditional court was changed repeatedly on arrival, and at times the council would not even make it to court on that specific date that was initially agreed upon and the researcher would find this out after spending hours waiting. Therefore, after great attempts to meet and officially present the case

material to iNkosi and the rest of the traditional council. The researcher then was accompanied by a male representative who was fully informed about what the study seeks to investigate and achieve through its main aim and objectives. This mended the issue as the researcher was finally given an opportunity to present the case material and got approval to conduct the study there.

3.8.2. Conducting interviews and acquiring appropriate information

Meetings could not be set telephonically with the Chief, but the researcher had to physically go to the Qadi Traditional Court. Interviews with the traditional authority of uMzinyathi had to be conducted in isiZulu and transcribed back into English as this thesis ought to be written in English. It was indicated that IsiZulu is the preferred language to be used especially within the Traditional Court of Qadi. This then allowed them to share clear insights and beliefs pertaining to the rapid densification of residential developments through the self-built housing process within the area. Furthermore, the use of cell phones or any audio-recording devices was not permitted within the Courts, thus the interview could not be recorded but this was substituted by taking handwritten notes of the responses.

Furthermore, the Chief could not be interviewed in isolation, thus some of izinduna (Headsmen) were called to sit in for the interview and at some point were directed to respond to some of the questions being asked. This posed a challenge as it somewhat changed the initial method of an in-depth interview with one respondent into an interactive focused dialogue (focus group) of approximately 7 respondents, of which each often concurred with what the Chief was expressing during the interview. Consequently, some perceptions and belief could have not been effectively captured, thus important information could have been missed. However, the researcher overcame this issue through observing, listening attentively to each respondent and taking handwritten notes.

Moreover, some of the immediate reflections of the interview responses from a male representative who accompanied the researcher to the Traditional Court were of assistance in this regard. Thus, objective analysis and a careful juxtaposed presentation of facts were conducted by the researcher. Time was also a challenge as it was very limited since the Chief had to attend to other community issues and cases brought forth by residents. This issue was inhibited by first seeking clarification regarding the availability of the traditional council to be interviewed, and the researcher ensured to acquire as much information needed within that specified period.

In relation to other in-depth interviews with community members, there were a couple of challenges encountered by the researcher. Firstly, the Traditional council gave clear instruction and recommendation to the researcher to conduct interviews during the working days of the week as opposed to weekends as most community members attend church on Saturdays and Sundays. With limited time and resources, this was difficult as most of the homeowners were not available to be interviewed as they worked during the day. But the researcher still took their contact details in order to inquire as to whether they would be interested to be participants in the study.

Furthermore, the Chief had instructed two of izinduna to accompany the researcher to households that ought to provide relevant information to the study seeing that the researcher was not too familiar with the area. This was a very big challenge as some of the households that were selected were not even near relevant to the study's objectives or overall purpose. As a result, some of the very first interviews could not be effectively used as they were deemed irrelevant to the study. Furthermore, some participants felt uncomfortable and could not fully articulate themselves within the presence of izinduna. Consequently, some information could have not been shared openly as they would if izinduna were not present.

In efforts to solve this issue, the initial time or period of the field visit was extended, and in the days that follow the researcher traveled to other sections of uMzinyathi without the presence of izinduna, which was reported to the traditional council prior to it being considered. Moreover, some participants failed to avail themselves to be interviewed due to several reasons that could not be adequately disclosed. This issue was overcome by searching for alternative participants who had the same potential to provide detailed information to the researcher in relation to the study's context and purpose.

3.8.3. Reaching saturation in the study's findings

Only 16 respondents were interviewed and considered for the study as all the other participants who were considered for the study were not providing any new information, thus the study reached saturation at 16 respondents. However, the information that was acquired from all the other 16 respondents who were interviewed was sufficient to address and answer all the research question and objectives of the study.

3.9 Conclusion

This chapter provided a detailed description of the history and context of the chosen study area of uMzinyathi. It distinctly unpacked the researched design of qualitative research approach that formed a methodological basis for the study. Of which was held together by a constructivist philosophical paradigmatic perspective or worldview that encompasses a qualitative case study design used for the study. In addition, the chapter further laid out the selected data collection methods, which come in a form of primary (i.e. Interviews, observations, and audio-visual) and secondary (that is document analysis) sources of data. Purposive and snowball sampling strategies including thematic data analysis were employed for the study. Moreover, ethical considerations and limitations of the study were also discussed in this chapter.

CHAPTER 4: DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the findings of the study based on the analysis of the data gathered for this study. This is from the primary and secondary data collected from respondents who were interviewed for the study. To begin, this chapter provides a brief introduction to the chosen case study area of uMzinyathi, including an outline of reasons as to why it was selected as the focus area to conduct research in relation to the study's context. The chapter has been further divided into two sections; Section A: presents and discusses the demographic findings and characteristics of respondents. Section B presents and discusses research findings relating to self-build housing processes in peri-urban areas. In this section, research objectives are used as preliminary themes to allow for thematic analysis.

4.2 Case Study Area: uMzinyathi

UMzinyathi is a peri-urban area within iQadi, a tribal (traditional) settlement that has been identified and demarcated as one of the 103 main places that make up EThekwini Municipality. EThekwini is a metropolitan municipality located within the province of Kwa-Zulu Natal (KZN) in South Africa. The land area covered by this Municipality is approximately 2555 km² and it housed a population of roughly 3.6 million in 2016 (EThekwini Municipality, 2017a). It is also the administrative entity of the graceful, cosmopolitan, and ambitious City of Durban. The historical specificities of Durban as an apartheid city provides a basis for understanding the nature of the peri-urban phenomenon within eThekwini (Mbatha and Mchunu, 2016). The greatly segregated spatial patterns, particularly in residential areas, mounting poverty, inequality, distorted property markets, and the peripheralization of the urban poor away from the vibrant urban areas are some of the deep scars that characterise South African settlements today. Thus, as a diverse society, the EThekwini Municipality continues to experience countless issues related to housing, governance, and socio-economic inadequacies including the downgrading of the environment (EThekwini Municipality, 2017b).

4.2.1.   Qadi tribal (rural) area: historical roots of uMuzi Wezinyathi presently known as 'uMzinyathi'

The tribal settlement of amaQadi (Qadi Clan) that houses uMzinyathi is no exception, as it also faces challenges pertaining to housing, services delivery and environmental degradation as it continues to rapidly densify. The historical background that sets the basis for the establishment of uMzinyathi dates back to the primitive years of King Shaka, where people of the Qadi Clan

absconded after they had been attacked by assassinators of King Shaka (Phewa, 2016). The Clan was divided into two as some fled and settled at S'bubulungu (currently known as Ballito) and others at uMzinaythi also known as 'uMuzi Wezinyathi' (meaning house of buffalos) as the area was full of buffalo's at the time (Phewa, 2016). Thus, the Qadi settlement stretches from south of Ngqungqulu and west of PINK townships towards the north of Tongaat (see. Figure 3.1). In relation the type of settlement, Qadi is purely a tribal area, the land is in traditional custodianship of the Qadi Clan under the jurisdiction of Ingonyama Trust Board (Statistics South Africa, 2011; Sutherland, Sim, Buthelezi and Khumalo, 2016). Thus, no individual can own or rent land as in the formal market since in iQadi follows tribal customs that advocate for communal tenure systems. Moreover, it has become a common choice of settlement amongst the low-middle income groups.

4.2.2.   UMzinyathi

Since uMzinyathi is located within iQadi it inevitably resembles the characteristics of the settlement that have been discussed above. As the City of Durban continues to grow and expand on to its outskirts, peri-urban areas such as uMzinyathi also continue to experience rapid densification through 'informal' self-building that has led to the transition of its natural spatial setting. UMzinyathi is located to the west of the large townships of Phoenix, Inanda, Ntuzuma and KwaMashu (PINK) just outside the administrative development boundary of eThekwini Municipality (see. Figure 4.1 and 4.2) (Sutherland et.al., 2016).

It forms part of Ward 3 of eThekwini Municipality (i.e. administer in the provision of bulk infrastructure) headed by Councillor Mr. Bonke. A. Chili of the African National Congress (ANC). In addition, the community of uMzinyathi falls under the Qadi Traditional Authority (that is custodians of the land) led by INkosi Mqobi Ngcobo (Sutherland et.al., 2016; EThekwini Municipality, 2016). It is home to approximately 30 000 people, who have moved from neighbouring townships and others rural farms in search of affordable land for housing, low cost of services, and good quality of life including its close proximity to the urban core (Durban) (Sutherland et.al., 2016). Thus, people still travel to surrounding urban areas, namely, central Duban, Phoenix, iNanda, KwaMashu, and Pinetown, for employment and other socio-economic purposes. The lifestyle is for most households within uMzinyathi is fairly simple. A majority of the residents are predominantly traditional Africans of the Nazareth Baptist Church (also known as Shembe religion), and also followers of the missionary organization known as the Congregation Church of Southern Africa (UCCSA) (Phewa, 2016).

The topographical landscape of uMzinyathi as indicated previously overlaps the UDL as a portion of the urban core gradually diffuses into the area, however, large portions of the landscape still remain within the rural periphery (Sutherland et.al., 2016). This terrain historically encompasses hills with ravines, clearly distinguished by gravel roads in some areas, beautiful forests and wetlands, including rivers and gorges (that is Mzinyathi River and falls) that forms part of Nanda Dam (see. Figure 4.2 and Image 4.1) (Phewa, 2016). Furthermore, the rapid movement of people into uMzinyathi has gradually changed the natural setting as of the landscape, as land that was initially for vegetation and graving of livestock has to some degree been surpassed by residential developments. Thus, uMzinyathi's rapid densification does not merely relate to the research questions of this study, but it also speaks to its main purpose.

Figure 4.1: 2D Aerial Map illustrating uMzinyathi's location within iQadi tribal (rural) settlement

Source: Google Earth (2018a)

Figure 4.2: 3D Aerial Map illustrating residential patterns of uMzinyathi (study area)
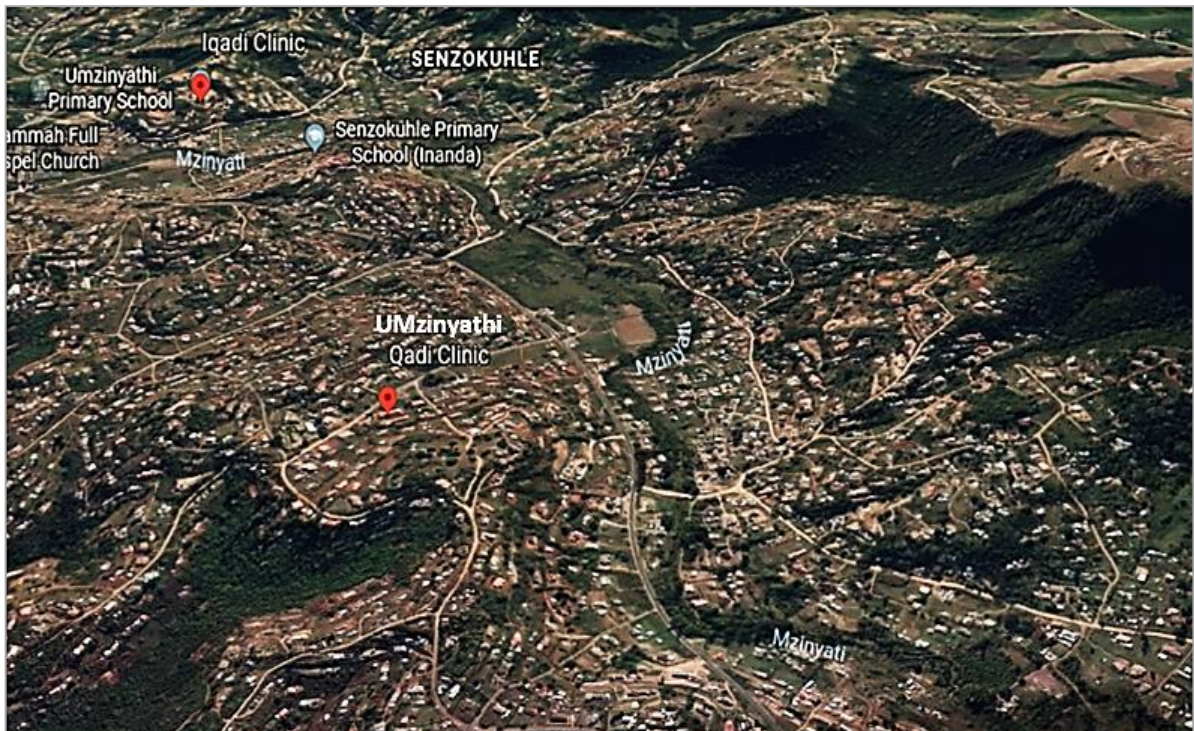
Source: Google Earth (2018b)

Image 4.1: Residential settlements of uMzinyathi

Source: Resracher (2018)

According to census 2011, the Qadi population is predominantly black Africans that account for 98,6% , and coloureds are only 1,4 % , whereas other races such as Indians/Asian including White have not been represented at 0,0 % (see. **Table 4.1**) below.

Table 4.1 : Population group percentages in Qadi

Group	Percentage
Black African	98,6 %
Coloured	1,4 %
Indian/Asian	0,0 %
White	0,0 %
Other	0,0 %

Source: Statistics South Africa (2011)

According to census 2011 households with an income ranging from R0 and R4 801- R9 600 (low-income bracket) each accounted for approximately 12% of the population which was slightly higher than most household incomes. Whereas, the highest household incomes ranged between middle-income brackets of R9 601-19 600 which accounted for 21, 8% and R19 601 - 38 200 which accounted for 25, 2% of the residents (see. **Table 4.2** below).

Table 4.2: Population household incomes in Qadi

Income	Percentage
No Income	12,8 %
R 1 - R4,800	4,3 %
R 4, 801 – R9, 600	12 %
R 9, 601 – R 19, 600	21,8 %
R 19, 601 – R 38, 200	25,2 %
R 38, 201 – R 76,400	11,5 %
R76,401 – R 153, 800	5.1 %
R 153, 801 – R307, 600	4,3 %
R 307, 601 – R 614, 400	2,1 %
R614, 001 – R 1, 228, 800	0 %
R1, 228, 801 – R 2, 457, 600	0,4 %
R2, 457, 601+	0,4 %

Source: Statistics South Africa (2011)

4. 3 Section A: Demographic Findings and Characteristics of Respondents

The profile proved bellow is very significant as it allowed the Researcher to gain a clear insight into the demographic representation of respondents that were interviewed for the study.

4.3.1.   Demographic profile of participants

Respondents were requested to indicate their gender, thus **Table 4.3** below illustrates the gender representation of all interviewed respondents.

Table 4.3: Demographic representation

VARIABLES	CATEGORY	FREQUENCY
Total number of participants		100
Gender distribution	Female	68
	Male	32
Age distribution	20- 30	6
	31-40	19
	41-50	56
	51-60	13
	60+	6
Race (ethnicity) group	African	100
Household size	1-2	6
	3-4	25
	5-6	38
	7-8	19
	9+	12

*Minimum age 20; Mean age 20; Maximum age 68; standard deviation 17.14

Table 4.3 above illustrates the gender representation of all interviewed respondents 68 % accounted for female respondents and only 32 % were male. The Researcher observed how most households in the study area had more women staying at home whilst men went to work. In other households' men were present, however, women were still requested by their male counterparts to participate in the study. In addition, the findings also indicate that of the 16 interviewed participants, the predominant age was in the age group ranges from 41-50 accounting for 56% of all age groups. This was followed by the age group 31-45 with 19 %. The age group from 51-60 only accounted for 13%, and those ranging from 20-30 including others who were 60 and above accounted for only 6%.

Furthermore, respondents were requested to indicate their race (ethnicity) group of which they fell. The most common race amongst respondents who were interviewed was black Africans of which accounted for all 16 respondents at 100 %. There was no representation of any other race groups as White, Indian and Mixed races. The findings are not unfounded, as they are congruent with Statistics South Africa's census of 2011 which indicated that the study is comprised of predominantly black African (Statistics South Africa, 2011).

Respondents were also requested to indicate the number of family members in each of the households. The findings represented indicated that of the 16 interviewed respondents, the most common number of family members per household ranged between 5-6 members at 38%, followed by 25% of the respondents who indicated that there were 3 to 4 members that resided in the household. Another 12 % of respondents indicated that there were more than 9 people living in the household.

4.4 Section B: Self- Build Housing Process in Peri-Urban Areas

This section discusses the various driving forces to the movement of people into peri-urban areas. It further discusses the extent to which dwellers are involved in the self-build housing process. The motivation and benefits of self-building are also discussed. In addition, the type and security of tenure residents possess are also presented including the sentiments of the traditional council have also been discussed. In addition, factors influencing the movement of people to uMzinyathi such as the areas rapid development, proximity to the city, affordable transportation networks including access to cheaper basic services will also be further elaborated on in this section.

4.4.1. Factors influencing the movement of people to uMzinyathi

During the interview sessions, respondents were asked to share their places of origin. A majority of the respondents had indicated that they did not originally come from uMzinyathi, but rather they had moved from all corners of the city and rural farms to come and settle in uMzinyathi. Areas such as KwaMashu, uMlazi, iNdwendwe, Kwashangase in Thaphamuzi, Lindelani, and Stanger were identified by the respondents as places of origin, some are recognized as 'urban' and others 'rural' in nature. For those respondents who can from the rural areas, their movement was more inclined to lack of development and the overall collapse of these landscapes. For instance, two of the respondents stated:

> No…we stayed in Lindelani, we decided to move because there was not much development happening and came too settled here (Respondent 7)

> No, we did not stay here initially we stayed at some place called Kwashangase in Thaphamuzi (Respondent 6)

These responses were congruent with the Rapid Urban Triad Growth (RUGT) frameworks perception on rural-reclassification where constant growth in population densities through natural increase and change in migration patterns in most cities has perpetuated their rapid spatial expansion into more rural settings beyond the existing administrative or municipal boundaries (Farrell, 2017). Essentially this means that there is a rapid movement of people towards more peri-urban settings (Jedwab et.al, 2014). The movement is informed by various other factors of development such as the rapid development of the area, its proximity to the city including access to affordable transportation networks, basic services, and land markets.

- The rapid development of the area

Cities in many regions of the world are rapidly changing and experiencing speculative development. The rapid spatial expansion of cities outwards onto adjacent rural landscapes has perpetuated the development within peri-urban settlements (Adedire et.al., 2016). Some of the respondents shared the same sentiments pertaining to rapid development in the peri-urban area of uMzinyathi when asked about what attracted them to the area. The excerpts below captured their sentiments:

 One respondent said:

> Since we have a 'big family-home' (parents' house) this side (pointing towards the direction of home), so we had moved out of there but thought we could not really move to another area because development is something that is happening all over (Respondent 3)

Based on these responses and it can be said that uMzinyathi is rapidly transitioning and developing. Part of this is linked to its proximity to the city.

- Proximity to the city

The strategic spatial positioning of peri-urban settlements to vibrant urban cores allows for swift interactions through flows of people, activities, and resources. Some interviewed respondents indicated that they want to be in close proximity to the city. Thus, was their major attraction to the area. From the interview discussions, there were perceptions that respondents who came from urban settings had no intention of moving further away from the city as everything still happened there, whereas respondents who moved from more rural settings had the growing desire to be closer to the city. Thus, uMzinyathi's location proved to be very convenient for the respondents, and this was seen through their shared sentiments in that regard:

One other respondent said:

UMzinyathi is a nice place that is very conveniently located as the city is very close to us and we can easily go there from here that is what I like about it (Respondent 8)

While another two respondents had this to say:

Since we work in the city we had to move to a place that is closer (Respondent 1)

…. the area is also close to EThekwini. Especially for those of us who work in the city, it takes about 30 minutes to travel from here to Durban, so it is almost like in the city itself if I may say (Respondent 6)

These findings show that residents have easy access to the city and the vast economic opportunities available there. The travel time is also very short as opposed to their previous places of origin.

- Access to Affordable Transportation Networks

Scholars (Adedire et.al., 2016; Choy and Sutherland, 2008; Jedwab et.al, 2014) have acknowledged that accessibility transportation networks are one of the major driving forces that attract people to a specific area. These networks do only connect places together but form part of everyday life for most people. Some respondents had acknowledged that their attraction to uMzinyathi was more related to the affordable and accessible transportation system that the area had. Two of the respondents said:

Since we grew up in the township, we love being close to roads, you know…and also for children there is affordable transport for them to continue attending the school that they initially went to prior to coming here (Respondent 4, Female)

…taxis fetch and bring me back right here (pointing at the ground), so I do not have to travel far to catch a taxi. It comes here (Respondent 6, Male)

Thus, road accessibility and affordable transport are key factors that influence the decision for residents to settle in a specific place. This ensures easy access to basic amenities such as schools including the city and its vast socio-economic opportunities particularly for those residents who do not have private transportation.

- Access to cheaper basic services

The provision and access to infrastructural basic services had not only been accepted as a basic human right in South Africa, but it had been one of the major needs of people. In peri-urban areas, this right is clearly defined as basic services are cheap and free.

One participant said:

…the availability of water and electricity made us come here since we had not yet received any of these services where we initially came from (Respondent 11).

However, another participant had shared her passionate insight relating to water challenges in the areas and said:

Water is the first thing; we do not get water frequently. It is such a challenge. When we speak to people from the Department of Water, they explained what the issue was on their side and we understood that the way we have built in uMzinyathi is challenging. We do not pay for water supply here, so we think it might be one of the problems. At times, we go a week or a whole month without tap water. So we always need to have water in containers. Our neighbours suggested that we buy a JoJo tank to store the water. But. since we stay up here, we are often told that the pipes do not have enough pressure to push the water up to our side (Respondent 4, Female)

Based on these findings, it can be said that the unprecedented settlements patterns on the urban peripheries cannot be adequately accommodated for in terms of the surging demand for basic services and supply by the local municipal governments. As these officials often grapple with challenges of not possessing sufficient capability and resources to afford the efficient extension and provision of infrastructural services such as water, electricity, and sanitation, beyond the metropolitan boundaries (Choy and Sutherland, 2008).

- Access to an affordable land market for housing development.

The demand for housing and meeting other developmental needs of surging populations in most cities has put pressure on the urban peripheries to become sanctuaries for the surging socio-economic and residential developments not merely for the urban poor but similarly amongst the low-middle income households (Adedire et.al., 2016). According to Adedire et.al (2016), the effects of expensive and unaffordable housing in urban centres is reflected through eminent growth factors such as land affordability in peri-urban areas. When asked about factors that attracted respondents to the areas, land availability for housing development purposes had been a common factor amongst most interviewees. Sentiments relating to how affordable it was as opposed to the expensive land and housing markets of the city were shared throughout the interview discussions.

One participant expressed his sentiments thus:

…so initially we had intended to buy a house in EThekwini but it was a bit expensive because we still had to fix it and buy furniture. So we decided to look for places where we could buy cheaper land in order to build instead, uMzinyathi happened to be just the area where we got a site at such a bargain compared to what we were being offered in the city (Respondent 9)

Another participant shared:

Building for ourselves at emaQadini became an appropriate option because the land was available and we could afford to buy it. We had the liberty to design and build the house however we desired. So that was really good for our family (Respondent 5).

Whereas the other participant also further articulated:

…. the major issue was that KwaMashu was my parents' home. And in traditional Zulu customs, if a male figure has taken a wife. He has to now build his own house for his family. We loved the area of emaQadini because sites were still very cheap it was 2008. So we did not have any issues with uMzinyathi, it is alright because we purchased a site that is within your means depending on how big of a site you are looking for, so you can build for yourself (Respondent 4, Male).

Thus, based on these responses it can be said that land markets in peri-urban areas are a viable and affordable option for those people who cannot afford to penetrant the traditional land markets in cities. It offers them an opportunity to meet their housing needs, allow for home ownership and improve their overall social wellbeing.

Other factors that were mentioned prominently by the participants related to being attracted to the area of uMzinyathi by its closeness to the place of employment as most respondents had indicated that they worked in the city and/or in surrounding industrial areas such as Phoenix. Others had also indicated that it was a better environment to be living because of the beautiful scenery of nature, its peacefulness, and lower crime rates if at all.

A handful of respondents had identified home burial of loved ones in the yard as a major contributor to their movement in the area. In this regard, many respondents believed that laying to rest a family member was something very sacred that should be shared only amongst close family and friends. It was also made clear that home burial was good because no one disturbed the peace of the dead.

4.5 Degree of security of Tenure for self-builders in UMzinyathi

4.5.1. Acquiring land for self- building in peri-urban areas

Land in peri-urban settings is informally subdivided to seekers for land into these areas. Thus, the rapid upsurge in informal subdivisions of customary land in peri-urban areas of most developing countries seems unending. According to Keivan and Werna (2001), the original custodians of the land (tribal leaders) subdivide and allocate land to desiring households who in turn offer some form of small payment as a gift and receive a receipt declaring permission to occupy through leasehold. One respondent said:

> … what we know about acquiring land in uMzinyathi is often based on talks among neighbours and between mutual friends. For instance, it does happen that parents die, or a woman is left by her husband or an elderly who no longer has children who can inherit such a big plot of land which they offer to sell instead. I am referring to the very first occupants of the area; it is they who subdivided sections of their land on their sites. It is not because you have gone to the Qadi office to ask for a plot. The community subdivides amongst themselves if there is adequate space to consider selling to someone else. You can then go to the Qadi office with the person who has sold the plot to you, so now you can start a process of transferring the plot. The headsmen of the Chief then take both of you to go identify the areas so it can be legally subdivided by the Chief's office. The division is often undertaken using izintaluka or izikhonkwene for the sections of the land that is being sold. Thereafter, ceremonies that are not similar to the township ones will be done under the Chief when they are about to place the new buyer on their plot (Respondent 4, Male).

The perception of 'ownership' of the subdivided plot of land amongst the interviewed participants remained prominent. Participants shared common perception pertaining to how land is acquired in uMzinyathi. This process was often through 'word of mouth' among neighbours, a mutual friend, and extended family members. Participants also referred to this is

an 'open secret' that most community members knew about when it comes to acquiring land plots in the area. The process begins informal as a verbal agreement between the set buyer and the seller, and it is later officialised through the existing traditional council in uMzinyathi that is also considered as an unconventional structure of governance. There are no standard titles of ownership that participants possess, but were given receipts as proof of ownership.

4.6 Involvement of peri-urban dwellers in planning, design, and the construction of own housing

Turner's 'self-help' in housing theory accentuated people's right and capacity to participate in the decision-making and housing process concerning the planning, design, construction, and overall management of their own housing (Turner and Fichter, 1972; Harris, 2003). Thus, this essentially meant that through self-build, households (homeowners) do not merely invest their sweat equity in housing development, but similarly devote methods of planning, design, and management of their homes fundamentally for the effective enhancement of individual and social wellbeing (Harris, 2003). Based on the research findings most of the responses shared by the interviewed respondents were in line with Turner's notion of dweller control of their own self-build housing process.

4.6.1.   Housing procurement strategies in the self-build housing process

According to Alagbe and Opoko (2013) self-build refers to the construction of a fixed housing structure by the homeowner from inception to completion instead of hiring a professional consultant or developer to undertake the whole building project on the owner's behalf. In some cases, it may be undertaken collectively, where the owner decides to delegate some physical building responsibility to a local builder, subcontractor or package company (Alagbe and Opoko, 2013). When asked about the delivery or procurement strategy that respondents had followed in the construction of their houses, sentiments around the hiring a local builder whilst remaining as the key decision maker was shared. A majority of the respondents had also indicated that they did not possess the necessary building skills to have done the construction alone without any assistance. The excerpts below captured their sentiments:

One of the participants stated:

> We built two of these houses in the yard ourselves that we first occupied while we saved for building a
> bigger house. We stayed there for quite some time prior to building this main house (pointing to the

direction of the house). I then hired a local builder to assist us in constructing the house and it has taken us almost five years to complete. But a few more finishing and touches are still to be done (Respondent 5).

While another participant indicated:

We hired a builder because we do not have anyone who has those skills here at home. However, that was not the only builder, because the first one messed up everything…he really failed to do the job and left after he had been paid. We then looked for a second one and the house was demolished and reconstructed. However, this builder as well had challenges with the roof…He placed it in a way that we did not like. It had to be stripped again and we looked for another person to do it and we got one from around here who finally did an exceptional job (Respondent 7).

This shows that participants had absolute control in the overall housing production process, as they made the decisions pertaining to the design, who worked the structure and who ought to be removed. This was consistent with Algabe and Opoko perceptions that self-build enables households to partake in decision-making at virtually any stage of the project and with that can improve their overall individual and social well-being (Algabe and Opoko, 2013). Most of the respondents had at least a minimum of three self-built housing units on site, where the first house (relatively small) was built for immediate occupation while they waited for their main house to be constructed.

This trend was common among the interviewees. In addition, the shared sentiments by respondents also indicated how the self-build housing process allowed an opportunity for most of them to build incrementally in accordance with their means. Furthermore, though participants were not actively involved in building the structure of their houses, they still maintained a distinct level of control through what Duncan and Rowe (1993) refer to as 'white collar' sweat equity. Tasks such as obtaining land, arranging finance, buying building materials, arranging deliveries, organising development process, and on-site management were some of the things participants had to do.

4.6.2. Effects of the cost of building materials on successful completion of the house

The quality and choice of building materials remain a crucial component of any housing procurement system. According to Gough (1996) accessibility of building materials is a common constraint in developing countries, as the high costs of some these materials often restrict the ability for the poor to partake in owner-built housing production processes. Participants were asked about some of the effects of the cost of building materials had on the

swift completion of their houses. Respondents shed some light on some of their insights and experiences as follows:

One participant alluded:

> It has had a huge impact, I do not know if I may say…a lot of money has been spent…for instance, money that has been spent thus far in building this house is around R40 000, and that is inclusive of everything but excluding the roof. Trucks bringing stones, cement, blocks…just everything also sand, you name it! Has made the process take longer for us to finish (Respondents 6).

Another participant said:

> Yes, it did very much so actually. Our house might be as big as most homes that are built here but I can say so much money was spent on building materials. This was because some of the materials had been stolen from our site. So having to replace them was a bit of challenge since that meant we had to save more money and this delayed the project a lot. But living here emaQadini we never felt pressured to complete the house quickly. We worked at our own pace and most importantly within our means as a family (Respondent 5).

Therefore, though self-build is acknowledged as a viable and cost-effective approach to housing. It was still found to be somewhat costly for respondents. However, no pressure was put on households to speed up the process, thus it afforded the opportunity and sufficient time to find other alternative ways of making money and saving adequately for the process. These findings also resonate with Duncan and Rowe's (1993) perception on self-build white collar sweat-equity assumed by households that though they are not actively involved in building the actual structure of their houses, they still maintained a distinct level of control of the housing process.

4.6.3. Financial strategies to support self-build housing production

Financial means that respondents possessed played a critical role in the efficient functioning and life cycle of their housing project. Finances influence the design of how the product will look like, the type of building materials used, and the management of the development process. Participants considered arranging and choosing appropriate financial strategies to support the overall cost of building very important. When asked about which approach they used to support the building costs, respondents shared some common insights as indicated in **Table 4.4** below.

Table 4.4: Financial methods used by respondents to cover building costs

Funding Method		Number	Percentage (%)
Self-funded	Savings	14	87
	Remittances	1	6
Lay-by agreements with companies	Pay installments	1	6
Bonded financing (Bank and other institutions)	Loans	0	0
Total		**16**	**100**

The findings presented in **Table 4.4** indicated that of the 16 interviewed participants 14 said their building costs were supported through self-funds that has been saved for the project. Whereas, one participant said they self-funded but through remittances that were being set back home. Another one claimed to have had lay-bye agreements with companies where they had to pay for products in monthly installments.

No respondents indicated the use of any bonded financing through accessing loans to the building costs. However, as the projects proceeded some respondents indicated the use of both savings and lay-byes for some of the building material was slight costly for them. Some expressed different views of their savings and how that was a major source of finance for housing projects. The views are summarised below.

One participant stated that:

> The building was financed through our own savings that we had put away over the years, however, we did lay-by some building materials from local building companies here (Respondent 5)

Another participant said:

> …since I was laid-off at work, I received some money…because I was working at a pharmacy in Springfield park at the time. I had then decided to use that little money I got to start building the house, but as you can see I have stopped construction for a while up until I can find more money to continue with the project (Respondent 6)

Whereas, one other participant said:

> My sister would send money back home, and we were saving bit by bit. She would continuously send it and I would keep it every time she did until it was enough for us

to go buy building materials that would be sufficient for the house plan we had initially (Respondent 7).

Self-funding through savings was a common financial strategy amongst the interviewees to support their self-build housing production process. This was mainly because they felt that other funding methods were contract binding, and participants might not have adequate financial means to do repayments as required by loans and lay-byes. So using already available financial capital to kick-start the housing project gave them an option to do it gradually and in line to what they could afford. However, this is also not the ideal option as people end up having little to no life savings for themselves and their families. Thus, if any issue or emergencies such as death and education occurs they might not possess adequate financial means to efficiently tackle and resolve it.

4.6.4 Dweller satisfaction with the outcome of the housing product

According to Turner and Fichter (1972), key aspects such as sweaty equity, human satisfaction and/or frustrations relating to housing cannot be measured similarly to other material or physical characteristics of houses. Thus, the value that the owner possesses of a house is inextricably connected to the level of control they have in the construction process of their homes, though the homeowner might not necessarily partake in actual physical construction (Turner and Fichter, 1972). The research findings did concur with the latter sentiments by Turner and Fichter (1972). When asked whether they were satisfied with the outcome of their housing products, all of them agreed to have been very satisfied, though the houses were still not completely finished and needed slightly finishes.

One participant expressed their satisfaction by stating:

> I am very satisfied with how our house turned out, it actually looks better than I thought it would since we changed the design that we originally had. I love that freshness it brings to me whenever I enter through that door *pointing at the door and smiling* and since we are a big family, it is big enough for the whole family …We can even sit around a dining table now as a family and have dinner, something that was impossible to do in our previous house. However, it took longer to complete but yes, we are very satisfied (Respondent 16).

Another participant said:

> Yes, it is all right. This is how we initially wanted it to be built. The only thing that is left is to fence the yard and to construct outside buildings for the boys. We also need to fix the yard as it sometimes gets muddy when it rains and also fix that toilet *point at Ventilated Improved Pit (VIP) toilet outside*

because as much as we do have flushed toilets inside the house they still cannot be used as there is no water (Respondent 7).

The satisfaction ran across all participants who were interviewed. Some respondents expressed the intentions to improve and extended the house to form big mansions as with some of the houses in the area. For other participants, satisfaction was there despite the fact that their houses were still in the process of being completed. Some houses had completed top structures but were missing roofs, and others were finished but still required to be painted outside.

4.6.5 Building standards and regulation of self-building in peripheral areas

When participants were asked if there were any building standard or regulation that were enforced on them pertaining to self-building in uMzinyathi. There were common sentiments amongst the respondents who were interviewed, though others did suggest that there were partial standards set by the tradition council, though they are not as prominent as one would find on the conventional market.

One respondent indicated that:

No, we have never been given any rules that suggest that…if you buy land today you have to build within this time…no they did not do any of that. We just paid the woman who was selling the site to us, and then we came back in our own time to start building…no one pressured us (Respondent 7)

However, another participant said:

Well yes, it does partially exist but it is not something that you are pressured within these areas. For example, people in taxis often joke about this and say 'if you buy a site in uMzinyathi you are not allowed to put up a housing structure made out of clay or mud'. And this comes as a shock to some like…*laughing* no shame, no pressure is put on anyone in that regard. But usually, iNkosi wishes for emaQadini to also shine as well built up area. So that even for those who might not necessarily have big houses can also show that they have a vision and a desire to build like other people in the area. Four months ago I heard that this section of uMzintathi is called 'Umhlanga' and the other part just across the main road is called something related to a township (Respondent 4, Male).

In light of the latter, self-building in uMzinyathi has resulted in social stratification where people of a certain class and/or status quo within the community are thought to be better because of the modern style and big size their houses that are often associated with prestigious sub-urban areas such as Umhlanga. Thus, some people wish to have similar houses and they hope it will enviably upgrade them to the same class or status. However, for some people is

out of reach, as they do not have the means to live the same lifestyle. As a result, envy and surging conflicts among the new and indigenous residents of uMzinyathi are common.

4.7 Motivation and benefits of self-building in uMzinyathi

There was a common consensus amongst respondents in relation to the motivation and benefits that come with self-building in an area like uMzinyathi. The study found that motivation to self-build was ignited by the desire to own a house big enough to accommodate all family members and unaffordability of conventional housing markets.

> I would say it is mainly because we all wanted to stay together as a family, so we needed to build a house…or rather houses that will accommodate those needs, as you see with the other two there (Respondent 6).

> We need a home...we could not afford to take out a loan or a bond for a house nor did we have the money to rent a house owned by someone else especially in the city. That was never an option for us, as we really did not have money. We needed something cheap that will not pressure us to make any monthly payments into someone's pocket (Respondent 5).

It further founded that the incremental building process is attached to self-build was a major motivator and benefit shared my respondents in building their own houses, at their own pace and gradually improve them as time went on. This was in line with Turner's perception that if people are given 'freedom to build', the standard physical features of most self-built homes ought to improve over time through the gradual or incremental processes of upgrading (Harris, 2003; Turner and Fichter, 1972). One participant said:

> Building at our own pace, yes. That is the nice thing about it here because even if you were to start it at this size and if you see that you do not have the means, you will go find someone to do a plan for you…there is a plan for this house. Then you can go tell the builder how you want it done and the builder does the whole foundation then progressively goes up room-by-room. That is exactly what we love, as there is no person following around, you just do it at your own pace (Respondent 3).

The desire to leave an inheritance for children and cost-effectiveness of the process were also great motivating factor amongst respondents. Particularly for those who could not afford to buy or rent in the formal housing market as it was considered expensive. The opportunity to negotiate lower prices for building materials including labour was also identified as a major contributor in the decision to self-build.

One participant said:

> Well, it is that even if we were to die now our children are left with a home that is not indebted, unlike paying for a house…the bond! (Respondent 4, Male).

While another stated:

> Well, we chose to self-build because it is cheaper than getting a bond that you will have to pay for long into 20 years, you stay indebted… it becomes a very expensive exercise. So I would rather build all are once but also be able to save money for other things (Respondent 16)

For most participants, having a place to call home for their children and extended family was a critical factor that contributed to them self-building a house that will suite their needs. The intention was for children to inherent a house that is already paid-up, and not to worry about expensive bond payments that children cannot even afford when the parents have died.

4.7.1   Challenges of self-building

When asked about the challenges that respondents encountered through the self-build housing process. Much was said about builders charging ridiculous amounts of money for their labour while some did not live up to the household's expectations. Furthermore, respondents also shared insights on the level of dishonesty some of the builders had of which was not good for their working relationship. Others expressed great challenges pertaining to not having adequate money to invest in the cost of building, particularly for those respondents who had not fully finished the houses, as they required a few more finishes in order to be completed. Below are some poignant views. One respondent said:

> For us, I would say it was the builders, the first one left with R 28 000, he had built rubbish and we could not get him anymore when we looked for him. The person who was installing tiles had put half and ran away to work somewhere else and this is until we got another one to finish-off who had been working with the previous builder and we paid him for the job. Otherwise, everything else has been good (Respondent 7).

While another indicated that:

> Builders are not honest, at times you find that a builder is not building only your house maybe he is building other houses that are more than five and the at the same time. When there is material being delivered here…we did not have anyone to guard the site when we not there. As the material is delivered for construction to be continued the next day, the builder would make excuses for not being able to come, while he is busy building somewhere else. That gave us a challenge to the extent that some people ended up stealing some of the material (Respondent 4, Male)

4.7.2 Future plans for moving?

When asked if they had any future plans of leaving uMzinyathi, the participants indicated that they had no intention to move out of the area and further expressed feelings of contentment and happiness about being there. Other respondents expressed that maybe it would be their children who might want to leave for the city. One respondent said:

> This place has been so good to us; the community has been amazing we have made friends with our neighbours. It is very peaceful and developing quite fast as well. The space we occupy is big enough to plant on, and also bury our loved ones who I would not want to leave behind. It is very close to the city as well, which is good for most people who travel for work there every day. Unless of course our children decide otherwise and move to other areas, but other than that we are now settled here (Respondent 5).

For most participants, uMzinyathi is home now and see no better place to raise their children and build a comfortable life for their family. The land they occupy is large enough to suit their basic needs such as shelter, food gardens, it is within close proximity to the city, and it allows for home burial for family. This is something that other places (as indicated on page 59, line 4 of paragraph 1) where participants originate from might have not necessarily been able to provide. Participants also further expressed that their children are most likely to be the ones who move to other areas in the city, but the elders in the family have now settled in uMzinyathi. There was a great sense of ownership and contentment with the self-building housing process expressed by most participants, which is good.

4.8 Traditional Council of Qadi's insights on rapid Self-Building in uMzinyathi.

Due to the rapid outward expansion of large metropolises into adjacent rural settings and the reclassification of these settlements into peri-urban has formed a complex relationship of governance. Peri-urban areas are distinctly governed under dual governance of traditional and local municipal authorities. Traditional authorities have been recognized as a true custodian of the land, while local municipal authority's area seen as only providers of basic infrastructural services in these landscapes. Thus, it was only fitting to get perceptions of the traditional council of Qadi pertaining to the rapid densification and housing development within their area (Focus group, respondent 6, Male).

Based on the research findings the role of the traditional council in the self-build housing process was to subdivide and allocate land to individuals who wish to reside in the area. Those individuals were expected to make payments towards for the plot of land that was allocated to

them. The traditional council referred to the payments as a 'khonza fee' that differs in rates. People who were residents of uMzinyathi were charged R 450 for a single plot of land. Whereas, new residents to the area were charged an amount of R1 500 for a single subdivision of land. This was done to avoid double costing those who had already paid their fair share of a large fee (Focus group, respondent 5, Male).

When asked about factors attract people to uMzinyathi, the traditional council had indicated that it was because of the rapid development currently prevailing in the area. Other factors were that uMzinyathi is close to the city, thus it allowed people to have more easy access to it. Since the majority of people in uMzinyathi are from the Shembe religion, many people yearn to move closer to Ebuhleni the Nazareth place of worship located in uMzinyathi. In addition, the desire to be close to and led by a tribal leader had been identified as one of the motivating factors as well. Moreover, based on the research findings since uMzinyathi is the tribal area is administered under a Chief, no member of the community can own the land. Rather the only accessible tenure system for residents was the lease agreement, of which residents had to make a tenure application for through Ingonyama Trust Board. The lease agreements are renewable and their minimum term is 2 years, whereas the long-term lease is for 99 years and renewable (Focus group, respondent 3, Male).

Concerning the process of gaining land, the traditional council shared the same sentiments as the interviewees. The person must find someone in the community who is willing to sell a section of the land and thereafter make their way to the Qadi traditional courts for its formalization, and if there is no person that one can speak to in this regard they are encouraged to communicate to izinduna (headsmen) who will provide direction. The findings also found that there are partial conditions that are enforced by the traditional council to those who self-building in the area. Self-builders are not allowed to build any housing structure using mud but, only modern building materials ought to be used. This has changed the housing typologies in the area. Before anyone starts building, a proposed building plan is shown to the traditional council. This serves to confirm and ensure that there are no future plans for that council to put up roads, or no roads or pathways run through the subdivided site and to see the type of housing being built (Focus group, respondent 1 and 4, Males)

The rapid densification of uMzinyathi has perpetuated the growing demand for the efficient provision of basic services particularly water and sanitation. People continue to find other alternative ways to bridge this gap, which has been through building their own septic tanks for

sanitation purposes and purchasing JoJo tanks to store water. Furthermore, other infrastructural amenities such as tarred roads, community hall or multipurpose hall, crèche for children and an agricultural school are some of the major demands that are still yet to be meet in uMzinyathi. In addition, taverns, cottage developments, and rentals are forbidden in the area. The establishment of Mall is also not needed because uMzinyathi is close to the city so people can always travel there for socio-economic needs and opportunities (Focus group, respondent 1).

4.9 Assessment of building materials used

The assessment of building materials used for any self-build housing process is important. Choosing the right quality of materials does not only provide good aesthetic appeal of the structure, but it reflects the character of the owner as well. The use of quality modern materials can enhance structural resilience to extreme weather conditions, cost-efficient and ensure high levels of satisfaction with the outcome of the house. The use of modern materials for house construction was common amongst participants.

In light of the latter, **Table 4.5** below illustrates the types of materials used by participants in uMzinyathi. 15 of the respondents had tiled roofing that was very common in the majority of housing structures, whereas Asbestos roofing only accounted for 1 of the respondents. Participants did not use other common roofing materials such as Zinc and Polyester. The most common exterior wall materials consisted of concrete blocks at 13 of which majority of the respondent is used, clay bricks only accounted for 1 of usage, while 2 of the respondents left their houses external wall plastered. Aluminum windows accounted for 14 of use by respondents, while casement windows only accounted for 2 of usage by respondents. Interviewees did not use any wooden windows. For main doors, 9 of respondents used aluminum doors, while 6 of the respondents chose wooden/timber doors, and only 1 of the respondents used Glass doors. The materials that have been used give the self-built houses as a modern sense that is durable and resilient.

Table 4.5: Types of building materials used in uMzinyathi

Variables		uMzinyathi Households
		N =16
Roof	Clay or Concrete Tiles	15
	Asbestos Cement	1
	Zinc	0
	Polyester	0
	Other	0
Exterior Wall	Concrete Blocks	13
	Clay bricks	1
	Plastered	2
	Other	0
Windows	Aluminum	14
	Casement	2
	Wood/Timber	0
	Other	0
Main Doors (front and back)	Aluminum	9
	Wood/Timber	6
	Glass	1
	Other	0

Source: Researcher (2018)

This was different from the unconventional practice of building houses using locally sourced natural materials (see. **Image 4.2**) from the environment such as earth, mud, thatch, stones amongst other resources. This typology of houses has changed a lot over the years as most households choose more conventional and modern approaches in self-building their houses.

Image 4.2.: Traditional housing (umuzi) typology

Sources: Researcher (2018)

Through repeated observation, it was found that the new forms of housing typologies had emerged in the study area where most of them are characterised by modern design and use the of manufactured building materials. Some houses were already built and completed while others were still in the construction phase of the development process (see. **Image 4.3**).

Image 4.3.: Modern housing typology
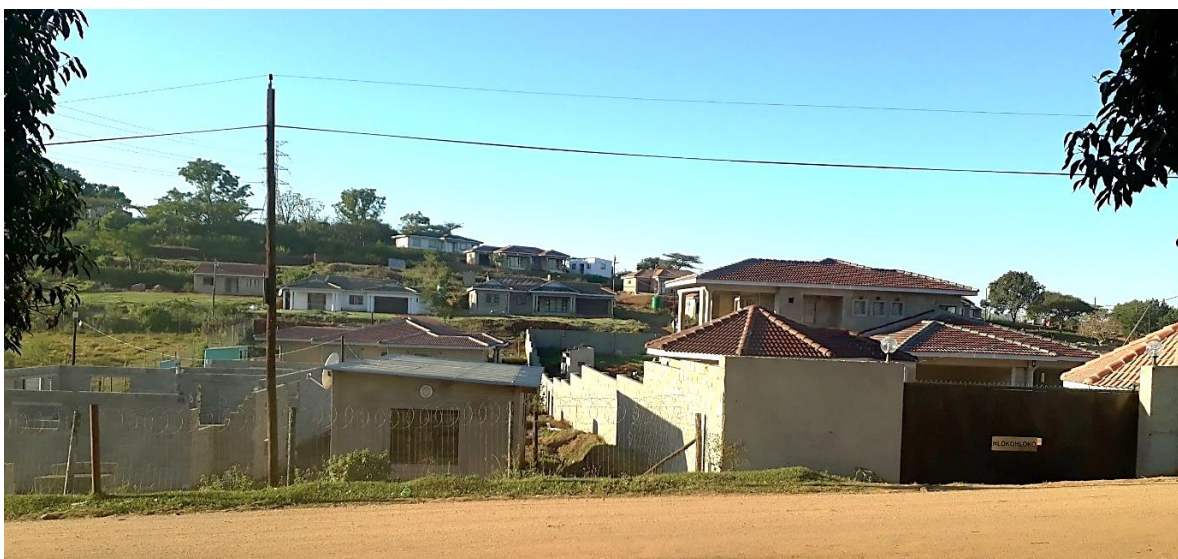
Source: Researcher (2018)

Image 4.4 below illustrates the typology of housing the people build now in peri-urban areas such as uMzinyathi, of which through observation and comparison to houses in an urban area it could also be just as much considered 'formal' than 'informal'.

Image 4.4.: Modern competed houses

The most common approach amongst peri-urban dwellers in uMizninyathi was to first build a one or two bedroomed house on their site and immediately occupy it while they wait for their actual big house to be consolidated, instead of renting elsewhere or squatting with relatives or friends. These small temporary houses would be made of timber (wendy house). Green Jojo tanks are used to store water of which allows easy accessibility for construction purposes specifically with those households that do not have water supply. As a security measure, some households fence their plots since during construction some building materials are stolen and to keep the cattle away from grazing the gardens. see. **Image 4.5**.

Image 4.5.: Awaiting house consolidation: timber 'Wendy' house

Sources: Researcher (2018)

Image 4.6 shows another housing typology built and occupied by residents while they wait for the permanent house to be finished to their satisfaction before occupation. Some households preferred to build temporary structures for immediate occupation using bricks. House 1 represents the temporary structure and house 2 is the actual permanent structure in which the household will occupy after all construction and finishes are completed.

Image 4.6.: Awaiting house consolidation: brick house

Sources: Researcher (2018)

4.10 Conclusion

This section of the chapter presented the findings and analysed data using the objectives of the study outlined in Chapter 1 as preliminary themes. Additional coded subthemes under the objectives provided an appropriate guide to arrange that data in a coherent manner. The data collected from key respondents through in-depth interviews proved to be very rich and detailed enough to address the main research questions of the study. This section discussed the demographic characteristics of households; factors that influence the movement of the two peri-urban areas were discussed; the degree of control and participation by dwellers in the self-build housing production process; and motivations for and benefits of self-building; including the type and degree of tenure self-builders possess. An additional insight into the traditional council of Qadi in uMzinyathi was also presented and analysed. Lastly, an assessment of building materials used in uMzinyathi was also discussions. Recommendations will be made in the next chapter using the presented findings and discussions.

CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction:

This chapter presents conclusions and recommendations based on the research findings of the study. It captures key themes emerging from the study, literature and theoretical embeddedness of key findings. This section first provides a summary of the main findings that address the objectives for the study, and it further discusses the recommendations and a conclusion.

5.2 Summary of the main findings

5.2.1. Factors influencing the rapid movement of people into urban peripheries

Peri-urban areas are rapidly densifying and transitioning spatially and socio-economically. This hasty transformation has perpetuated the swift movement of people into peri-urban settings in response to the urban push of unaffordable and inaccessible housing markets, and expensive land markets for housing development. Various factors of development informed the rapid movement of large segments of the population. Based on the findings of the study, driving factors consisted of rapid development in the area;

- Proximity to the city
- Access to affordable transportation systems
- Access to cheaper basic services (water, electricity, and sanitation)
- Access to affordable land and housing markets
- Freedom to build
- Close proximity to Ebuhleni
- Desire to be led by tribal leader/s

The above-stated factors proved to be the most common sentiment amongst respondents including the traditional council. However, access to cheap basic services was another major attraction to uMzinyathi. The unprecedented settlements patterns that prevailed in the area made it difficult for basic services to the extended into some sections of the community. In addition, land markets were affordable and mainly for housing development which ranged between R450 –R1500 per land subdivision. For most of the respondents, it was also the desire to be led by tribal leader/s and to be close to Ebuhleni the Nazareth (Shembe) place of worship.

Distinct features that are inextricably linked underpin rural and urban relations. Thus, the spatial and socio-economic formation of peri-urban areas inevitably resembles the dynamic features of both rural and urban settlements. This means that the urban and rural 'push-pull'

factors have an absolute direct effect on the sustained socio-economic growth and development of peri-urban settlements which counter similar 'push-pull' elements to and from urban-rural landscapes. **Figure 5.1** below illustrates common factors that influence the rapid movement of people into urban peripheries.

Figure 5.1: 'Push-Pull' forces between urban-rural settings and their peri-urban frontiers

Pull Factors

- Access to urban infrastructure and amenities
- Better education and skills
- Recreation
- Employment opportunities
- Access to social capital /networks (information and opportunities)
- High incomes
- Better healthcare facilities
- Better transportation systems
- Socio-economic stability
- Better standard of living

Push Factors

- Environmental Degradation
- Limited economic opportunities
- Poor standard of living
- Unemployment
- Land inheritance politics
- Political instability (growth in refugee flows)
- Poor infrastructure and service delivery
- Poor or inadequate healthcare facilities

Direct Pull

Direct Push

Direct Push

URBAN ⬌ PERI-URBAN ⬌ RURAL

Direct Push

Direct Pull

Push Factors

- Expensive housing and land markets
- Regulated and restrictive land-use including building standards
- Limited space to accommodate growth of household occupants
- Lack of security of tenure
- Congestion / Traffic
- High Crime Rates
- Lack of Job Security
- Family (Kinship) Feuds
- Pollution
- Limited economic opportunities

Pull Factors

- Housing and Land accessibility and affordability
- Unregulated Land-Use and
- Rural land tenure
- No Taxes or Rates to be paid
- Access to infrastructure & cheap basic services (water, sanitation & electricity)
- Lower crime rates
- Low stress rural lifestyle
- Home burial for all loved ones
- Close proximity to the urban-core
- Access to transportation systems
- Socio-cultural structures

Source: Researcher (2018)

5.2.2.   The degree of control and participation by dwellers in the self-build housing production process

The degree of control and participation in the housing production process by homeowners remains questionable. However, based on the research findings self-builders participated and possessed a great deal of control over the housing production process. Shared perceptions by participants as self-builders knew what they want and how they wanted it to be done in order for their needs to be profusely attained. Though households did not necessarily partake in the actual physical construction of their houses, their contribution was more of 'white collar' sweaty equity of which included taking over responsibility of tasks such obtaining land, arranging finances, buying building materials, arranging deliveries, organising development process, and on-site management were some of the respondents had expressed that they had to assume instead.

Furthermore, the costs of building materials were seen to have a major effect on the successful completion of most households. Though households build in accordance with their means, findings suggest that some households who are self-building tend to go above those means. Where some households even consider self-building to be expensive. This showed that people failed to do adequate research relating to self-building processes prior to starting their housing projects. Most self-building projects were self-funded through savings of homeowners, and other financial methods of support such as remittances and lay-bye agreements were very minimal. No bonded financing (loans) was used to support any of the housing building it was unfavourable for homeowners as it levels the highly indebted.

Deep gratitude and satisfaction were expressed with the outcome of the housing product, though some houses were still in the process of completion and needed slight finishes. Some respondents indicated intentions to gradually improve their houses over time through extension processes. Moreover, self-building in peri-urban areas has been partially regulated by the traditional council who want to see proposed building plans for the house/s prior to any construction. As the development of mud housing structures, taverns, and cottage rental housing are all forbidden. But households are not pressured in a way by this process to complete their housing projects quickly, as they build at their own pace.

5.2.3.   Motivation for and benefits of self-building in uMzinyathi

Unaffordable housing markets are the major driver to the decision made by households to self-build. Self-building is ignited by the desire for homeownership of a house that satisfies all household's needs. This is to build a house that is big enough to accommodate all family members. Households often cannot afford to participate in the conventional housing market as it is too expensive. Furthermore, the self-build approach allows households to build incrementally at their own pace and if it needs to improve the quality over time. The approach was considered cost-effective, however, some respondents felt that this might not always be the case particularly when it comes to the costs of building materials. It affords an opportunity for households to negotiate for lower prices in building costs and labour. Another motivator was the desire to leave an inheritance for children, which explains why some households have more than 2 houses in the same yard.

The self-build approach also has its own challenges. Builders have a tendency of charging ridiculous amounts of money for their labour, while some fail to deliver on the expected outcome for homeowners. Respondents shared insights on the dishonesty of some builders where they build for multiple households at the same time and are an instance where building materials have been stolen to be used on another housing project. Lack of financial means to continue with the project is another major challenge particularly for those who have not completed their house.

5.2.4.   Security of Tenure for self-builders in UMzinyathi

Based on the research findings, land in peri-urban landscapes land on rural or peri-urban landscapes cannot be 'owned' as it is a tribal area but rather it can be leased out to households who wish to be part of the larger community. The lease agreement tenure option ranges from two years to 99 years' renewable. Thus, self-builders do not own but lease the land. The land is divided and allocated by the rightful custodians of the land being tribal leaders (traditional council) to any of its seekers, a 'khonza fee' is paid and the person can start building. The process of gaining access to land is not conventional at all.

The seeker must find someone in the community who is willing to sell a section of the land and thereafter make their way to the Qadi traditional courts for its formalization. If there is no person that one can speak to in this that regard people are encouraged to communicate with izinduna (headsmen) who will provide clear direction. Furthermore, majority had no intention to leave the study area due to good social ties that have been created with the neighbours and

the overall community. While it was also expressed that if issues with water and fixing of roads are not done than they might just consider moving to other areas.

5.3 Synopsis of the findings

The study's findings do confirm that there is rapid movement of people into uMzinyathi, where the structure of its settlements is experiencing hasty transition and housing development through self-build housing processes in uMzinyathi. Various factors such as the development of the settlement's proximity to the city, affordable land and housing markets, access to affordable transportation systems, closeness to Ebuhleni and Tribal leaders, including access to affordable basic services are major driving factors that attract people to the area. In light of the latter, it can be concluded that these factors inform people's movement to peri-urban areas.

However, parts of some sections of the area lack basic services such as water and sanitation, of which people have to find an alternative way to deal with inadequate supply through the installment of JoJo tanks and building their own septic tanks. Thus, as the settlement grows rapidly local municipal authorities grapple to meet the growing demand as they often lack capacity and awkwardly divided plots of land.

The self –build housing approach continues to be a predominant mode of housing production amongst residents of uMzinyathi. This approach does provide an opportunity for self-builders (households) to control and participate in the building process of their houses. Though not participating in actual physical construction, to a large extent self-builders are prominent decision-makers in relation to the design, planning and overall management of the development process. Majority of the interviewees preferred to use modern building materials for the construction of their houses either than locally sourced traditional materials used in medieval self-built homes. Thus, it can be concluded that self-building is a pragmatic approach to accessing affordable housing for people who have moved to uMzinyathi.

In addition, it can be said that building costs are a common challenge amongst self-builders, which inversely affected the successful completion of most houses within intended periods. The findings of the study can also confirm that self-build housing projects are commonly self-funded by the homeowner through savings. Households are satisfied with the outcome of the housing product though some houses are still yet to be completed. It can be confirmed that the self-build process is partially regulated in peri-urban areas; however, this does not put any pressure on the household to fast track the building process.

Based on the research findings it can be concluded that motivating factors and benefits of self-building are informed by the desire for homeownership, incremental building and cost-effectiveness of the approach; affords an opportunity to negotiate for lower prices, including inheritance patterns. In addition, some local builders are not skilled but expensive; builders in some instances are not loyal and honest with their clients. Lack of financial means to continue complete building is a major challenge for self-builders.

Findings also confirm that land cannot be owned but rather leased to the household in peri-urban areas, as the tribal leader are the true custodians of the land in these areas. Those who seek to purchase land, follow an unconventional process where one identifies and communicates community members who are willing to sell a section of their land thereafter you both proceed to the traditional council to legalize and formalized the agreement. The headsmen under the traditional council than divide and allocated land plots appropriately. Thus, given the findings of the study, it can be said that a self-build housing model is a pragmatic approach to house the urban poor in the peri-urban areas on the outskirts of cities.

5.4 Recommendations

Drawing from the above synopsis of findings, the following recommendations were made:

5.4.1.   Decongestion strategy

The study intends to inform further research to establish whether the same factors influence the rapid movement of people into peri-urban areas in other places nationally. This will help in better understanding the prevailing patterns of development within a given context of a specific area, factors that inform it, and how to ensure better management of the sprawling settlements defined by rapid residential growth within urban peripheries. In addition, understanding and acquiring such knowledge can also inform policy through establishing a form of decongestion strategy in cities at large. Thus, allowing policymakers including development and planning practitioners to efficiently plan around the decongestion strategy in order to ensure a safe, resilient, and efficient provision of housing including basic services such as water and sanitation that meet the needs of the people.

5.4.2.   Understanding the future development prospects of local municipalities

In light of the latter, it would be imperative for traditional authorities and other non-governmental organisations (NGO's) to be knowledgeable and understand the local municipalities' future prospects of development. This particularly relates to the extension and

efficient provision of bulk infrastructural services to peri-urban areas. This will not merely improve the conditions relating to the efficient provision basic services such as water and sanitation, but also the establishment of additional schools, community halls, and tarred roads amongst other growing demands within areas such as uMzinyathi.

5.4.3. Self-builders association

The findings confirm that self-builders (households) possess a prominent degree of control and participation in the building process of their houses. As key decision-makers in the design, planning, and overall management of the housing project/s, households still lack sufficient guidance and protection from unscrupulous builders and local contractors. Therefore, the establishment of a self-builders association by households in collaboration with the traditional authority and local government would be a good mitigating strategy. This will not only protect the rights of local self-builders but also create an enabling environment for them to participate openly in the housing market. Furthermore, the formation of such associations can reduce challenges relating to hiring unskilled builders who fail to meet the desired outcome/s of the households. Moreover, keep and share a list of all aspiring and professional local builders with households who aspire to build. This will avoid homeowners going around scouting for people who might even possess the building skills but who just want money.

5.4.4. Availability of development finance or credit

Money saved and building materials collected by households can provide a good base for self-building houses. However, research findings confirm that most households are unable to raise adequate credit or finance to invest in the housing process. Often, life savings and loans from other family members are common methods to obtain building finance for most of the households. In this regard, the study intends to inform the local government and private sector investment into the new emerging residential market of self-built houses in peri-urban areas.

Availability of credit can assist in purchasing quality building materials and cover costs for house construction, labour payments and changes in building plans that can be expensive. It allows people to have disposable income to save or use for other necessities. In turn, this can motivate more people to self-build houses that meet their needs, rather than waiting for houses to be provided to them by the government that often unsatisfactory.

5.4.5. Develop capacity and knowledge

Households are not well equipped with adequate knowledge and capacity to undertake planning, design, financing, and efficient execution of house construction. This research envisages to inform and encourage support in establishing capacity building and skills enhancements programs particularly for local communities where self-building has become a common approach to accessing housing. Stakeholders such as the provincial or local government, Academia, Non-Governmental Organisations, including Community-Based Organisation support through facilitating initiatives to develop household skills and knowledge relating to self-building their own homes. In turn, this will enhance and ensure better management of risks and challenges encountered during and after the building process.

5.5 Conclusion

This chapter presented a synopsis to the main findings, recommendations and conclusion to the research findings of the study. The study found that people's rapid movement into peri-urban areas like uMzinyathi is influenced by factors such as the areas proximity to the city; access to affordable transportation systems; access to cheaper basic services such as water; sanitation and electricity. Other factors include affordable land and housing markets; freedom to build; close proximity to eBuhleni; including the general desire of being led by a tribal leader for some.

Therefore, as the city expands and the population grows peri-urban areas continue to experience swift change and densification. Modern self-built housing typologies have emerged and modified the spatial layout of the area. However, challenges relating to inadequate finance or credit for house construction, unscrupulous labour and local contractors for building materials were common experience amongst most households. This research creates a platform for further research to establish whether other countries have experienced similar development trends within their urban peripheries.

Self-building houses has become more of a pragmatic model for residents in peri-urban areas. Thus, availing credit or finance, establishing self-build association/s, including developing skills and knowledge of households are critical components to ensure better management of the housing production process. Self-built housing is considered informal in peri-urban areas as it does not follow the standard regulations or by-laws. However, for peri-urban residents, it is a model that provides more than just shelter, but instead a home that meets their basic needs and desires.

5.6 References

Adedire, F. and Adegbile, M., 2018. Assessment of housing quality in Ibeju-Lekki peri-urban settlement, Lagos State, Nigeria. *Acta Structilia*, *25*(1), pp.126-151.

Adedire, F.M., Oduwaye, L. and Iweka, T., 2016. Drivers of Housing Development in Ibeju-Lekki, Lagos Peri-Urban Settlement. *International Journal of Innovative Research and Advance Studies*. 3(10), pp. 200 - 205

Adewale, J.G., 2005. Socio-economic factors associated with urban-rural migration in Nigeria: A case study of Oyo State, Nigeria. *Journal of Human Ecology*, 17(1), 13-16

Aduwo, B.E., Edewor, P. and Ibem, E.O., 2016. Urbanization and Housing for Low-Income Earners in Nigeria: A Review of Features, Challenges and Prospects. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences*, *7*(3S1), pp.347-357.

African Development Bank., 2012. Urbanization in Africa. [Online]. Available at: https://www.afdb.org/en/blogs/afdb-championing-inclusive-growth-across-africa/post/urbanization-in-africa-10143/ [Accessed: 07/10/2018]

Aguilar, A.G., Ward, P.M. and Smith Sr, C.B., 2003. Globalization, regional development, and mega-city expansion in Latin America: analyzing Mexico City's peri-urban hinterland. *Cities*, *20*(1), pp.3-21.

Alagbe, O.A. and Opoko, P.A., 2013. Housing Nigerian Urban Poor through Self-Build Housing Concept Using Compressed Stabilized Laterine Bricks. *International Journal of Research In Social Sciences*, *2*(4), pp.13-18.

Amoateng, P., Cobbinah, P.B. and Owusu-Adade, K., 2013. Managing physical development in peri-urban areas of Kumasi, Ghana: A case of Abuakwa. Journal of Urban and Environmental Engineering, 7(1), pp.96-109.

Appiah, D.O., Bugri, J.T., Forkuo, E.K. and Boateng, P.K., 2014. Determinants of peri-urbanization and land use change patterns in peri-urban Ghana. *Journal of Sustainable Development*, *7*(6), p.95.

Appiah, D.O., Bugri, J.T., Forkuo, E.K. and Boateng, P.K., 2014. Determinants of peri-urbanization and land use change patterns in peri-urban Ghana. *Journal of Sustainable Development*, *7*(6), p.95.

Attride-Stirling, J., 2001. Thematic networks: an analytic tool for qualitative research. Qualitative Research. 1(3). pp. 385-405

Benson, M., 2017. Self-building as a practice of homemaking: The affective spaces of unfinished homes. In Benson M. & Hamiduddin I. (Eds.), *Self-Build Homes: Social Discourse, Experiences and Directions*. London: UCL Press. pp. 141-156

Benson, M. and Hamiduddin, I. eds., 2017. *Self-Build Homes: Social Discourse, Experiences and Directions*. UCL Press. Available at: http://discovery.ucl.ac.uk/10038399/1/Self-Build-Homes.pdf [Accessed: 19/10/2018]

Berdegué, J.A. and Proctor, F.J., 2014. *Cities in the rural transformation* (no. 122). Working paper series. Available at: https://rimisp.org/wpcontent/files_mf/1422296227Citiesintheruraltransformation_edited.pdf [Accessed: 16/10/2017]

Bloom D.E, Canning D, Fink G., 2008. *Urbanisation and the wealth nations*. Science AAAS 319 (5864).

Boeiji, H.2010. *Analysis in Qualitative Research*. Sage, pp 1-240

Braun, V. and Clarke, V., 2006. Using thematic analysis in psychology. *Qualitative research in psychology*, *3*(2), pp.77-101.

Bredenoord, J. and van Lindert, P., 2010. Pro-poor housing policies: rethinking the potential of assisted self-help housing. *Habitat International*, *34*(3), pp.278-287.

Brown, D.L. and Wardwell, J.M. eds., 2013. *New directions in urban–rural migration: the population turnaround in rural America*. Elsevier.

Brown, R., 2008. Designing differently: the self-build home. *Journal of Design History*, *21*(4), pp.359-370

Burns, L., 1983. Self-help Housing: An Evaluation of Outcomes. *Urban Studies, 20*(3), pp.299-309. Available at: http://www.jstor.org/stable/43082629 [Accessed on; 20/10/2017]

Burns, L., & Shoup, D., 1981. Effects of Resident Control and Ownership in Self-Help Housing. *Land Economics, 57*(1), 106-114

Choy, D. L and Sutherland, C., 2008. A changing peri-urban demographic landscape, *Australian Planner*, 45, No. 3, pp. 24-25

Chulu, J., 2016. Specific Development Theories: A Case for Rural-Urban Disparities.

Cobbinah, P.B., Erdiaw-Kwasie, M.O. and Amoateng, P., 2015. Africa's urbanisation: Implications for sustainable development. *Cities*, *47*, pp.62-72.

Cohen, B., 2006. Urbanization in developing countries: Current trends, future projections, and key challenges for sustainability. *Technology in society*, *28*(1-2), pp.63-80.

Creswell, J.W., 2003. *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches*. Sage.

Creswell, J.W., 2007. *Qualitative Inquiry and Research design: Choosing among five approaches*. 2nd Ed. United Nations: Sage

Denzin, N.K. and Lincoln, Y.S., 2008. *The landscape of qualitative research* (Vol. 1). Sage.

Department of Justice. 1996. The Bill of Rights of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996. pp. 11. Available at: http://www.justice.gov.za/legislation/constitution/SAConstitution-web-eng.pdf [Accessed on: 26 July 2017].

Dos Santos, A., da Rocha, C.G. and Lepre, P., 2010. Barriers and Opportunities in developing 'Do-it-yourself" Products for Low-income housing. Journal of Construction in Developing Countries, 15 (1), pp.29-43

Drimie, S., van Zyl, J., Vogel, C., Mathee, A., Kilian, D., Henderson, C. and Gibson, D., 2005. Human vulnerability to environmental change. *Background Research Paper for the South Africa Environment Outlook report on*.

Duncan, S.S. and Rowe, A., 1993. Self-provided housing: the first world's hidden housing arm. *Urban Studies*, *30*(8), pp.1331-1354.

EThekwini Municipality., 2017a. EThekwini Municipality: Integrated Development plan 5 year plan, 2017/18-2021/22 Available at: http://www.durban.gov.za/City_Government/City_Vision/IDP/Documents/IDP%202017%20 2018.PDF [accessed: 02/11/2018].

EThekwini Municipality., 2017b. *Spatial Development Framework*. [Online]. Available at: http://www.durban.gov.za/City_Services/development_planning_management/Documents/FI NAL%20SDF%202017-2018%20May%202017.pdf [accessed on: 19/10/2018]

Farrell, K., 2017. The rapid urban growth triad: a new conceptual framework for examining the urban transition in developing countries. *Sustainability*, *9*(8), p.1407.

Flick, U., 2011. *Introducing Research methodology: A beginner's guide to doing a research project*. Sage

Google Earth 7.3.2. 2018a. Iqadi. 29∘38'01"S, 30∘55'07"E, elevation 487m. 2D Map. Google AfriGis (pty) ltd Data SIO. Viewed: 10/11/2018. Available: https://earth.google.com/web/@-29.73465685,30.9939644,70.49924736a,58248.95478898d,35y,33.59739906h,0t,0r/data=Ck oaSBJACiUweDFlZjcxYjM0ZGU3ZmE1Mzk6MHhhYTM0M2NiMDAyYzgxY2MwGZpN NtTeoj3AIW2h0Fc16z5AKgVJcWFkaRgBIAEoAg

Google Earth 7.3.2. 2018b. Iqadi. 29∘40'01"S, 30∘54'14"E, elevation 263m. 3D Map. Google AfriGis (pty) ltd Data SIO. Viewed: 10/11/2018. Available: https://earth.google.com/web/@-29.66558302,30.90108419,287.94466635a,1776.29413077d,35y,49.76743934h,60.00203573 t,0r/data=CkoaSBJACiUweDFlZjcxYjM0ZGU3ZmE1Mzk6MHhhYTM0M2NiMDAyYzgx Y2MwGZpNNtTeoj3AIW2h0Fc16z5AKgVJcWFkaRgBIAEoAg

Gough, K.V., 1996. Self-help housing in urban Colombia; alternatives for the production and distribution of building materials. *Habitat International*, *20*(4), pp.635-651.

Gough, K.V., 1998. House for sale? The self-help housing market in Pereira, Colombia. *Housing Studies*, *13*(2), pp.149-160.

Guba, E.G. & Lincoln, Y.S., 1994. Competing paradigms in qualitative research. In N.K. Denzin & Y.S. Lincoln (eds.), Handbook of qualitative research (1st Ed.). London: Sage, pp 105 – 117.

Güneralp, B., Lwasa, S., Masundire, H., Parnell, S. and Seto, K.C., 2017. Urbanization in Africa: challenges and opportunities for conservation. *Environmental Research Letters*, *13*(1), p.015002.   Retrieved: http://iopscience.iop.org/article/10.1088/1748-9326/aa94fe/pdf [accessed: 07/10/2018]

Harris, R. & Giles, C., 2003. A mixed message. The agents and forms of international housing policy, 1945–1973. *Habitat International*, this issue.

Harris, R., 2003. A double irony: the originality and influence of John F.C. Turner, *Habitat International*, 27, pp. 245-269.

Hesse-Biber, S.N. and Leavy, P., 2010. *The practice of qualitative research*. Sage.

Holland and Campbell., 2005. *Methods in Development Research: Combining Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches.* University of Michigan: ITDG

Holliday, A., 2002. Doing and Writing Qualitative Research. London: Sage

Hugo, G., 2013. What we know about circular migration and enhanced mobility. *Migration Policy Institute*, *7*, pp.1-10.

Jedwab, R., Christiaensen, L. and Gindelsky, M., 2014. Rural Push, Urban Pull and Urban Push? New Historical Evidence from Developing Countries. *The George Washington University, Institute for International Economic Policy Working Papers*, *4:* Washington, DC, USA

Keivani, R. and Werna, E., 2001a. Modes of housing provision in developing countries. *Progress in planning*, *55*(2), pp.65-118.

Keivani, R. and Werna, E., 2001b. Refocusing the housing debate in developing countries from a pluralist perspective. *Habitat International*, *25*(2), pp.191-208.

Kok, P., and Collison, M., 2006. *Migration and Urbanisation in South Africa.* Report 03-04-02, Pretoria: Statistics South Africa. [Online]. Available at: http://www.statssa.gov.za/publications/Report-03-04-02/Report-03-04-02.pdf [Accessed on: 23/02/ 2016

Kombe, W.J., 2005. Land use dynamics in peri-urban areas and their implications on the urban growth and form: the case of Dar es Salaam, Tanzania. *Habitat International*, 29, pp. 113–135

Kuper, A., Lingard, L. and Levinson, W., 2008. Critically appraising qualitative research. *Bmj*, *337*(aug07_3), pp.a1035-a1035.

Landman, K. and Napier, M., 2010. Waiting for a house or building your own? Reconsidering state provision, aided and unaided self-help in South Africa. *Habitat international*, *34*(3), pp.299-305.

Lloyd, M.G., Peel, D. and Janssen-Jansen, L.B., 2015. Self-build in the UK and Netherlands: mainstreaming self-development to address housing shortages?. *Urban, Planning and Transport Research*, *3*(1), pp.19-31.

Mackenzie, N. and Knipe, S., 2006. Research dilemmas: Paradigms, methods and methodology. *Issues in educational research*, *16*(2), pp.193-205

Marais, L., Ntema, J. and Venter, A., 2008. State control in self-help housing: evidence from South Africa.

Marais, L., Van Rensburg, N. and Botes, L., 2003. An empirical comparison of self-help housing and contractor-driven housing: Evidence from Thabong (Welkom) and Mangaung (Bloemfontein). In *Urban Forum*. 14(4). Springer Netherlands, p. 347

Maree, K., 2007. *First steps in research*. Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.

Mbatha, S. and Mchunu, K., 2016. Tracking peri-urban changes in eThekwini Municipality–beyond the 'poor–rich'dichotomy. *Urban Research & Practice*, *9*(3), pp.275-289.

Mbiba, Beacon and Marie Huchzermeyer (2002), "Contentious development: peri-urban studies in subSaharan Africa", Progress in Development Studies, 2(2), pages 113–131.

McCatty, M. (2004). *The Process of Rural-Urban Migration in Developing Countries*. Ontario: Department of Economic- Carleton University.

McNeill, P. and Chapman, S., 2005. *Research methods*. 3rd Edition. United States: Routledge

Murray, M. and Myers, G. eds., 2006. *Cities in contemporary Africa*. Palgrave Macmillan: New York, pp.2-8

Naab, F.Z, Dinye, R.D and Kasanga, R.K (2013). Urbanisation and its impact on agricultural lands in growing cities in developing countries: A case study of Tamale in Ghana, *Modern Social Science Journal*, 2(2), pp. 256-287

National Department of Human Settlements, 2009a. *Incremental Interventions: Enhanced Peoples Housing Process*, Part 4. Volume 4 of the National Housing Code. Available at: http://www.dhs.gov.za/sites/default/files/documents/national_housing_2009/4_Incremental_Interventions/4%20Volume%204%20Enhanced%20People%20Housing%20Process.pdf [Accessed on: 30/07/2018]

National Department of Human Settlements, 2009b. *Incremental Interventions: Upgrading of Informal Settlements*, Part 4. Volume 4 of the National Housing Code. Available at: http://www.dhs.gov.za/sites/default/files/documents/national_housing_2009/4_Incremental_Interventions/5%20Volume%204%20Upgrading%20Infromal%20Settlement.pdf [accessed on: 30/09/2018]

Newton, C., 2013. The peoples housing process… getting the quality in the quantity?. *Journal of Housing and the Built Environment*, *28*(4), pp.639-651.

Opoko, P.A. and Oluwatayo, A.A., 2014. Trends in urbanisation: implication for planning and low-income housing delivery in Lagos, Nigeria. *Architecture Research*, *4*(1A), pp.15-26.

Opoku Nyarko, J. and Adu-Gyamfi, A., 2012. *Managing Peri-Urban Land Development: Building On Pro-Poor Land Management Principles*. Italy.

Patton, M.Q.,1990. Designing qualitative studies. In Qualitative evaluation and research methods (second edition). London: Sage, pp 169 - 186.

Phewa, B., 2016. Qadi Clan Migration by King Shaka: Zulu-Kingdom, South Africa. [Website]. Ulwazi Programme. Available at: https://www.ulwaziprogramme.org/2016/10/qadi-clan-migration-by-king-shaka-zulu-kingdom-south-africa/ [Accessed: 16 October 2017].

Pugh, C., 2001. The Theory and Practice of Housing Sector Development for Developing Countries, 1950-99, Housing Studies, 16 (4), pp. 399-423.

Rauws, W.S. and de Roo, G., 2011. Exploring transitions in the peri-urban area. *Planning Theory & Practice*, *12*(2), pp.269-284.

Ravetz, J., Fertner, C. and Nielsen, T.S., 2013. The dynamics of peri-urbanization. In *Peri-urban futures: Scenarios and models for land use change in Europe*. Springer: Berlin, Heidelberg, pp. 13-44

Ritchie, J., Lewis, J., Nicholls, C.M. and Ormston, R. eds., 2013. *Qualitative research practice: A guide for social science students and researchers*. Sage.

Robinson, O.C., 2014. Sampling in interview-based qualitative research: A theoretical and practical guide. *Qualitative research in psychology*, *11*(1), pp.25-41.

ROY A. and AlSayyad, N. (Eds)., 2003. Urban Informality: Transnational Perspectives from the Middle East, Latin America, and South Asia. Lexington Books, Lanham, MD.

Roy, A., 2005. Urban informality: toward an epistemology of planning. *Journal of the american planning association*, *71*(2), pp.147-158.

Roy, A., 2013. The 21st-century metropolis: new geographies of theory. In *The Futures of the City Region* (pp. 59-70). Routledge

Sarantakos, S., 2005. Social Research. (3rd Ed.). Melbourne: Macmillan Education

Shenton, A.K., 2004. Strategies for ensuring trustworthiness in qualitative research projects. *Education for Information*, 22(2), pp. 63 – 75.

Sietchiping, R., Kago, J., Zhang, X.Q., Augustinus, C. and Tuts, R., 2014. Role of Urban–Rural Linkages in Promoting Sustainable Urbanization. *Environment and Urbanization Asia*, *5*(2).   Sage,   pp.   219-234.   [Online]   Available   at: http://eua.sagepub.com/content/5/2/219.full.pdf [Accessed: 06/ 03/ 2018]

Simon, D., 2008. *Urban Environments: issues on peri-urban fringe*. United Kingdom: Annual Reviews.   [Online].   Available   at: http://www.annurev.environ.33.021407.093240.pdf [Accessed on: 03/03/ 2017]

Simone, A., 2001. On the Worlding of African Cities. *African Studies Review, 44*(2), pp.15-41.

Smart, T. and Ling, T.Y.J. 2015. Toward an Urban Frontier and the Inter-Linkage: The Taipei Scenario.   [Online]   available   at: http://citeseerx.ist.psu.edu/viewdoc/download?doi=10.1.1.723.816&rep=rep1&type=pdf [Accessed on: 16/10/2018]

Smith, D.M. ed., 2003. *The apartheid city and beyond: Urbanization and social change in South Africa*. Routledge.

Soliman, A.M., 2012. The Egyptian episode of self-build housing. *Habitat International*, *36*(2), pp.226-236.

Statistics South Africa., 2011. EThekwini Main Place: Iqadi. [Online]. Available at: http://www.statssa.gov.za/?page_id=4286&id=10336 [Accessed: 16/10/2017].

Steinberg, F., 2014. *Rural–Urban Linkages: an urban perspective*, 128. Working paper series. Sullivan, E. and Ward, P.M., 2012. Sustainable housing applications and policies for low-income self-build and housing rehab. *Habitat International*, *36*(2), pp.312-323

Sutherland, C., Sim, V., Buthelezi, S. and Khumalo, D., 2016. Social constructions of environmental services in a rapidly densifying peri-urban area under dual governance in Durban, South Africa. *Bothalia-African Biodiversity & Conservation*, *46*(2), pp.1-18

Tacoli, C., 1998. Rural-urban interactions: a guide to the literature. *Environment and urbanization*, *10*, pp.147-166.

Tacoli, C., McGranahan, G. and Satterthwaite, D., 2015. *Urbanisation, rural-urban migration and urban poverty*. Human Settlements Group, International Institute for Environment and Development.

Turner, J.F. and Fichter, R. eds., 1972. *Freedom to build: dweller control of the housing process*. New York: Macmillan

United Nations, DESA/Population Division., 2018a .World Urbanization Prospects: The 2018 Revision. [Online]. United nation publications, pp. 1-2. Available at: https://population.un.org/wup/Publications/Files/WUP2018-KeyFacts.pdf [Accessed: 06/11/18]

United Nations, DESA/Population Division. 2018b .World Urbanization Prospects: The 2018 Revision. [Online]. United nation publications. Pp. 1-2. Available at: https://population.un.org/wup/Publications/Files/WUP2018-KeyFacts.pdf [accessed: 06/11/18]

Walliman, N., 2017. *Research methods: The basics*. Routledge.

Wertman. C.A., 2014. There's no place like home: Access to housing for all South Africans. [Online]. *Brooklyn Journal of International Law*. 40 (2), p. 719. Retrieved: https://brooklynworks.brooklaw.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?referer=https://www.google.co.za/&httpsredir=1&article=1043&context=bjil [Accessed: 04 November 2018]

Westendorff, David., 2009. Self-built housing in developing countries: current contributions and challenges to local development through volunteerism [PDF]. *Financiadora de Estudos e Projetos*. Available at: http://www.habitare.org.br/gmutirao/artigo1_ing.pdf [Accessed: 23/04/2018]

5.7 Appendixes

UKZN HUMANITIES AND SOCIAL SCIENCES RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE (HSSREC)

APPLICATION FOR ETHICS APPROVAL

For research with human participants

INFORMED CONSENT

Note to researchers: Notwithstanding the need for scientific and legal accuracy, every effort should be made to produce a consent document that is as linguistically clear and simple as possible, without omitting important details as outlined below. Certified translated versions will be required once the original version is approved.

There are specific circumstances where witnessed verbal consent might be acceptable, and circumstances where individual informed consent may be waived by HSSREC.

Information Sheet and Consent to Participate in Research

Date: 30 September 2018

Greeting: To whom it may concern

My name is Sifiso Simphiwe Dhlamini from the Univerity of KwaZulu Natal under the department of Development Studies. My student number is 213572282, email address simphiwe603dhl@gmail.com and cellphone number 079 100 4800.

You are being invited to consider participating in a study that involves research concerning self-built housing as a model for peri-urban areas. The aim and purpose of this research is to give an in-depth analysis of whether self-building has become an ideal approach to housing the growing urban population, on the rapidly transitioning peri-urban area of uMzinyathi located within EThekwini Municipality. Factors that influence the movement of people from urban core into peri-urban areas, including the type and degree of security of tenure that these urban dwellers possess in peri-urban areas will be explored. The study is expected to enroll 20

participants to conduct 20 in-debth individual interviews comprising of participants from the community including a member (iNkosi/Nduna) from the traditional council in uMzinyathi.

The study will provide the following procedures: only those participants who are most likely to provide relevant information or meet the defined criteria of the study will participate. This comprises of homeowners (self-builders) who reside within self-built homes in uMzinyathi over the period of 10 years [2007-2016] and Inkosi or iNduna as traditional council in uMzinyathi. Participants will be asked questions or provided topics to discuss relating to the study. All sessions of discussion will be audio-recorded for quality and reporting purposes, thus participants are required to be honest and truthful when sharing information. The researcher will take pictures of the houses including the surrounding environment but only with the permission of the participant/s prior to that. The photographs will serve as a tool to generate evidence, support observations and convey meaning of the different conditions observed and the prevailing context within the chosen study area. The duration of your participation if you choose to enroll and remain in the study is expected to be approximately 30 - 60 minutes maximum.

The study will not involve any risks or dangers that might cause discomfort to the participant/s .The study will provide no direct benefits to participants. This study has been ethically reviewed and approved by the UKZN Humanities and Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee.

In the event of any problems or concerns/questions you may contact the researcher at Simphiwe603dhl@gmail.com, cellphone 079 100 4800; or the UKZN Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee, contact details as follows:

HUMANITIES & SOCIAL SCIENCES RESEARCH ETHICS ADMINISTRATION

Research Office, Westville Campus

Govan Mbeki Building

Private Bag X 54001

Durban

4000

KwaZulu-Natal, SOUTH AFRICA

Tel: 27 31 2604557- Fax: 27 31 2604609

Participation in this research is voluntary and participants may withdraw participation at any point, and in the event of refusal/withdrawal of participation the participants will not incur any penalty. However, the participant will have to provide reasons for withdrawal from the study to the researcher for reporting purposes. The researcher will terminate the participant from the study if they fail to follow the study's procedures or providing false information deliberately, and this is in order to maintain the integrity of the rest of the data.

No costs will be incurred by participants as a result of participation in the study. There are no incentives for participation in the study. Codes will be used on data collection techniques to identify information in order to protect participant responses and identity. These codes will not directly link or associate any data collected to a specific participant/s unless insisted. Any data stored electronically will be will be protected by passwords. At the beginning of every sessions (interviews) the participants are requested not to disclose any information that is shared and discussed in the sessions outside of it. Participants will be contacted to be informed effectively about the progress and outcomes of the study, and a soft copy of report will be provided to participants with email addresses upon request.

CONSENT

I_____ have been informed about the study entitled: A critical analysis of self-build housing as a model for peri-urban areas; the case of uMzinyathi, KwaZulu Natal by Sifiso Simphiwe Dhlamini.

I understand the purpose and procedures of the study.

I have been given an opportunity to answer questions about the study and have had answers to my satisfaction.

I declare that my participation in this study is entirely voluntary and that I may withdraw at any time without affecting any of the benefits that I usually am entitled to.

If I have any further questions/concerns or queries related to the study I understand that I may contact the researcher at Simphiwe603@gmail.com or cellphone 079 100 4800.

If I have any questions or concerns about my rights as a study participant, or if I am concerned about an aspect of the study or the researchers then I may contact:

Additional consent, where applicable

I hereby provide consent to:

Audio-record my interview   YES / NO

Use of my photographs for research purposes YES / NO

_____   _____

Signature of Participant   **Date**

_____   _____

Signature of Witness   **Date**

(Where applicable)

_____   _____

Signature of Translator   **Date**

(Where applicable)

UKZN HUMANITIES AND SOCIAL SCIENCES RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE (HSSREC)

ISICELO SOKUGUNYAZWA UKWENZA UCWANINGO

LOKUSEBENZISANA NABANTU

Bacwaningi: Kuyisidingo ukuthi konke kwenziwe ngobuchule noma ngokucophelela ngokomthetho, ukuthi konke okwenziwayo kube ulwazi olucacileyo ngokolimu olwaziwayo, futhi kungabi bikho ulwazi olubalulekile oluzokweqiwa kulokhu okungenzansi. Ulwazi oluhunyushiwe luzodingeka emva kokuthi ulwazi lokuqala selugunyaziwe.

Ngezizathu ezithile ulwazi lungamukelwa ngokukhuluma kudingeke ukuthi kube nobufakazi noma ngezizathu ezithile Ulwazi ngemvumo yomuntu ngayedwa lunqatshwe noma lususwe ikomide (HSSREC).

Ulwazi oluqukethwe ngokuzibophezela ukuba yingxenye yocwaningo

Usuku: 06 June 2018

Isibingelelo: Ngiyakubingelela lunga lomphakathi

Igama lami ngingu Sifiso Simphiwe Dhlamini, ngingumfundi waseNyuvesi yaKwaZulu-Natal Howard College. Inombulo yami yokuba umfundi ithi 213572282, eyamakhalekhukhwini yona ithi 079 100 4800. Uyamenywa ukuba ube ingxenye noma ukusebenzisane nami ocwaningweni olumayelana nesihloko esithi: A critical analysis of self-built housing as a model for peri-urban areas (Ukuhlaziya okubucayi mayelana ngokuthuthuka kwezindlu zomazakhele kwizindawo ezintwasa dolobha).

Lolucwaningo luzoba maqondana nabantu abangomazakhele abahlala eMzinyathi esifundazweni saKwaZulu Natal. Inani labantu abangamashumi ambili (20) okuphelele abangamalunga omphakathi kanye neNkosi noma isikela leNkosi laseMzinyathi abazoba ingxenye yaloluccwaningo. Indlela oluzoqhutshwa ngayo kuzoba: inkulumoluhobo (Interviews) ezoba nabantu abangamashumi ambili. Isikhathi salezi zingxoxo sizoba amahora abili kuyela kwelesithathu. Lezi zingxoxo zizobe zihambisana nokuphendula imibuzo, ezobe ibuzwa umcwaningi maqondana nesihloko.

Lesisifundo asinabo ubungozi futhi akukho lapho ozozizwa ungenakho ukukhululeka. Siyethemba lolucwaningo luzosisiza ukwazi kangcono ngabantu baseThekwini ukuthi benza njani uma befuna ukukhombisa amalungelo abo.

Okunye okumele ukwazi ngalolucwaningo akukho muhlomulo ngokusebenzisana nathi ngalesisifundo. Lesisifundo sibhekiwe ngokwenkambo yobulungiswa sagunyazwa ikomide lesikhungo sasenyuvesithi UKZN Humanities and Social Sciences Research Ethics (inombolo yokugunyaza: 27 31 2604557).

HUMANITIES & SOCIAL SCIENCES RESEARCH ETHICS ADMINISTRATION

Research Office, Westville Campus

Govan Mbeki Building

Private Bag X 54001
Durban
4000

KwaZulu-Natal, SOUTH AFRICA

Tel: 27 31 2604557- Fax: 27 31 2604609

Email: HSSREC@ukzn.ac.za

Uma kukhona izinkinga obhekana nazo noma kukhona imibuzo ungaxhumana nomcwaningi (kulemininingwane enikezelwe) ningaxhumana futhi nekomide elimele ubulungiswa lase UKZN Humanities & Social Sciences kulemininingwane elandelayo

Ukusebenzisana nathi kulesisifundo awuphoqelekile, unalo ilungelo lokushintsha umqondo noma ngasiphi isikhathi uhoxe. Ngasesayidini lethu njengoba senza lolucwaningo asinawo umuhlombulo esizowunikezela kuwe kodwa singakunika uma sesiqedile ukwenza ucwaningo iphepha ukuze ulifunde noma ubeke umbono ngalo.

Umcwaningi akukho lapho ezothatha khona igama lakho futhi konke ozobe usitshela khona akukho lapho oyokubona khona ukuthi uwena. Konke ozokutshela umcwaningi kuzogcinwa kahle kukhiyelwe ekhabetheni. Esizobe sikugcine kwicomputha nakho kuvikelekile ngoba kuba nenombolo yemfihlo uma uyivula. Emuva kweminyaka emihlanu siyokushabalalisa lolulwazi osinike lona.

ISIVUMELWANO (gcwalisa njengoba kudingeka**)**

Mina _____ ngazisiwe ngakho konke okumayelana nocwaningo olusihloko sithi: A critical analysis of self-build housing as a model for peri-urban areas (ukuhlaziya okubucayi mayelana ngokuthuthuka kwezindlu zomazakhele kwizindawo ezintwasa dolobha), oluholwa ngumcwaningi uSifiso Simphiwe Dhlamini. Nginikeziwe ithuba lokuthi ngiphendule imibuzo bayelana nalolucwaningo noma isifundo futhi ngiphendule ngendlela engineliseka ngayo. Mina ngiyamemezela ukuthi ukuba kwami ingxenye yalolucwaningo angiphoqiwe futhi ngingayeka noma nini ngaphandle kokuphazamisa lesisifundo. Uma ngabe ngiba nemibuzo noma yini ephathelene nalolucwaningo ngingaxhumana nomcwaningi. Uma ngabe ngiba nemibuzo noma ngifuna ukwazi kabanzi ngamalungelo ami ngokusebenzisana nani kulolucwaningo noma okumayelana nalolucwaningo noma ngabacwaningi ngingaxhumana nonobhalo wesikhungo esibhekelene nobulungiswa bokwenza ucwaningo

HUMANITIES & SOCIAL SCIENCES RESEARCH ETHICS ADMINISTRATION

Research Office, Westville Campus

Govan Mbeki Building

Okwengeziwe ngemvumo okudingekayo

Ngiyanikezela ngemvumo ukuthi

Ukusebenzisa isiqophamazwi / ingxoxo yedlanzana labantu AKUKHO/YEBO/CHA

Ukusebenzisa izithombe zami ngenhloso yocwaningo AKUKHO / YEBO/CHA

_____   _____

Sayina ukuzibophezela   **Usuku**

_____   _____

Kusayina ufakazi uma ekhona   **Usuku**

_____   _____

Kusayina ochazayo uma ekhona   **Usuku**

A critical analysis of self-built housing as a model for peri-urban areas; the case of uMzinyathi (Qadi Traditional Authority) (Ukuhlaziya okubucayi mayelana ngokuthuthuka kwezindlu zomazakhele kwizindawo ezintwasa dolobha)

Researcher Name (Igama Lomncwanigi): _____

Location (Indawo/Isigodi): _____

Date (Usuku lucwaningo): _____

<u>DEMOGRAPHICS (lokubala ubuningi babantu)</u>

Name (Igama): _____ (Optional/Uyazikhethela)

1.

Gender (ubulili)	Please (√)
Female	
Male	

2.

Race (Uhlanga)	Please (√)
African	
White	
Indian	
Mixed	

Other (specify): _____

3.

Age (Iminyaka)	Please (√)
18 - 25	
26 - 35	
36 - 45	
46 - 59	
60+	

4. How many family members are in this household (Kunamalunga omdeni amangaki)?

WHAT FACTORS INFLUENCE THE MOVEMENT OF PEOPLE TO PERI-URBAN AREAS LIKE UMZINYATHI?

1. Has the family always stayed in uMzinyathi (Umndeni ubukade uhlala eMzinyathi kwasekuqaleni)?

2. Is the family previously from an urban or rural area (Umdeni umukade uhlala edolobheni noma emakhaya)?

3. What are some of the factors that attracted the family to uMzinyathi (Qadi T.A) (Yiziphi izinto ezihehe umdeni ukuba unqume ukuzohla eMzinyathi)?

TO WHAT EXTENT ARE PERI-URBAN RESIDENTS INVOLVED IN THE DECISION-MAKING AND HOUSING PROCESS CONCERNING THE PLANNING, DESIGN, CONSTRUCTION, AND OVERALL MANAGEMENT OF THEIR OWN HOUSING?

4. What delivery plan did the family follow in the development (planning/ekuhleleni, construction/kwakhiwa and management/kuphathwa) of their home (Yiluphi uhlelo lokwakha olulandelwe umdeni mayelana nokuthuthukisa umuzi wabo??

5. As a self-builder, what effect did the cost of building material/s have on the swift completion of the house? Elaborate (Njengomakhi, izindleko zezinto zokwakha zibe/zaba namuphi umthelela kwisithathi sokwakha indlu)?

6. What approached was utilized to support the costs of building (Yiyiphi indlela elandelwe umdeni ukuseka/ukuxasa izindleko zawo zokwakha)?

Funding Method	Please (√)
Self-funded (uzikhokhele ngemali yakho)	
Lay-by	
Bonded funding (Waboleka kwizikhungo zemali)	
Other (okunye)	

7. Is the family satisfied with the final outcome of their home from self-building, eleborate (Umdeni wanelisakile yini ngom'phumela wokuzakhela umuzi wabo)? Chaza kabanzi.

8. Are there any building standards and period that the family has been given to complete the building process of their home? Elaborate. (Ngabe ikhona imithetho kanye nesikhathi onqunyelwe sona umkhandlu weNkosi mayelana nokwakhiwa kumuzi)? chaza kabanzi.

WHAT MOTIVATES FOR SELF-BUILDING AND BENEFITS DOING SO IN THESE DYNAMIC LANDSCAPES OF PERI-URBAN AREAS?

9. What has motivated the family to self-build in a peri-urban area (Yini ekhuthaze umdeni ukuba uzakhele kulendawo esantwasa dolobha)?

10. What have been some of the benefits of self-building (Yikuphi esenikuzuzile ngokuzakhela)?

11. What are some of the challenges encountered as a self-builder (Yiziphi izinselele ekenabhekana nazo mayelana nokuzakhela)?

WHAT TYPE AND DEGREE OF SECURITY OF TENURE DO RESIDENTS POSSESS IN PERI-URBAN AREAS?

12. How does one go about becoming a resident of uMzinyathi (Iziphi izinyathelo ekumele zithathathwe umuntu uma efisa ukuba isakhamuzi saseMzinyathi)?

13. Does the family foresee moving to another area in future? Elaborate (Umdeni uyazibona uyokwakha kwenye indawo ngokuzayo? Chaza kabanzi)?

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR TRADITIONAL COUNCIL (OFFICIAL)

A critical analysis of self-build housing as a model to housing the surging urban poor in peri-urban areas; the case of uMzinyathi.

1. What factors attract people to uMzinyathi (Yiziphi izinto ocabanga ukuthi izona eziheha abantu ukuthi bafune ukuzokwakha la eMzinyathi)?

2. What role does the traditional council play in the development process of self-built homes (Iyiphu indima noma iqaza elidlalwa umkhandlu ekuthuthukiseni ukwakha kwaseMzinyathi)?

3. What type of land tenure systems (ownership, rental and leasing) can one gain access to under the Traditional Authority of uMzinyathi (Iziphi izinhlobo ngokuphathelene namalungelo okusebenzisa umhlaba nezinhlelo zawo ezitholakala ngumkhandlu weNkosi yaseMzinyathi)?

4. How does one go about becoming a resident of uMzinyathi (Iziphi izinyathelo ekumele zithathathwe umuntu ofisa ukuba isakhamuzi saseMzinyathi)?

5. Are there any building standards and period that the traditional authority enforces to the residents (Ngabe ikhona imithetho noma imiqathango ebekwa umkhandlu mayelana nendlela abahlili abangakho ngayo)?

6. What impact (positive or negative) has the traditional authority observed from the prevailing rapid development in the area (Yimuphi umthelela umkhandlu ongaphawula ngayo mayelana nokuthuthuka kwendawo)?

Researcher: _____

Site location: _____

Field observation schedule *(where, by whom and what)*

Date and Time	Situation/Setting (where)	Participants (by whom)	Actions Observed (what)	Reflection

Researcher: _____

Site location: _____

Field observation schedule *(where, by whom and what)*

Variables		uMzinyathi
		N =
Roof	Clay or Concrete Tiles	
	Asbestos Cement	
	Zinc	
	Polyester	
	Other	
Exterior Wall	Concrete Blocks	
	Clay bricks	
	Plastered	
	Other	
Windows	Aluminium	
	Casement	
	Wood/Timber	
	Other	
Main Doors (front and back)	Aluminium	
	Wood/Timber	
	Glass	
	Other	