

Migration into New Housing Developments: An examination of RDP Housing in Northern KwaZulu-Natal

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ABSTRACT

Objectives

First, the study aims to explore demographic and socio-economic characteristics of residents who moved into Indlovu village. Second, the study will explore if the housing development attracted the intended beneficiaries as outlined in the policy document of the RDP and the targeted households as specified by the local authority. Third, the study will examine whether there is differential selection of people at places of origin into new housing developments.

Background

Since 1994 when South Africa attained independence, the major thrust of the new government was to improve the welfare of the people who were previously underprivileged, especially the Black population. Affirmative policies aimed at the black population were formulated. The Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) was formulated in 1994 and was aimed at addressing housing, health, education and economical problems for people who could not afford. South African citizens with low socio-economic status, without proper shelter and previously disadvantaged were provided with subsidised houses. These RDP houses induced an influx towards urban areas in informal settlement, further swelling the waiting-list for RDP houses.

Methods

This study utilises data from the Africa Centre Demographic Information System (ACDIS). The Demographic Surveillance Area (DSA) is located in rural KwaZulu Natal. The surveillance area includes a new RDP housing development called Indlovu village. The analysis examines the socio-economic and demographic characteristics of people who moved into Indlovu village between 2003 and October 2006. In bivariate and multivariate logistic regression analysis, the determinants of movement into RDP houses were estimated. The dependent variable '*moved*' was defined as a binary, where 1 was assigned to those who moved from elsewhere within the DSA to the RDP development scheme and 0 to those who never moved. However, some of the people who have moved into Indlovu Village could have moved from other places outside the DSA and these were analysed separately.

Results

There are equal numbers of male and female headed households in Indlovu. Bivariate analyses suggest that there is a statistically significant difference between individuals who moved to Indlovu and those who did not move from the DSA with a p-value <0.001. When controlling for age, sex, marital status, education, employment, household socio-economic status and place of origin, multivariate analysis suggests that people from the rural part of the DSA are more likely than those from urban and peri-urban areas to move into the RDP housing area. Looking at age, more elderly individuals were more likely to be allocated the houses relative to the younger age groups, however, this was not statistically significant. Individuals in the middle age were less likely to move relative to the younger age groups. Equal proportions of females and males benefited from the development and these findings agree with the requirements of the policy.

Those in a relatively high socio-economic status were more likely to move than those in the relatively low socio-economic status. Multivariate analysis suggests that the currently married people were more likely to move to Indlovu village. However these findings were not statistically significant but they were significant in the bivariate analysis. Also those from households with dependents were more likely to move relative to those who stayed alone. These findings were not significant after adjusting for other variables. Again this is consistent with the requirements of the policy which stipulates that married people and individuals with dependants have to benefit from these housing developments. The Indlovu housing scheme target people living in and around the DSA, but the development mostly benefited those originating from far away places. Almost 60% of the residents in Indlovu came from places outside the DSA while only 36% originated from within the DSA.

Conclusions

This analysis aimed to determine the socio-demographic determinants of individuals who move into RDP houses, using the case study of movement from the Africa Centre DSA into Indlovu village. The findings revealed that the housing development was able to attract individuals from household with average socio-economic status and those from high and very high socio-economic status relative to the very poor households. The RDP policy required that poor individuals with low socio-economic status should be the ones who benefit, however

this is contrary to the current study's findings. However, though by demographic characteristics (gender, age and marital status) most of the beneficiaries met the criteria for eligibility for RDP housing, most came from places further than communities surrounding these housing schemes, disadvantaging the intended beneficiaries. These findings suggest the importance of evaluating the recipients of RDP housing developments around the country, to ensure that the deserving individuals receive the houses.

Key Words: Housing, Migration, DSS, Development

PREFACE

The research presented in this dissertation was carried out in the School of Development Studies, University of KwaZulu-Natal, Howard College Campus, Durban, from January 2009 to June 2011, under the supervision of Nompumelelo Nzimande

The Migration into new housing development: An examination of RDP Housing in Northern KwaZulu Natal is my own work, it has not been submitted before for any degree or examination in any other university. All the sources I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged as complete references.

Mammusa Lekoa

November 2011

Signature

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ABBREVIATIONS & ACRONYMS

| | |
|--------|--|
| DSA: | Demographic Surveillance Area |
| RDP: | Reconstruction Development Programme |
| IIM: | Internal Individual Migration |
| IHM: | Internal Household Migration |
| ACDIS: | Africa Centre Demographic Information System |

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Since 1994 when South Africa attained its political liberation, policies and regulations were changed and new ones were developed. During the apartheid era, movement in South Africa were restricted and were predominantly due to labour migration for individuals who worked in the mines (Department of Social Development, 1998). The majority of Black people who worked in the mines came from the homelands '*Bantustans*', where their families stayed behind and where many were forced to remain, resulting in poverty and lack of opportunities (Hoggett, 2002). Although it was not easy for citizens in rural areas and townships to freely move around the country, due to laws that were restrictive during the apartheid era, there was still a number of people who moved to urban areas in search of employment, who ended up in informal settlements because they had nowhere to live (Bezuidenhout, 2009; Guillaume & Houssay-Holzschuch, 2002). This apartheid system of labour migration led to informal settlements mushrooming in the urban area. Responding to this settlement, the democratic government came up with a new policy framework that aimed to address inequalities in the country including shortage of housing in South Africa. The Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) aimed to address housing, health, education and economical inequalities for South Africans who could not afford any of the above cited elements (African National Congress, 1994). This dissertation will then focus on RDP housing and its influence on the population movement. In order to well examine the above, the dissertation examines the socio-economic and demographic characteristics of house-holds/individuals that moved into RDP houses in Indlovu village, Northern KwaZulu-Natal between the year 2003 and 2006.

The concept dealt with in this work is a different type of migration which is driven by housing development where the pull factor is the RDP housing development and push factors are overcrowding, poverty and lack of durable or sustainable housing. Some studies have been done in the area of housing and general household survey since 2002, but few have focussed on this specific area and at such a lower level or in this context, the characteristics of people who stay in RDP housing developments. Most researchers that have looked at RDP seem to be more interested in political outcomes of the development which include among others corruption, xenophobic attacks, quality of the RDP houses as well as the number of supplied

houses (F. C. Cross, 2005; Haas, 2009; InternAfrica, 2008; Mubangizi, 2008; Rosenberger, 2003)

In this analysis RDP household settlements will be examined in relation to migration and in terms of selectivity on who benefits in terms of their demographic and socioeconomic characteristics. RDP housing scheme in Indlovu village located in KwaMsane Township, Mtubatuba in KwaZulu Natal Province was used as a case study. This area is covered by the Africa Centre Demographic Surveillance System, which has been surveying the population in the Mpukunyoni Tribal area and KwaMsane Township since 2000. Upon completion in 2006, the Indlovu RDP village adjacent to the KwaMsane Township was incorporated into the Africa Centre's surveillance system. The longitudinal surveillance data therefore allows us to describe the socio-economic and demographic characteristics of people who migrated from the rest of the surveillance area into the new housing development. In addition, data that collected from all residents of Indlovu participating in the surveillance system enabled the researcher to investigate those that may have moved into Indlovu village from outside of the DSA.

Knowledge of who moves into RDP houses has implications on the planning and implementation of health policies and intervention education policies and implementation strategies, rural development as well as municipal planning. The implications are explained by the fact that, if the health department knows who stays in the RDP houses, it is possible for the department to identify the health problems that are common in those groups of people. For example if most of the people staying there are children and older people, the department will be in a position to tailor relevant services and appropriately to this population group. Secondly, for the department of education, if this department knows who lives in these development houses, it will know how many facilities they should build for the area if required and how many school going children and at which age should they plan for. Finally, this will help the municipality to know which services are required and how much is needed. This will also help them in planning their human resources that will be servicing these developments. On this basis, findings from this study will help to inform relevant policies on the impacts of the influx of people into RDP housing developments.

Research Objectives and key questions of the study

The study aimed to:

- (a) Understand the characteristics of the population of Indlovu village
- (b) Understand the difference between the DSA population that migrated into Indlovu village and those that did not
- (c) Examine the demographic and socio-economic characteristics of people migrating into Indlovu village with an effort to understand the determinants of movements.

Key Research Questions

- i. What are the patterns of movement into Indlovu village?
- ii. What are the characteristics of people who moved into Indlovu village and their places of origine?
- iii. What are the characteristics of the Indlovu village population versus the Demographic Surveillance Area (DSA) population?
- iv. What is the relationship between what government policy was targeting and the ultimate inhabitants of the Indlovu village?

1.1 Background to the study

The RDP housing developments was established after the 1994 elections in South Africa. The main reasons for setting up these housing developments were to alleviate poverty, reduce overcrowding, to also address the housing backlog resulting from apartheid regime (Catherine, 2006; Swartz, 2009). Informal settlements community is one of the intended beneficiaries of the RDP housing development. They are mostly unemployed persons and pensioners(Stephens, 2003). Furthermore, informal settlements are characterised by no or less access to vital services like water and electricity, inadequate health care and sub par education system(Stephens, 2003). This study used Indlovu village in the Northern part of KwaZulu Natal as a case study to understand characteristics of the people who moved into this RDP housing developments.

The constitution of the Republic of South African stipulates that: “every citizen has a right to housing”(South African Government, 1996). Likewise, the millennium development goal (target 11) established by the millennium summit head of the states highlights slums eradication in support of the above statement (United Nations Development programme, 2011). If successful, this will have a positive impact on housing policies and provision of houses in the developing countries like South Africa, as both targets aim to improve the conditions of people’s living. Accordingly South Africa developed several policies to address the problems related to human settlement, and one of them was the Reconstruction Development Programme policy (RDP) through which the government addressed the challenges faced by the population with regard to housing during apartheid, especially the previously disadvantaged groups. As a result, since the start of this programme many people have been housed and much is known regarding the quality of the houses provided by the government through RDP programme(Department of Human Settlement, 2005). In most cases, these houses are small and they are not structurally secure, usually built in places far from crucial services like schools and centres of employment(Abahlali baseMjondolo movement South Africa, 2008). However much is still unknown regarding the characteristics of the people who move into these houses compared to the intended beneficiaries stipulated in the government policy (African National Congress, 1994).

To show their dissatisfactions, South Africans march and protest against housing services around the country. Most communities believe that they do not get houses because unintended people end up becoming the beneficiaries of these houses. This means that people who did not qualify according to the criteria set out on the RDP housing policy get the houses. Recently South Africa experienced Xenophobic attacks because the citizens believed that they did not get houses because the government gave houses to foreigners (InternAfrica, 2008). There is also a belief that government officials are corrupt and, they sell these houses to any person paying them money (Mercury, 2008). The disadvantaged communities' dissatisfaction is further witnessed through the public media that displays them protesting for service delivery and housing being one of their major concerns. For example, in Eden Park in Limpopo Province the community complained that houses were given to people who come from outside and from the neighbouring countries instead of the people who stay in that vicinity and reside in informal settlements (eNews, 2010). Communities also grieve over the long waiting time before getting these houses. According to the eNews report, some people go up to 10 years and beyond waiting without result, while living in overcrowded spaces in different Townships (eNews, 2010). Indlovu village came as a way to address overcrowding in KwaMsane Township (Swartz, 2009). This is a township in the peri-urban part of the Demographic Surveillance Area (DSA). According to the municipality, the household that shared a homestead were the primary intended beneficiaries of the development (Swartz, 2009). The targeted beneficiaries of the RDP houses in general were people from previously disadvantaged groups who should be married or cohabiting and are residents of the Republic of South Africa. They have to be over 18 years of age and first time property owners (African National Congress, 1994). Such a housing development project was set up in Indlovu village, which is adjacent to the DSA.

The Africa Centre for Health and Population Studies decided to include Indlovu village in the surveillance area because most of the people who resided in this village originated from the DSA. Failing to take this measure, it could have appeared as if many people have migrated out of the DSA, yet this was an opportunity to expand the urban part of the DSA. On the basis of the above, this housing development with detailed information on demographic and socio-economic information of the beneficiaries will be considered in this analysis. Moreover this will assist to evaluate the policy guiding this housing development.

This study looked at all residents of the DSA, who moved into Indlovu village between 1st January 2003 and 1st October 2006. It considers the demographic determinants and where the beneficiaries came from specifically within the DSA. It was investigated whether they came from the urban, rural or the peri-urban part of the DSA. This also assisted in evaluating whether the RDP did achieve its intended objectives.

1.1.1 The Africa Centre Demographic Surveillance Area (DSA)

This is a demographic surveillance area characterised by two big surveillances namely: the household and HIV surveillances. The household surveillance is done twice a year while the HIV surveillance is done once a year. The Africa Centre Demographic Information System-database (ACDIS) was established to describe the demographic, social and health impacts of the HIV epidemic in a population going through the health transition and to monitor the impact of intervention strategies on the epidemic. In order to conduct the monitoring, it was necessary to collect longitudinal demographic data on the population (Frank Tanser et al., 2007; Tanser, 2007). This database is acknowledged to be an important dataset for the study of household and family structure and dynamics in Africa. The surveillance area is located near Mtubatuba town. The area is 438 km² in size with approximately 90 000 people who are all members of 11 000 households.

The current study is the sub-set of the household surveillance and is deemed appropriate to track the people who moved into Indlovu village and their determinants as well as where they originated from. The surveillance data was appropriate for this study based on its longitudinal nature.

1.2 A historical account of migration in South Africa

Globally, rapid social political and economical changes in developing countries have led to great rural to urban and rural to rural migration. It is well documented that migration plays a major role in response to economic and political changes in developing countries (National Research Foundation, 1999). Like many other countries, South Africa is said to be a community in transition and this is mainly attributed to the diminishing apartheid era and the dawn of democracy in 1994. These changes have also resulted into the movement within the country itself (National Research Foundation, 1999). South African internal migration is unique in that 65% of the population already stay in the urban areas with a minimal number

still surviving through agricultural activities while most people are being employed by different industries as a major employer in the country (National Research Foundation, 1999).

¹The mainstream of people working in industries return back home to visit their families on a weekly, monthly or yearly basis, bringing with them some financial support. The primary reason for these mobile communities is economic opportunities within the country and in the region at large. However, while some of the housing and migration research question slum eradication as one achievement of the millennium development goal, Cross (2008) questions the sustainability of the current housing delivery in light of future in-migration and the rapid household splitting.

During the apartheid era, movement of citizens was restricted, people were not free to move anywhere at any time. South Africa was by then sub-sectioned into homelands. The country experienced increased movement of individuals within it in the 1990s while the power of apartheid was declining. South Africa did not only experience internal migration but also out migration, meaning the country also lost its population (Landau & wa Kabwe Sagatti, 2009). This movement continues to affect the country's economy and its population more than in the earlier years (Landau & wa Kabwe Sagatti, 2009). Initially most of these movements were due to labour migration into the mines. South Africa experienced a lot of movement from rural to urban areas, and this resulted in the formation of informal settlements in urban areas. The country experienced different types of migration even at local level they experience loss and gain of population. The urban centres are the most hard hit by internal and domestic migration (Landau & wa Kabwe Sagatti, 2009)

However, the nature of migration has changed overtime although it has been part of human history. For an individual to move, he needs some kind of social or financial resource to do so. This explains why wealthy people tend to be more mobile than the poor societies. Previously people migrated due to household formation and employment opportunities, but this movement is slow from informal settlements to formal settlements. In response to this sluggish movement the Government provided the people with subsidized housing through the

¹ Although there is still lack of migration data in South Africa but out of the one used (lack of migration data is a global issue, it is not unique to South Africa alone), ¹(National Research Foundation, 1999).

Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP). To qualify for these houses a household was supposed to be earning less than R3000 a month, and the beneficiary must be above 18 years of age, married or cohabiting, and a South African resident. In Section 26 of the South African constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 stated that everyone had the right to have “access to adequate housing”(South African Government, 1996). It is the responsibility of the government with the available resources and legislative capacity to realize this right. All the levels of government share the responsibility in the provision of adequate housing.

Looking at internal migration at the provincial level and citing Gauteng as the leading province with internal migration out of the nine provinces in South Africa, a study examining the importance and impact of migration to this Province reveals that the latter was perceived as offering greater job opportunities and associated with improvement of living standard which brought with it both challenges and opportunities into the province. The study was conducted by the office of the Premier in Gauteng in 2004 to quantify and assess internal migrants to Gauteng and the impact of such migration to the Province. They looked at Gauteng to Gauteng migrants and non Gauteng born migrants. And they further separated it into permanent and migrant workers (temporary) (Cathrine Cross, 2008). The findings in this study suggest that more people move to Gauteng because they hope to find job opportunities and that there are more men than females due to the labour migrations into the mines. They are mostly not educated and less likely to raise the education profile of the Province. Non Gauteng migrants account for almost half of the Gauteng residents with higher education. They were less likely to be employed and if they got jobs they were willing to work for less. They were employed in less-skills intensive activities with higher proportion being females in domestic work (Catherine 2008).

Job hunting in KwaZulu Natal is no longer a sole reason why people migrate instead infrastructure is one other reason identified(Lall & Deichmann, 2007). A study conducted in KwaZulu Natal reveals that the province had a high rate of rural to rural movement, and little is known on how these people move from one place to another. Migration in the context of unemployment from this research showed that it involves a range of expectations other than a wage, like basic needs, security and social advancement (Lall & Deichmann, 2007). Further findings suggest that in provinces like KwaZulu-Natal; the high degree of movement is due to

violence. In line with Catherine (2008), since 1994 when the country had its first democratic elections, violence was identified as one of the causes of internal migration in the country. This research further explained that KwaZulu Natal has got a very high migration rates driven by the forced resettlement that spreads the marginal communities all around the province and contributes to these communities not having locations where they settle making physical infrastructure an important issue in this work (Lall & Deichmann, 2007).

Other sources examining the difference between documented and undocumented migrants; voluntary and forced migration and between international and domestic migration in South Africa, Landau and Segatti (2009) discovered that there is a need for improved policy response to human mobility and that there were different but significant problems in changing frameworks governing domestic mobility including the perception that in-migration is an inherent drain on Municipal budgets (Landau & wa Kabwe Sagatti, 2009).

This present research looked at the population of the Africa Centre Demographic Surveillance Area, with specific focus on the people who moved into the RDP housing development located in Indlovu village. The dissertation considers the demographic characteristics of these individuals in relation to their age, gender, place of origin, socio-economic status and their marital status. Therefore,

1.3 Structure of dissertation

Chapter one: this chapter is made up of an Introduction and rational of the study are presented in. The problem statement, research questions and aims of the research appear on the same chapter. Terms are defined and limitations of the study stated, while giving a brief over view of the design and methodology.

Chapter two: comprises the literature that was relevant to the study and organized according to appropriate headings.

Chapter three: presents the methodology adopted for the study, the design is presented, ethical measures that were undertaken, data collection procedures, processing and analysis.

Chapter four: this chapter presents the findings of the study, the unit of analysis and discussion of results

Chapter five covers the discussions and conclusion as well as the recommendations and limitations of the study

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter reviews the literature on migration and housing in South Africa and Africa. The literature is organized around different sections amongst which: Section 2.2 discusses migration; while, Section 2.3 discusses history and political context of housing in South Africa. Section 2.4 discusses demographic determinants of moving into Reconstruction Development Housing (RDP) and the following section provides a review on what has been documented earlier in the field and lastly a short conclusion is drawn.

2.2 Migration

In order to provide a concise and clear understanding of residential mobility in this study, the definitions of migration both internal and international are to be taken into consideration. Posel et al (2004) define migration as an event that involves movement of individuals over space and the change of individual place of residence. While international migration is considered when the migrant has crossed the border from one country to another; internal migration according to the International Organization of Migration (IOM) is moving to a new home within a state, country or continent (IOM 2005). The term internal migration that is considered as a residential mobility is used in this study. Kok et al (2003) break the internal migration into two aspects, in which they provide a more comprehensive typology of migration identified as circulation and mobility. In support of the above, Gelderblom (2004) makes a distinction between residential and work migration, suggesting that: “residential migration is a household move in a new place of residence, while work migration is that of an individual and involves movement to a new place of work. Taking into consideration the level of overlapping between these two kinds of migrations, both have been considered in this literature. Hence, this movement is considered a residential move particularly for the purpose of the analysis of movement from the DSA.

Moreover, in these definitions, several migratory movements are involved; that is migration can either be voluntary or involuntary; permanent or temporary and finally internal or international (Posel, Fairburn & Lund, 2004). Population dynamics are described in terms of three components; mortality, fertility and migration. The first two components are the most

researched in demography or population studies. To study migration has ever been a challenge due to the lack of or poor quality of data; though there have been some improvements in this regard over time. The problem of poor or missing migration data is not unique to South Africa; even other countries face the same challenge (Foote, Hill, & Martin, 1993). Another challenge with studying migration is that it is very complex relative to fertility and mortality due to its fluid nature. That is, it happens repeatedly because one person may migrate or move more than once and to different places over a life time (de Souza Briggs, 1998; Foote, et al., 1993). It is this fluidity in population movement that makes migration measurement very difficult and consequently it becomes a relatively less studied component of population change.

Migration plays a major role in response to economic and political changes in developing countries (National Research Foundation, 1999). Migration trends show high level of responsiveness to social, economic and environmental conditions in both the receiving and sending areas (Roux, 2009). Migration could also play an important role in addressing inequalities that prevail amongst the citizens, if a person move from a place of low resources to that with high resources and opportunities the standard of living may improve (Roux, 2009) as succinctly pointed out by Cross and Omoluabi (2006):

“...migration can have many positive effects by increasing population concentration, thereby facilitating service delivery, increasing the market for goods and creating an active citizenry.”

Most of the migration work in South Africa is based on the census 1996 data. The previously conducted censuses were not complete because they excluded some of the homelands like Bophuthatswana, Venda and Transkei. However, both the 1996 and 2001 census captures migration but do not cover the reasons why migration occurs (Casale & Posel, 2006). This information is instead captured in the household surveys conducted by Statistics South Africa and the 2001-2002 Human Sciences Research Council migration survey (Posel, et al., 2004). Further research were conducted by a number of scientists investigating the causes of internal migration in South Africa and the differentiated between the migrants and non-migrants (Peter. Kok, O'Donovan, Bouare, & van zyl, 2003). Their findings suggest that 24% of South

Africans have migrated across district boundaries for the period between 1945-1980 and 1992-1996. This was despite the abolition of the influx control laws in South Africa (Peter. Kok, et al., 2003). It was further found that generally Western Cape and Mpumalanga had high proportion of migration (31-32%) compared to other provinces, with Eastern Cape and Limpopo having the lowest (17-18%). Shack dwellers were found to be more likely migrants (32-35%) than people who live in formal dwellings (24-25%); and finally urban people were more migratory than people in the rural areas. Whites people were found to have more chances of migrating than other racial groups (Peter. Kok, et al., 2003). Most migrants state that they migrate in order to take up or find employment followed by demand for housing and for the purposes of Education (Posel, et al., 2004). While there is a large body of evidence on migration flows and the determinants of such movement, little has been done on the provision of housing to act as a pull factor of population movement. These data are particularly lacking in South Africa in general and for rural communities in particular.

Components of internal migration

Migration is an important event in demography of sub-Saharan Africa including South Africa despite its unpopular nature and less recognition compared to mortality and fertility (Oucho & Gould, 1993). There are two types of migratory moves; the internal and international migration. In order to respond to the objective and aims of this study, only internal migration will be discussed. Research findings assert that Internal migration is a movement of people within national boundaries while international migration involves inter country movement, and this is divided into four namely: rural-rural, rural-urban, urban-rural and urban-urban movements/migration (Oucho & Gould, 1993).

According to migration researchers, rural to urban migration is the most popular of the four types of internal migration as people move to urban areas in search of opportunities and hope to improve their lives (Pieter Kok, O'Donovan, Bouare, & van Zyl, 2008; Todaro, 1987). Initially people moved from rural to urban areas for them to participate in labour market activities. Due to difficulty to permanently settle in the urban areas this resulted in high circular and temporary kind of migratory movements (Posel, et al., 2004). The people who migrate are different in several ways from those who never move. They tend to be young males with high levels of education attainment than those who do not migrate (Posel, et al.,

2004). Wealth also plays an important role in the migration in that individuals who are financially well-off are more likely to migrate than those who cannot afford. Again individuals from households which can afford financially including those with pensioners are more likely to migrate as compared to those from households that have limited financial resources (Posel, et al., 2004; Roux, 2009; Todaro, 1987). Pensioners play a significant role to support migrant household members by providing financial support for the migrants while they are still looking for an employment and they also provide transport fares for their journey. One other important role they play includes looking after the children when their parents are away (Posel, et al., 2004).

Relating the above findings to this case study, the development of RDP houses has resulted in people being resettled from areas which are heavily overpopulated or lack housing facilities. This has resulted in population redistribution as people are moved to these housing developments. In theory, the new housing developments are meant to attract people from the immediate environments as it is expected to ease pressure in settlements within districts or towns. However, evidence shows that some of the movers into these housing developments move from far places and beyond the intended beneficiaries. Housing development induced migration is here assumed to be a growing concept that will generate an interest among researchers and it is very important for the development planning of the country, health policies as well as social development policies in many ways.

2.2.1 Migration history in South Africa and its conceptualization

The literature stresses that, migration from other parts of Africa to South Africa has a long history (Davies and Head, 1995). Moreover, Peberdy (1997:1) states that, at the regional level undocumented migration is closely related to South Africa's racially exclusive immigration legislation. Further evidence reveals that historically, the mining and agriculture sectors in South Africa have been dependent on migrant labour from Southern African countries. In fact much of South Africa's mineral and natural wealth has been produced by migrant mine workers (Jeeves, 1985 and Murray, 1995). Furthermore, the "historical influx of migrants to South Africa has created a high proportion of right less non-citizens, despite their length of residence which sometimes spans generation" (Reitzes, 1997). Census data from 1911 reveals

that more than 6% of the population comprised non-South Africans from the region and in the year 1961 there were approximately 836 000 regional migrants in South Africa (Peberdy, 1997).

Further documentation reveal that the apartheid government subtly encouraged or turned a blind eye to clandestine migration in order to ensure an abundant supply of cheap labour, but was opposed to black migrants applying for citizenship. The Aliens Control Act of 1991 was based on a 1913 aliens control act that excluded blacks and was amended in 1930 and 1937 to exclude Jews. Between 1913 and 1986 black people could only enter South Africa illegally or as contract workers as they were not allowed to apply for temporary or permanent resident permits (Peberdy and Crush, 1998b). The racist orientation of South African immigration policy became very evident when the government welcomed whites from neighbouring states in Southern Africa. Their mass incoming was viewed by black as threat, consequently on this basis, black were feeling threatened by white majority rule (Crush, 2000). Between 1960 and 1980, skilled and semi-skilled white migrants from Zambia, Kenya and Zimbabwe were given citizenship to boost the local population (Peberdy, 1997).

Crush (2000) suggests that the Aliens Control Act was implemented in a racially discriminatory manner in the post apartheid era. In the first quarter of 1996 about 130 000 visitors to South Africa remained in the country after their visas had expired, amongst these were: 12 000 from the UK, 11 000 from Germany, 3000 from the US, and about 1000 from Australia, Belgium, Switzerland and Taiwan, respectively. A very small proportion of these people were arrested and deported - 23 from the UK, 13 from Germany, 8 from the US, 4 from Australia, 2 from Belgium and 1 from Switzerland. In 1995 ninety eight percent of deportations were to Southern African countries. Estimates of the number of undocumented immigrants in South Africa vary widely. This was because the majority entered the country covertly. It is therefore not possible for the government or researchers to give a reasonable estimate of the number of migrants in the country (Hough, 1995). However, “in the vacuum exaggerated numbers predominate” (Crush and Williams, 2001:3). In 1990 the South African Yearbook indicated that there were about 1,2 million illegal immigrants in the country, in 1991 the estimate was 2 million, in 1992 it was 2,5 million, 3 million in 1993, and 5 million in 1994 (Minnaar et al., 1995:33). This documentation suggests that many of these migrants

have become South African citizen, hence beneficiaries of anything meant for the citizen (Ibid).

Conceptualizing migration in this context, research suggests that the concept and its associated components remain important in the analysis of migration data. Migration involves place of origin, this is where the movement starts and place of destination where the movement ends. Both place of origin and place of destination can either be rural, peri-urban or urban which according to Statistics South Africa are called geographical spatial units (Statistics South Africa, 2006). Other authors like Kok et al., (2003) provide a useful definition of migration as a process that ‘involves a change of a place and crossing of a boundary of the destination’. Skeldon (1990) refers to migration as a spatial movement of people in a certain point in time in their lives, who move for various reasons. The author further described the movement as either being permanent or semi-permanent change of place of residence (Skeldon, 1990).

The 1996 South Africa census refers to a migrant as a person who moves between magisterial district, while the 2001 South Africa census defined a migrant by using place of enumeration five years ago and current place of enumeration. If an individual never moved or changed a place of enumeration between 1996 and 2001 that person is not a migrant (Statistics South Africa, 2006). A place of residence usually refers to either urban or rural area. Cross (1998) defines urban and rural from household entitlement and resources perspectives as follows (Cross, Mngadi, & Mbhele, 1998):

“Urban to a household means complete reliance on urban wages and services, whilst rural means being able to bring rural entitlements along. These entitlements include access to natural resources on common property basis. Peri-urban areas mostly operate rural institutional systems through their traditional authority structures and are therefore less threatening than the new urban social fabric.”

2.3 Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP)

Following the establishment of a new democratic government, South Africa developed a comprehensive constitution containing the bill of rights among which was the right to housing for all South Africans. This prompted several other steps to formulate relevant policies and regulations to make sure that citizen get housed. Reconstruction and Development programme was one of the initial policies formulated to address the inequalities of the apartheid era. It aimed at addressing socio-economic problems within the South African growing economy, and to provide a non-racial society while trying to eradicate apartheid (African National Congress, 1994). Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) is a comprehensive socio-economic policy framework formulated by the South African democratic government under the leadership of the African National Congress (ANC) in 1994. The aim of RDP was to build a democratic, non-racial and non-racist nation intended to address the inequalities of the colonial or apartheid era. This involves eliminating hunger, providing land and housing to all citizens, providing access to safe water and sanitation, eliminating illiteracy and raising the quality of education (African National Congress, 1994).

Poverty is one of the biggest challenges in South Africa and a direct result of the apartheid era. RDP had key programmes focused on that included among others; meeting basic needs such as the provision of jobs, land, housing, access to safe drinking water, electricity and health care. In addition, access to a healthy environment and social welfare with the aim to reconstruct families and communities was also a major priority. Other programmes included: developing human resources, building the economy, democratising the state and society and finally implementing the RDP.

The basic principles guiding the RDP were for the programme to be integrated and sustainable. It was to be people driven, create peace and security for all. The programme was also meant to tackle South African massive divisions guided by principle of nation building while linking reconstruction and development. The following are the key programmes of the RDP:

- Meeting basic needs,
- Developing human resources
- Building economy

- Democratising the state and society, and
- Implementing RDP

As stated in the RDP White Paper (1994), this policy framework (RDP) offered South Africa a unique opportunity to bring renewal, peace, prosperity, reconciliation and stability among the South African citizens (Government of South Africa, 1994). The Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) needed to address inequalities resulting from colonialism, racism, apartheid repressive labour policies, create economic balance between racial groups and reduce the discrimination of women, such policy meant to be implemented. The policy also played a vital role in helping the marginalized group of people in rural areas. Moreover, it was again needed to close racial gaps that existed in the country and to bring peace and stability in South Africa (Government of South Africa, 1994). The framework was also fundamental in developing and improving the “black economy”, small and medium enterprises as well as to reduce the serious challenges facing all spheres of the society including: economic, social, legal, moral, cultural and environmental (Government of South Africa, 1994).

2.4 Housing dynamics in Sub-Saharan Africa

Research has shown that a politically inspired local redistribution and settlement programme usually affects the poor in various other ways (Foote, et al., 1993). This is reflected in many Sub-Saharan African countries as soon as they get independence they ‘*devillagise*’ (breaking a normal unit of community living, like a village), move, redistribute and regroup in informal settlements like squatter camps and areas that may be hazardous to people’s health (Oucho & Gould, 1993). Resettlement is understood in this work to mean moving individuals or a group of people to a different destination for various reasons that range from development, war or poverty. It involves moving or redistributing people who do not have places to stay, for example in Zimbabwe in the early 1980s after gaining independence; and in Botswana where people were regrouped. In both cases of Zimbabwe and Botswana, redistribution and resettlement of people was politically motivated (Oucho & Gould, 1993). Population redistribution is done to increase access of people to housing and essential services like better sanitation and access to health.

Population settlement and resettlement issues are linked to the development agenda around the world. These two elements are caused by different factors including overpopulation, poverty, major changes in allocation and use of land e.g. the construction of dams, industrialisation, political and war related issues (Cernea, 2002). However in the case of South Africa redistribution is for the sole reason of improving people's socio-economic status. Some movements are voluntary while others are involuntary or unplanned. Resettlement of communities is not a new concept in Africa; it has been done in countries like Nigeria, Kenya, Tanzania, Sudan, Ghana, Senegal and Burkina Faso. In Nigeria 44, 000 people were resettled during the building of Nigeria's Kainji dam which was completed in 1968 (Gyusea & Gyuse, 2008). The resettlement involved removal of people in large numbers within a short period of time. Other dam constructions that influenced resettlement of people include Aswan High dam in Egypt, the Kariba dam bordering Zambia and Zimbabwe, the Kossou dam in Cote d'Ivoire, and the Volta/Akosombo dam in Ghana (Gyusea & Gyuse, 2008).

What is important is to realise that every country is unique in handling resettlements. Some of these projects in one way or another did manage to improve the lives of people who were affected by different situations (Cernea, 2002). In some instances people are not just redistributed for individual benefit but also for the benefit of general population or state. For example in the above illustrations where people are redistributed for dam building project, which could attract tourism or other activities like fishing and all for the benefit of both the state and its population. In the case of South Africa however, redistributions are done to benefit individuals and households. In Tanzania they had a similar initiative like South Africa although the resettlement was prompted mainly by migration to urban cities. Tanzanian government with relevant stakeholders came together to make sure that people were properly housed. People were displaced to areas with better resources. This was confirmed by Posel et al (2002) asserting that it is not easy for governments in developing countries where economy is growing not to displace people in order to improve provision of infrastructure. Tanzania is one of the African countries experiencing rapid urbanisation of up to 8% per annum. The main reason this happens is the prevalence of rural to urban migration and the natural increase in this country. This is also similar to South Africa in that the country is transforming from the apartheid era and still has to deal with natural increase as well as the apartheid challenges. On the other hand unlike South Africa which has tried to put policies in place to deal with

housing, Tanzania still lack proper housing development resulting to poor housing conditions in the country (Ndezi, 2009).

In developing countries, due to wars, famine, apartheid or major disasters governments are forced to resettle vulnerable citizens. In South Africa people are resettled in order to alleviate overcrowding in urban townships. This overcrowding in some instances is caused by people who migrated to the cities while some escape from the brutality that existed in farms and others look for employment or greener pastures. Most of these reasons were a result of the apartheid government regime. These influxes resulted in formation of slums making peoples' lives more challenging without vital services (Department of Social Development, 1998).

2.5 History and political context of housing in South Africa

During the apartheid era, citizens were resettled for different reasons including discrimination and violence as major reasons set by the Native Land Act no.27 of 1913. In 1948, when the National party won the election it imposed even stricter form of residential segregation within the cities. The authorities used 100 meter wide buffer strips to separate the settlements and there were no routes that led directly to each other (Christopher, 1987).

More areas of this type were created resulting in relocation of more than 125 000 families mainly Coloureds and Indians (Hoggett, 2002). Black people were moved to make way for these families. Black people were forced to stay in townships (these are mass housing settlements mainly squatter settlements allocated to black South Africans during the apartheid government to segregate them from other racial groups) on the outskirts of the cities usually in the least attractive areas (Hoggett, 2002). This social engineering caused a lot of destruction and challenges for many Africans as they faced forced removals and relocations. Moreover, this exercise required major reconstruction and re-planning in some cities (Christopher, 1987).

Many cities around the world including European, informally segregated people according to their religion or race but, in the South African situation the government took segregation further and established it into a law (Hoggett, 2002). The apartheid government established Group Area Act. Segregation by race in South Africa controlled every planning that took

place in the country (Christopher, 1987) In KwaZulu-Natal besides the apartheid influence on resettlement of people, violence characterised the resettlement of individuals. This violence induced resettlement, spread the marginal communities all around the province which contributed to these communities not having planned physical infrastructure. The people settled in slums made of weak or poor material with no water, electricity or roads.

Construction of townships and hostels was more forceful following the passing of Group Area Act to house black Africans. This massive production of cheap houses did not have basic social services like running water and electricity and paved roads (Hoggett, 2002). These townships did not have industrial development or any means of economic independence which resulted in unemployment being high. The Group Areas Act of 1950 (Act No. 41 of 1950) was an act of parliament created under the apartheid government of South Africa. This act assigned different racial or population groups to different residential and business places. The motive of this act was to prevent non-Whites/non-Europeans from staying in well developed areas, n.d). In 1991 Group Area Act became difficult to enforce and was lifted (Hoggett, 2002). However the apartheid government had a fear to revoke the influx control laws because they thought it would lead to massive rural to urban migration (Pieter Kok, Gelerblom, Oucho, & Zyl, 2006). Although many Africans remained in the townships others started moving into urban areas and this led to estimations that Black population would grow by 60,000 a year in the 1990s and would be 17.7 million by 2000 and 23.6 million by 2010 (Hoggett, 2002).

The apartheid government disadvantaged the majority of non-White South Africans and made it difficult for them to access housing in their policy formulation. During apartheid, White and Black citizens were governed by different laws which resulted in spatial planning that marginalised the majority of the citizens (Department of Housing, 2004; Rosenberger, 2003; Roux, 2009). First, the Group Area Act as mentioned above motivated the segregation of people according to their race. This led non-White South Africans to have no access to decent housing and service provision. In addition, the land Act allowed the majority of White South Africans to own land and just a few of non-White communities (Encyclopedia Britannica eb-com) (n.d). It was difficult especially for the people of colour mostly Black South Africans to access houses because they were regarded as a high risk, hence houses were made expensive

for many not to afford them. This left the current South African government with a back log to provide a lot of people with houses (de Souza Briggs, 1998). The people could not afford loans to finance their houses due to high unemployment among the Black community (de Souza Briggs, 1998; Vorster, 2005), forcing them to be confined in townships or impoverished rural areas (Mubangizi, 2008).

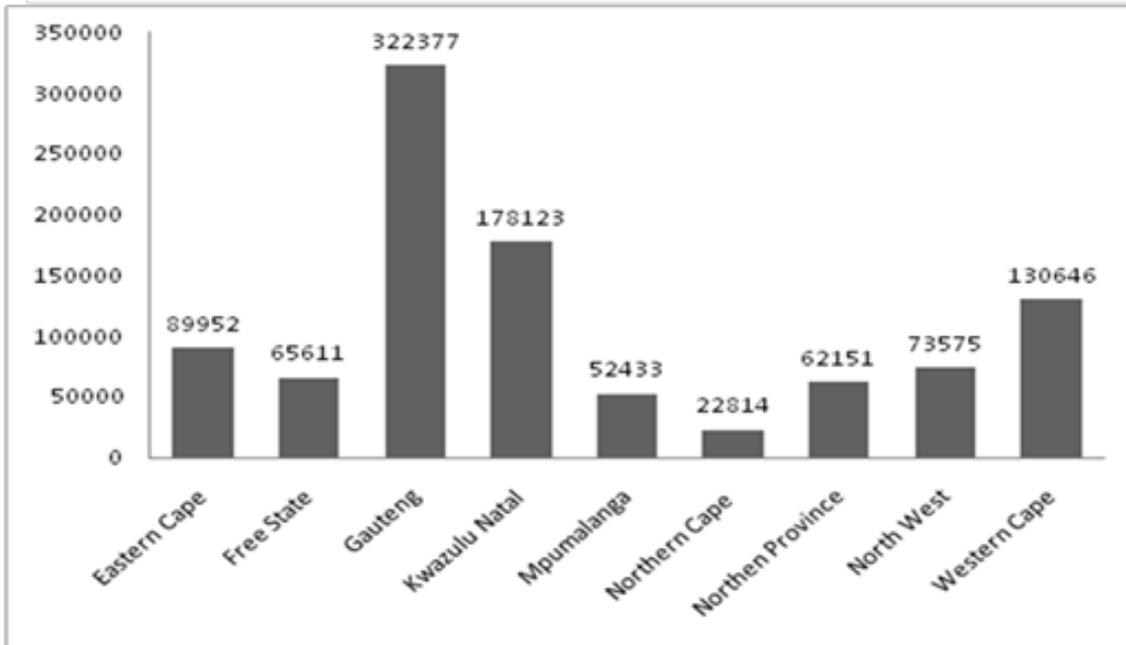
Initially, movement in South Africa was predominantly due to labour migration of people working in the mines (Department of Social Development, 1998). The majority of Black people who worked in the mines came from the homelands '*Bantustans*', where their families stayed behind and where many were forced to remain resulting in poverty and lack of opportunities (Hoggett, 2002). Although it was not easy for citizens in rural areas and townships to freely move around the country, due to laws that were restrictive during the apartheid era, there was still a number of people who moved to urban areas in search of employment, and ended up in informal settlements because they had nowhere to live (Bezuidenhout, 2009; Guillaume & Houssay-Holzschuch, 2002; Todaro, 1987). Hostels (areas that were intended for Black people who worked in cities or suburbs) formed a bigger part of the townships. Migration in South Africa was controlled by racial segregation which still controls settlement patterns in the country (Hoggett, 2002). Wealthier mines and cities were set aside for Whites while Blacks were restricted to townships and homelands except for purposes of work (Hoggett, 2002). The apartheid government tried by all means to stop Africans from coming into the cities and confined them into the designated homelands. In the rural areas, then homelands '*Bantustans*' were set up and were organised based on race/ethnicity and religious groupings and no investment was put to these settlements (Hoggett, 2002).

Africans were never urbanised and settlers took advantage of colonialism to restrict and control their movement into the cities (Hoggett, 2002). Those who worked for the whites stayed in segregated hostels or in the townships. Even after the countries in the Southern Africa region gained their independence, they still maintained the colonial structures that segregated citizens' hence high level of inequalities between citizens with the majority living in extreme poverty and unemployment.

The South African democratically elected government has created a balance by developing programmes such as Reconstruction Development Programme (RDP) to readdress inequalities in access to housing (Besada, 2007) by alleviating population pressure on some rural areas, and resettling people to new areas. The South African reconstruction programme targets citizens who were previously marginalised. To qualify for the houses they have to meet a certain criteria mainly: they must be above 18 years of age, married or have dependants and be South African citizens or be in possession of a permanent residence, and there should not be discrimination by gender (Catherine, 2005). However, as indicated in the previous chapter on (South African history of migration) some of the criteria set like being in possession of permanent residency allowed the immigrants who were already in the country during apartheid and working in mines previously to become beneficiary of the RDP projects as they qualified based on the criteria set.

In 1994 there was one formal brick house for every 43 Africans compared to 3.5 for Whites; whereas the urban backlog of housing was estimated to be at least 1.3 million units in the same year (Knight, 2001). The apartheid government had spent only 1.3% of the budget on housing in 1993 and only 50,000 houses were built. This was regardless of the 7.5 to 10 million people who lived in informal housing, squatter camps and back yard in Black townships (figure 2.1) (Marais, 2005). To reach required numbers, 130,000 houses had to be build every year (Knight, 2001).

Figure 2. 1 Total number of houses completed or under construction April 1994- March 2000



Source: South African Department of Human Settlement, www.dhs.gov.za November 2010 (Department of Human Settlement, 2005)

Since 1994, South Africa has built 2.7 million houses that provided shelter to over 13 million people. In March 2009 toward the end of the financial year, 2.8 million houses would reportedly have been built around the country, resulting in housing 13.5 million people (Mabaya, 2009). Looking at provision of houses by province, KwaZulu Natal was the second with 178,123 houses, which received higher number of houses following Gauteng with 322,377 houses (Knight, 2001). In 2001 reporters alluded that, even though 5 million houses had already been provided 7.5 million houses were still required, and two to three million people still had to receive houses and the majority of these people lived in informal settlements (Streek, 2001).

Despite the effort by the new South African government to provide subsidised houses to its citizens, this was not without challenges. An enormous need for housing which prompted supply of mass houses opened a window for corruption and compromised on the quality of houses, whereby many people who did not qualify received houses fraudulently (Xundu & Mabaso, 2008), leading to people around the country believe that foreigners are given preference and receive houses that were intended for them hence xenophobic attacks (Donaldson, 2001). This has also been obvious through media showing protest around the

country for services provision (Haas, 2009). More recent protest in Alexandra in the Gauteng province can be a clear explanation of the citizen's perception of the RDP management. This has shown the local urging the foreign community occupying the RDP houses to leave within a short notice regardless of the ways through which they later got these houses (eNews 2011).

Another challenge was that because the focus was in providing as many houses as possible within a short period of time and as administratively possible, this compromised the quality of the structures (Haas, 2009) resulting in this exercise simulating the apartheid era. The houses were built far-off from commercial centres and making it expensive for the poor people to afford everyday travelling hence re-emergence of slums (Abahlali baseMjondolo movement South Africa, 2008). Slums, informal settlements, squatter camps or shacks are either houses built with papers, card boards and corrugated iron sheets. They are either located on the back yard of the townships or they are built in the informal areas where there are no social services. They are usually found in the periphery of the urban centres (Hoggett, 2002). Most of these settlements were formed during the apartheid era, where citizens would illegally move to the urban centres in search for employment and did not have place to stay hence opting to stay in slums (Ralegoma, 2008).

It had since been a concern to other researchers that the current South African housing policy would 'entrench and reinforce rather than reduce existing inequalities that are the legacy of apartheid' (Lalloo, 1999:35). Most of RDP housing developments are situated in awkward areas, far from commercial areas where most of them [citizens] work which eventually prompts return movement to informal settlements. Other dynamics to the provision of these houses was that, beneficiaries sell or rent the houses as they decide on returning back to shacks. This is so because of the small sizes of the houses or either the houses are built far from the commercial centres making accessibility a problem (Catherine, 2006; Cross, 2005; Department of Housing, 2004). The lack of capacity of Municipal personnel in the provision of services posed more challenges in the provision of these houses. Municipalities either recruit employees without relevant skills or they do not have enough capacity to match the demand.

2.6 South African Housing Policy

After 1994 the Government of National Unity, led by the ANC, adopted the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP). The RDP set a goal of building 300 000 houses a year with a minimum of one million low - cost houses to be constructed over a period of five years (Knight 2004: 2). The emphasis was on providing a large number of people with a smaller product rather than a providing a smaller product to more people. The Housing Act (No. 107 of 1997) acknowledges that housing the nation is one of the greatest challenges facing the Government of National Unity. This challenge is derived not only from the large housing backlog and the extreme anxiety and impatience of the homeless, but it comes from the enormously bureaucratic, administrative, financial and institutional framework inherited from the previous government (Mvuyana 2010).

The Housing White Paper sets out the framework for the National Housing Policy. The Housing Act aligned the National Housing Policy and is also aligned with the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa. The Constitution outlines the powers and functions of the three spheres of government as mentioned above. The administrative procedures for the National Housing Policy are laid down in the Housing Act. The National Housing Policy also sets out the demographic profile of South Africa as at 1995. It estimates a population projection of almost 42,8 million. The number of households was estimated at 8,3 million, with the average household size nationwide at 4,97 people. This represents an average of 200 000 new households formed annually between 1995 and 2000. The urbanization rate was estimated at 28 million (66 %). This means that 14, 5 million people reside in rural areas, and many of whom will spend part of their working lives in the urban areas (National Housing Policy 1997: 10). The Act also estimates that about 61 % of all urban households will live in formal housing or share formal housing with their relatives. It also estimates that, there will be approximately 27 000 informal settlements in South Africa. The Acts also estimates that 5.2 % of all households presently reside in public sector hostel accommodation. There are new hostels that have been built to accommodate the increasing numbers and the existing ones are being upgraded. It is also estimated that 13.5 % of households lives in squatter housing nationwide (National Housing Policy 1997: 11). The lower rate of housing delivery has been caused by the high rates of new households being formed. This results in a massive growth in the number of people housed in squatter housing.

Cloete, Venter and Marais (2009: 29) state that the National Minister of Housing launched the “Breaking New Ground” Plan in September 2004. It is a comprehensive Plan for the Development of Sustainable Human Settlements. The Comprehensive Housing Plan for the Development of Integrated Sustainable Human Settlements, commonly known as the Breaking New Ground (BNG) Housing Plan of 2004, is broadly based upon ideas already referred to in the foundational document, the White Paper on Housing, as well as in the Housing Code. The BNG housing plan is divided into seven business plans, with Business Plan Number Three, the Social (Medium-Density) Housing Programme, elaborating on social housing aspects. Government’s commitments towards social housing were further institutionalized (Cloete et al. 2009: 29).

The aim of the Breaking New Growth Plan was to redress colonial and apartheid spatial planning and development by developing a socially, economically and spatially integrated housing delivery (Hopkins 2008: 8). The aims of the Breaking New Ground Policy are as follows:

- to articulate an independent view on the implementation of the Breaking New Ground Policy, to inform the development of an implantation strategy and plan for the Breaking New Ground Policy,
- to recommend specific actions proposed by the Reference Group, and
- to draw stakeholder attention to the possible implications of the BNG and the implementation of recommended actions (Hopkins 2008: 4).

The National Housing Code (2009: 18-19) states the objectives set out in the Breaking New Ground Plan to include: accelerating housing delivery as a key strategy for poverty alleviation, the provision of housing as a strategy for job creation, improving economic growth, fighting crime and improving the quality of life for the poor; supporting the function of the entire single residential property market by breaking the barriers between the first and the second economy, using houses as sustainable human settlements in supporting spatial restructuring. promoting and facilitating an affordable rental and social housing market, promoting the upgrading of informal settlements, providing community supporting facilities through housing delivery (Hopkins: 2008: 4).

Social housing was financed by the institutional subsidy mechanism and was focused on households earning less than R3 500 per month. The new revised Social Housing Policy under BNG makes provision for the establishment of restructuring zones and the allocation of grants to these zones for households / persons earning between R1500 and R7500 per month (Cloete et al 2009: 30). Therefore, those who were not accommodated before are now included in the subsidy scheme for the government. Cloete et al (2009: 30) maintains that the Social Housing Policy states two primary objectives: Firstly, to contribute to the national priority of shaking-up South African society in order to address structural, economic, social and spatial disfunctionalities. This should contribute to Government' s vision of an economically empowered, non-racial, and integrated society living in sustainable human settlements. Secondly, to improve and contribute to the overall functioning of the housing sector, and in particular, the rental sub-component thereof, especially insofar as social housing is able to contribute to widening the range of housing options available to the poor. (Cloete et al: 2009)

The BNG Plan was required to redirect and enhance existing mechanisms to move towards more responsive and effective service delivery. It was also required to promote the achievement of a non-racial, integrated society through sustainable development of human settlements and the provision of quality housing. The upgrading of informal settlements through the BNG Plan has led to the stabilization and integration of these areas into a broader urban fabric (Hopkins 2008:10). The aim is to provide housing in healthy and secure living environments with communities having access to the services and goods produced by society. This plan adopts a phased in-situ upgrading approach. This plan is aimed at relocating households where developments are not possible or desired because of the type of the location. This includes surveying, provision of basic services and housing development. This is undertaken in a flexible manner to cater for local communities. Municipalities will have to seek new funding which will support the upgrading on an area as opposed to individual bases. This upgrading approach will have to provide a total package of infrastructure such as clinics, schools, police stations, and other community facilities (Hopkins 2008; Mvuyana 2010; National Department of social welfare 2009).

Analytical framework to be used in the study

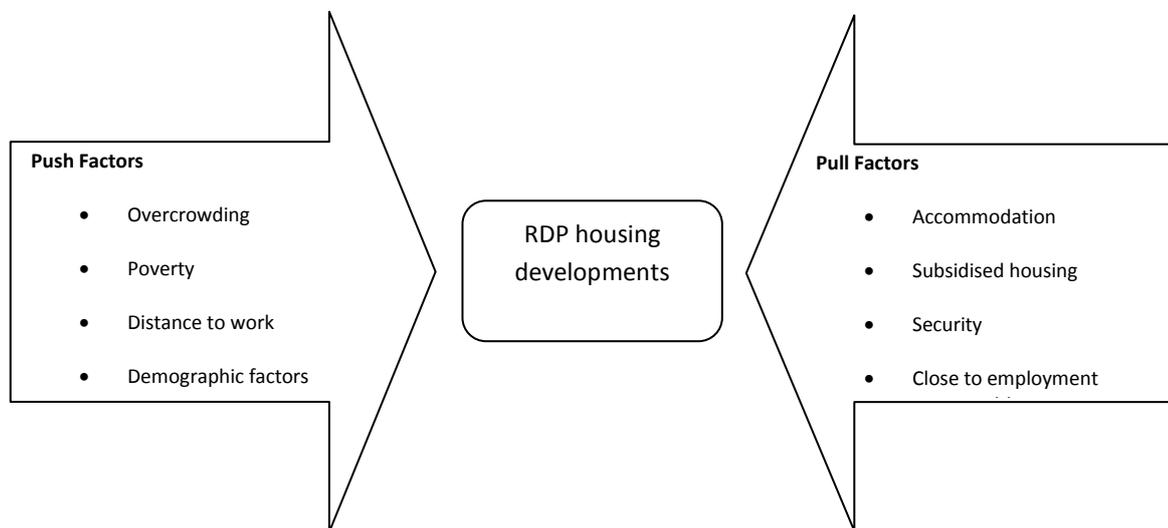
Figure 3.1 below presents analytical framework through which the analysis and findings could be structured and compared as shown in figure 3.1. This includes defining the scope and limits of the factors that we are analyzing as well as providing definitions of terminologies that were used.

The provision of subsidised houses to South African citizens has been a major policy objective, which aimed to provide infrastructure and social services among communities. However the demographic characteristics of who move into RDP houses are not clear. This dissertation tries to identify the demographic factors central to movement of individuals into the RDP housing development using Indlovu village as a case study. During the early 1990's the South African Government created Reconstruction and Development policy which aimed at addressing inequalities among the South African citizens. This followed the oppressions imposed on other groups of citizens during the apartheid era. Among other things this policy aimed to address shortage of housing, poor quality of health and education. The policy focused mainly on the previously disadvantaged groups of citizens (Besada, 2007). The South African democratic government supplied subsidised houses to the citizens. The criteria were set that would guide the allocation and distribution of the houses. The citizens had met some criteria cited in the introduction by (African National Congress, 1994; Catherine, 2008).

According to migration theories unpleasant conditions at the place of origin can push a person to migrate. While on the other hand things that may attract a person can pull him/her towards their destination(Lee, 1966). In the case of this work the most important push factors include the overcrowding, homelessness or poverty that supports the move. Moreover, the people who qualify for the houses who live in these conditions may consider a move to improve their living conditions. Other push factors include a desire to shorten the distance between work and home. Therefore, a person applies for the house with a hope to reduce a distance he/she travels to work every day. Another push factor may be that according to the criteria set out an individual qualifies.

Pull factors are the attractions that exist in the destination. Unlike the existing school of thoughts, in this case jobs or employment is not the most important attraction factor, instead this is a supply driven pull, so the pull factor will be to obtain accommodation as well as security of tenure. The other pull factor is getting the subsidised house itself which will be closer to employment. The decision to move is not necessarily based on cost but on whether a person qualifies for the house. However intervening obstacles like having no means to obtain proper documentation to apply may act as a deterrence to move.

Figure 3. 1 Pull and Push factors into RDP housing developments



Based on Lee’s push-pull theory(Everett S Lee, 1966)

In addition to the above theory, Ravenstein (1889) complements Lee’s theory and argues that migration was governed by a “push-pull” process. He explains push as being unfavourable conditions in one place (oppressive laws, heavy taxation, etc.) Pushes people out, and favourable conditions in an external location pull them in another province, city or country. Ravenstein (1889)’s laws stated that the primary cause for migration was better external economic opportunities. The volume of migration decreases as distance increases; migration occurs in stages instead of one long move; population movements are bilateral; and migration differentials (e.g., sex, social class, age) influence a person's mobility. Relying on these two elements in attempting to explain theories of migration, the literature suggest that several

theories have been developed to treat international patterns of migration on their own terms, but the push and pull theories are the most variants.

The existing evidence suggests that, many theorists have followed in Ravenstein's footsteps, and the dominant theories in contemporary scholarship are more or less variations of his conclusions. For example, Lee (1966) reformulated Ravenstein's theory to give more emphasis to push factors. Lee also outlined the impact that intervening obstacles have on the migration process. He argued that variables such as distance, physical and political barriers, and having dependents can impede or even prevent migration. Lee (1966) pointed out that the migration process is selective because differentials such as age, gender, and social class affect how persons respond to push-pull factors, and these conditions also shape their ability to overcome intervening obstacles. Furthermore, personal factors such as a person's education, knowledge of a potential receiver population, family ties, and the like can facilitate or retard migration (Ravenstein 1885 and Lee 1966). In addition to the above factors and in the context of this study; proximity to the city, the working place as well as qualifying for an RDP house was some of the pulling factors.

While the above theory is limited to that of push and pull factors, economic theories focus on migration as a choice of people who wish to better their economic circumstances, in much Sociological and Anthropological literature. Hence, migration has been seen in a negative context, occurring as a last resort of the poor in response to economic, demographic and environmental shocks, and leading to their exploitation and further impoverishment (de Haan 1999). Research suggests that, in recent years there has been an expansion of interest in a more balanced approach to migration in the context of the sustainable livelihoods framework (Rogaly et al, 2002). This emphasizes that: whilst migration does occur in response to crisis for some, it is also a central livelihood strategy for many people in the face of physical, economic, social and political adversity; and the impact of poverty and vulnerability on migration and implications of migration for well-being are highly context specific (Ibid).

On the contrary to economic theories, which tend to view migration as a response to disequilibria such as inter sectoral wage disparity, a livelihoods approach views migration as one of a set of strategies that households and communities use to diversify and support well-being (de Haan 2002). The livelihoods framework refers to a broad spectrum of migration causation, encompassing monetary and non-monetary factors, and voluntary and forced

migration, as stated by Kothary (2002:9) where decision-making occurs within a broad context of factors at the micro-level (individual and household circumstances and decision making), meso-level (socio-economic conditions at source and destination areas) and macro level (speed and unevenness of the development process and national and international policy environment).

2.7 Demographic determinants of moving into RDP housing development

Since the 1990s South Africa experienced a lofty movement of individuals following the end of apartheid. When the influx control system fell so was also the restriction of movement into and within the country (Landau & wa Kabwe Sagatti, 2009). Subsequent to 1994 democratic elections South Africa invited a lot of attention and researchers started analysing and evaluating migration situation in the country. This movement continues to change the economy of South Africa and the population dynamics than before (Landau & wa Kabwe Sagatti, 2009).

Generally according to migration literature, internal migrants have unique demographic and socio-economic features as compared to the general population (Oucho & Gould, 1993). Review of studies from developing countries shows that migration causes rural-urban structural imbalance through movement of well-educated young people from rural areas (Todaro, 1987). Central to a better understanding of a development process, it is vital to understand causes, determinants and consequences of housing induced migration. It is again significant to understand who moves and why they move, this is imperative to inform planning, decision making, economy as well as the social development of both rural and urban areas. It has previously been reported that people migrate for several reasons including economic reasons, education, social and political instability (Todaro, 1987). While these may be important they might not be sufficient to explain population movement into RDP housing developments or housing induced migration in the country (Foote, et al., 1993). The present study has then considered particular aspects as organized below and are used to explain migration into RDP housing.

2.7.1 Age

Vital in migration is age and gender (Oucho & Gould, 1993; Todaro, 1987). Research also indicates that male who are young individuals tend to be more mobile (Todaro, 1987). From a different review, most researchers stated that age group 20-24 years is considered as a model age group (Oucho & Gould, 1993). While in the population review researchers show that movement is more prevalent in the 25-29 age groups and continue to show that migration is low in children except in those who are aged below 5 where high rates of movement are observed (Todaro, 1987). The high movement in the under five children is said to be as a result of movement with their parents and this clearly tells that young adults in the child bearing age groups are the ones that are more mobile (Roux, 2009). Relating the above studies' findings to the criteria set for this research, the current is premised on findings that people above 18 years (as required by the RDP framework) are more likely to move with the intention to form families, get accommodation and to be located in proximity to work. In this case they will move with their children not only the young but also those in the age group of twenty and below.

2.7.2 Gender

Research had found that migration stream is more dominated by men than women, although this might have changed now due to globalization (Posel, et al., 2004; Todaro, 1987). During colonial period as indicated in the previous pages, men were recruited to take jobs in the mines and agricultural sectors. They took positions in the blue and white collar jobs; and were not allowed to bring their families or wives along (Oucho & Gould, 1993). This resulted in more men in the place of destination and more females in the place of origin or homes. The trend has changed with the number of labour migration being reduced (Roux, 2009). Women were kept out of migration system by the institutional set up, and besides they were not allowed to move with their partners and they could not be allowed to access land on their own. A research finding revealed that, if women migrate, they return home frequently, and tend to migrate closer to home than males (Roux, 2009).

Recently, female migration is on the increase (Muhwava et al., 2010) and this is motivated by same economic motives as males. Furthermore, they are more likely to be coming from areas where gender roles are not strict (Oucho & Gould, 1993). Another dimension to women

migration is that they are more likely to migrate if in their household of origin there was a pensioner and with this pensioner being a woman herself; the likelihood of women migrants visiting home frequently and usually to support families when they got enumerated are very high (Posel, et al., 2004). In the case of this dissertation it is assumed that both males and females have equal chances of moving into Indlovu village, hence equivalent chance of migrating. This observation opposes the report by the South African National Department of social welfare (2009) which suggests that the government's housing regulation gives preference to household headed by women. This could be as a result of policies of democratic government that are against gender discrimination or inequalities. Also men and women now take same jobs and their patterns of movement are likely to be the same. One example is the South African constitution; the bill of rights where it states clearly that all citizens are equal. The constitution promotes respect of gender equality as well as protection, development and attainment of the gender equality (Republic of South Africa, 1996). This fundamental tenet under the Bill of Rights of the constitution promotes the rights of all its citizens irrespective of race, gender class. Age and disabilities (Republic of South Africa, 1996). Previously women could not have a bank account or own a house without the consent of his husband. Women were considered secondary citizens of the state. This is also evident where now women can go to school like men; they can also own houses and bank accounts without consulting their partners.

Relating the above to the movement of women into RDP houses, and with reference to the South African policy on gender equality; it is well documented that since 1994, the Government of South Africa is committed to reducing discrimination of women through RDP (Government of South Africa, 1994). Commission for Gender equality (2010), although is also mandated to deal generally with issues surrounding gender equality in South Africa. It was however evident that woman were previously more challenged than their male counterparts. The majority of the women still live in the rural areas which are still underdeveloped and stricken by poverty. This came as a result of apartheid laws coupled with repressive customs and traditions which disempowered women. Moreover, women are still highly physically and psychologically abused in South Africa, exposing them to HIV/AIDS infection risks and other challenges. The inequality in power sharing between men and women also led to inequality in sharing of resources such as information, time and income,

which all render women vulnerable and disadvantaged group of the South African community (Commission for Gender equality, 2010; The Office on the status of women, 2000).

2.7.3 Marital status

Research has confirmed that migrant women who are divorced, separate and abandoned are more likely to migrate (Roux, 2009). They do not need to be in the company or to be supported by a male to migrate. They migrate to join formal employment. The young and single women have also increased in the international migration. The assumptions of this dissertation is that single and separated or the divorced would still dominate this induced migration streams, however also those who come from big families and those who want to live alone are more likely to move. However, linking this movement to the requirement of receiving a RDP house, this group of individuals may require places to form families of which has been in this case already provided by the RDP housing development. The opportunity provided by the RDP qualifying the individual who are married or who have children for a RDP in a more affordable way, is a sign of seeing many women migrating in these houses.

2.7.4 Education Attainment

Education is another vital differential in migration. Studies had established a positive relationship between migration and education. During colonial period educated males migrated to urban areas to take white and blue collar jobs while their uneducated counterparts migrated to the mines and agricultural destinations. Using educational qualifications as requirement to obtain jobs made it difficult for women to move into urban areas (Oucho & Gould, 1993). Subsequent to increased enrolment to formal schools since the 1980s things changed, in the 1990s when women became increasingly mobile (Roux, 2009) they started moving into urban areas either with their partners in a family or as individuals looking for a formal employment though they were mostly subjected to low paying jobs amongst which: domestic work and even commercial sex (Roux, 2009). In general, migrants tend to report more education than non-migrants (Oucho & Gould, 1993).

These findings suggest in other ways that educated people are more likely to get employment. On the basis that many people who moved in RDP houses were motivated initially by the reason of living closer to the working place implies that educated people will likely move into

RDP houses. In line with Oucho and Gould (1993) pointing out that most of those who migrate tend to be educated, these might therefore have means to move as well as an access to information quickly than those with less or without education.

2.8 Socio-economic determinants of migration

The nature of migration has changed overtime and migration has since been part of human history and for an individual to move, he/ she needs some kind of social or financial resource to do so. This explains why wealthy people tend to be more mobile than the poor individuals (Haas, 2009). On the other hand, family connections are more important than economic factors for migration to be sustained, whereby the presence of a family member or friend in the destination makes it easier for an individual to move. Even though this has been the case, the households with an elderly person receiving grants also play a pivotal role in enabling members to migrate (Posel, et al., 2004; Todaro, 1987). The money that an elder receives might be used to sustain a member of the family while still looking for a job. Another mobile group is the unskilled, with less years of schooling but who have financial support from their family members (Todaro, 1987).

However as much as wealthy people are more likely to move, those with low socio-economic status are also more likely to move than wealthier as they search for job opportunities and proximity to employments and access to big cities. Based on the criteria set for people to move in the RDP houses and owing to the area of the research which is very rural and poverty stricken, poor people can likely qualify for this move. This could also be possible considering the socio-economic status of the population under-study, whose status is determined by using a number of assets a household has. These assets may be accumulated over time or could have been inherited from parents. This is a gap on this variable. The wealthy (based on the assets) individuals have the high chances of moving as well as those who are in the low socio-economic status. This is so because the subsidy is income based instead of asset based. In the policy there is no provision for other forms of economy. Therefore, migration both national and international is not only determined by socio-economic status but also some other elements are to be considered, for example the criteria set for RDP houses which are exclusive of economic status but social

CHAPTER 3: METHODS

3.1 Background

This study looks at the population of the Indlovu Village. More importantly the people who moved from the Demographic Surveillance Area (DSA) into the RDP houses built in Indlovu Village. The study seeks to examine the demographic characteristics of these individuals in relation to their age, gender, place of origin, socio-economic status, their educational attainment, employment status, type of households and marital status in 2003. The main reason for setting up this housing development was to alleviate poverty, reduce overcrowding, and to address the housing backlog in KwaMsane settlement and surrounding areas (Swartz, 2009). The households that shared a homestead at KwaMsane Township were the primary intended beneficiaries of the RDP housing development.

3.2 The study setting

The dissertation builds on a quantitative analysis of the data from the Africa Centre Demographic Surveillance Area (DSA) which tracks longitudinal demographic changes of the population of Mpukunyoni. Data used for this study were collected for the household surveillance and household socio-economic status (HSE) in 2003 and 2006. The household surveillance regularly collects demographic data of the community. This surveillance is carried out twice a year while the HIV surveillance is done once a year. Moreover, information on household assets is always collected by the HSE. These assets get aggregated to determine the household wealth index. The Africa Centre Demographic Information System (ACDIS) was established to describe the demographic, social and health impact of the HIV epidemic in the population going through the health transition and to monitor the impact of intervention strategies on the HIV epidemic (Tanser, 2007). In Field sites data are collected on deaths including cause of death, births and movements of the population as a way of evaluating health care interventions and other studies (Hosegood & Timæus, 2001). The Africa Centre DSA work is characterised mainly by household and HIV surveillances.

The ACDIS is acknowledged by many researchers to be an important dataset for the study of household and family structure and dynamics in Africa. The DSA is part of Hlabisa sub-district located 250 km north of Durban. The surveillance area is located near Mtubatuba

town. This area is 438 km² in size with approximately 90,000 people who are members of 11,000 households (Tanser, 2007) and it includes Mpukunyoni traditional authority and former Black township KwaMsane. The DSA is divided into three areas namely: the urban, peri-urban and rural area. The average household size is 7.8 in the DSA (Hosegood & Timæus, 2001). This household size is too large compared to 5.7 in 1990 and 4.6 in 2007, in KwaZulu Natal as a whole respectively(Health Systems Trust). Moreover, an average household in the DSA is double the average size in the whole South Africa which is 4.5 in 1990 and 3.9 in 2007 (Health Systems Trust).The study population is predominantly of Zulu ethnicity. There is limited infrastructural development in the area and the primary source of income is waged labour, pensions and farming.

Indlovu village is an RDP housing development within the Africa Centre Demographic Surveillance Area (DSA). Indlovu village is situated on the northern part of the DSA. It is classified as an urban part of the Africa Centre research area, the only RDP housing development within the DSA and for this reason is deemed appropriate for the purpose of this study. To achieve the objectives of this dissertation, data from the household surveillance was used. This data is appropriate for this kind of analysis owing to its longitudinal nature. Longitudinal surveillances are strong in addressing complex, interlinked issues of social transitions in the prospective way, longitudinal and observation systems. The data would also allow a more thorough and consistent analysis, and provide a precise measure of the extent of migration from the DSA to Indlovu village in 2003. In addition, it will provide an insight into determinants of individuals who move into the RDP housing development. All the demographic events data are collected including tracing in and out movement of residents and non residents. This gives an opportunity to trace the origins of the individuals who stay in Indlovu village originating from the DSA.

The Africa Centre included Indlovu village in the 2006 surveillance because the Centre anticipated that many people from the DSA would move to the village and be lost to follow-up (Appendix 1). If the Centre did not take this measure, it could have appeared as if there was mass migration of people out of the research area. In this respect data on this Indlovu village housing development was used because there is detailed information on demographic and socio-economic status of these individuals. The data is suitable for this work because it is

longitudinal, and tracks both internal and external migrations. This means that the data tracks the movement of the DSA population within the boundaries of the research area, which involves tracking movements between Isigodis and Wards. While on the other hand it also tracks movements of the population beyond the boundaries of the research area. This includes the neighbouring towns, villages as well as places like Durban and Johannesburg. The external migrants amount to 10% of the whole DSA population (Muhwava, Nyirenda, Mutevedzi, Herbst, & Hosegood, 2007). It is easy to know where a person comes from and his or her demographic and household information. Longitudinal data are repeated observations of research units that are observed overtime (Hosegood & Timæus, 2001). However, this work focuses on the observations that occurred between 1 January 2003 and the 1 October 2006.

3.2.1 Data source and study population

The Africa Centre demographic surveillance collects data on individuals residents and households. A resident is a person who usually stays at a home for most of the time meaning four or more days in a week with his/her household. While non-resident is considered as a person who is part of the household but resides somewhere and spends less than four days in a week with his household (Muhwava, et al., 2007). The data are captured in the Africa Centre Demographic Information System (ACDIS). Individual events like deaths, migration, pregnancies, deliveries, household events (household formation, migration and change of household head) and the bounded structure (start of a new building, change of building's main purpose or its owner) are collected. An additional data is collected on household socio-economic status. Socio-economic data are usually collected once a year, unlike the demographic data which are collected in biannual rounds. This area is characterised by multiple household memberships (this means one person may belong or be a member of more than one household), and complex and varied social arrangements (inter/intra household relationships) (Hosegood & Timæus, 2001). Because of the above, a new housing development may lead to a break up of such households and it would be interesting to see who in the household breaks away to their own home stead. Therefore, the unit of analysis or the eligibility criteria for inclusion in the study were;

- all the individuals who are resident in Indlovu village from the 1st October 2006 and
- all the Indlovu residents in the DSA on 1st of January 2003 who were under surveillance.

3.4 Data collection

The demographic and socio-economic data used in this study were obtained using structured questionnaires and face-to-face interviews of household informants. The informant is asked about all household members. The questionnaires are administered by well-trained fieldworkers (interviewers) who are native isiZulu speakers, which is the common language spoken by the respondents.

Supervisors validate interview findings by visiting at least 5% of homesteads visited by field workers in the preceding period. In addition, unannounced spot checks are made. All questionnaires from the field are checked by supervisors and the questionnaire records are entered into Microsoft SQL database specifically developed for the Africa Centre data management.

3.2.1 Inclusion criteria/study selection criteria

The unit of analysis was an individual resident in the DSA on the 1st January 2003. An expected outcome was whether an individual had moved or not. To determine the movement; age, sex, household of origin in the DSA, place of origin (whether an individual came from the urban, peri-urban or rural part of the DSA; or whether they originated from the DSA or elsewhere) and marital status and household characteristics (head of household education and employment, type of household) were explored.

The 2003 data was used to determine movement of individuals from the DSA, and 2006 data was used to profile the community of Indlovu village. The year 2003 and 2006 were selected based on when the people started occupying houses in Indlovu village and the period during which the Africa Centre started including the village in the surveillance (Muhwava, et al., 2007).

This dissertation aims to examine the demographic and socio-demographic characteristics of people who migrated into Indlovu Village from 1st January 2003 to 1st October 2006 and investigates the determinants of their movement into this housing development, specifically

looking at the characteristics of those who moved compared to those who did not move from the DSA. This work further determines the place of origin and household characteristics of those who migrated whether they came from the rural, urban or peri-urban of the DSA. Finally this study assesses the relationship between what government policy was targeting and the ultimate inhabitants.

3.5.2 Explanatory Variables

There are two levels of explanatory variables (both pull and push factors) of those who moved into this housing development. First level is whether an individual qualifies for an RDP house using demographic characteristics of individuals as set out in the criteria for qualifying for these houses, secondly is the household level variables that explain the household characteristics of those who moved from the place of origin as well as the current household.

Any type of movement is likely to be affected by several factors. Individual and household factors push citizens towards accessing RDP houses. Factors such as overcrowding, poverty distance to work and other many demographic factors. While on the other hand, factors that pull individuals into RDP housing developments include getting subsidised house which will be near employment and a need to gain tenure. Also a desire to have housing security is another factor that motivates people to move into RDP houses (Figure 2.2).

3.6 Analysis plan

STATA, statistical software for data management and analysis, was used to analyse data in this work. Descriptive analysis was done to describe and characterise the Indlovu Village population. The individuals under observation were described by reporting on mean for the continuous variables. Chi square tests were used to determine whether there was significant relationship or difference between two categorical variables; movers and non-movers; and those who originated from the DSA who moved to Indlovu and those who originated from elsewhere other than from the DSA.

Logistic regression is a mathematical modelling procedure used to describe data and explain relationship between outcome or dependant variable and one or more independent variables. The outcome variable is dichotomous in nature and takes two categories (Kleinbaum, 2010).

Logistic regression was used to determine if age, sex, and marital status, area of origin, socio-economic status, education, employment, household type and household size of origin predicted movement into Indlovu village.

A logistic modelling approach has a merit in that the model assumptions are not stringent. It makes no assumptions about the distribution of the independent variables. Further, it enables a test for the impact of a covariate on the response variable while controlling for all other covariates in the model or other effects (DeMaris, 1992). Since the response variable mentioned above (moved) is binary, its relationship with covariates can be expressed using the logistic regression model as follows:

$$\text{logit}(p_i) = \ln \left(\frac{p_i}{1 - p_i} \right) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{1,i} + \dots + \beta_k x_{k,i}.$$

Where p_i is the probability of moving into Indlovu village, by an individual with a given set of covariates x_i and β_i is a vector of coefficients related to specific covariates. The ratio $p_i / (1 - p_i)$, is the odds ratio of moving.

The results from the logistic regression are presented as odds ratios which indicate the net effect of each covariate on the dependent variable after controlling for all other covariates. The reference (omitted) category of each covariate has a value of one and the values for other categories are compared to that of the reference category. An odds ratio greater than one indicates that an individual has a higher chance of moving compared to individual in the reference category (DeMaris, 1992; Eun Sul Lee & Forthofer, 2006).

STATA was used to find the estimates of β_i and p -value and was used to test the significance of the coefficients in the model. A p -value less than 0.05 signify that the coefficient is statistically significant at 5 per cent level in the model and if p -value is less than 0.001 signifies that the coefficient is highly statistically significant.

3.7 Description and construction of variables

All the variables that are included in this analysis are based on their theoretical importance and South African housing allocation criteria. The criteria qualifying both male and female

beneficiaries are stipulated in the previous chapter. The variables used in the analysis include age, sex, marital status, and education attainment, and employment, place of origin, socio-economic status and type of household.

3.7.1 Sex

Sex is one of the main demographic characteristics that are collected in the household module. Female is used as a reference variable. The purpose to include it in this analysis is to find in terms of beneficiaries how many males and females have moved into the village. Sex is not expected to have much effect on movement of individuals; this is as a result of the expectations of the RDP housing policy requirement.

3.7.2 Marital status

Literature has shown that marriage plays pivotal role in ascertaining movement of people. Those that are single, the widowed and divorced are more likely to migrate than those who are still in marital unions (Pieter Kok, et al., 2006; Todaro, 1987). Marital status in 2003 was used and it was categorised into the never married, currently married (including all types of marriages) and previously married (divorced and widowed), using never married individuals as reference. This is to determine which category will be more likely to move into Indlovu village. The expected effect is that those who are single and those who were previously married have high likelihood of moving as it has been proven earlier. However it is important to note that marriage in the community which is under Africa Centre surveillance is very low especially in the age group 18-35 (McGrath & Newell, 2009). This age group was found with a very low rate of marriages in the community under study, hence a low number of married couple representations in this particular age group.

3.7.3 Age

Age is a main demographic characteristic that is collected in the household module, and is also an important factor that determines migration. Literature has shown that individuals between ages 24-29 are mobile more than the other age groups (Foote, et al., 1993; Roux, 2009). For this analysis age in 2003 was used and it was categorised into three groups. This study used data that was collected in 2003. Those groups are the younger age group (<20 years), middle age group (21- 49) and the older age group (50 and above). The younger age

group which includes everyone who is under 20 years is used as a reference category. The purpose of including age into the analysis is to determine which age group is likely to move. On the basis of evidence from others mentioned earlier, it was expected that the middle age group is more likely to move.

3.7.4 Measure of socio-economic status

In developing countries it has proved difficult to determine household socio-economic status by using income measures (Jolliffe, 2002). This is because of the difficulty in validating the income data in view of reporting error. In consideration of this, data on living conditions were collected to construct household living conditions. First, households are asked to report ownership of various types of assets that are eventually used as proxy measures and their access to amenities such as electricity, toilet facilities and cooking energy. In the case of this current work, information on possession of assets was used. The assets and amenities that were used were access to water, toilet, electricity, energy/fuel used, car, electric hot plate, electric kettle, fridge, kitchen sink, sofa, cell phone, television set, telephone and video cassette recorder. The Africa Centre, according to documentation in their website, used these assets data to create socio-economic indices. All assets were stored as dichotomous variables where 1 is when a household has assets, 0 otherwise, except water, toilet facilities and energy/fuel source. These three had multiple categories. For instance toilet had- none, flush toilet, VIP, ordinary pit latrine, bucket/chemical and bush. These multiple categories were then created into dummy variables in STATA. Then they estimated wealth score using a principal component analysis. This study used data that were collected in 2003 to estimate the household socio-economic status.

Principal Component Analysis is a data reduction method that is used to determine the number of factors that can adequately explain observed correlations among variables, while at the same time keeps its spatial characteristics of the variables as much as possible (Jolliffe, 2002; Montgomery, et al., 2000). It has an advantage of compressing an assortment of variables into few key factors taking into account the correlations between them assigning appropriate weight to each of the observed variables in the form of factor scores (Jolliffe, 2002). There is evidence from research that proxy measures of socio-economic status are

more reliable in measuring the well-being of the households because they are constant and reliable than expenditure (Montgomery, et al., 2000).

The principal component analysis technique is intuitively the linear index of the underlying variables that captures the most common variation among them (Jolliffe, 2002). The Africa Centre wealth score was divided into five quintiles, with the first (lowest) quintiles representing the poorest household and the fifth (highest) quintile representing the richest household. Very low socio-economic status is used as a reference for all other categories. Socio-economic status is included to establish whether individuals from which households are more likely to move into the housing development regardless of the basic criteria set in the housing policy. The expected effect is that those who came from the average and relatively poor socio-economic status would be more likely to move than the other three categories. This is so because of the provisions of the RDP policy framework which favours this group more than the others that can afford. This is expected because the policy framework sounds favouring the poorer than the average population group.

Table 3.1 below presents a list of assets used in this work to create a wealth index. The index was created using 14 variables indicating whether the household has access to or owns an asset including: Car, electric hot plate, electric kettle, fridge, kitchen sink, sofa, cell phone, television set, telephone and video cassette recorder are assets owned by households while water, toilet, electricity and fuel are community level resources which a household has access to. In order to establish which variables load highly on which factors, the rotated component matrix was restricted to loadings between -0.4 and 0.4

Table 3. 1 Factor scoring from Principal Component Analysis

| Asset | Factor loadings | Factor Scores |
|-------------------------|------------------------|----------------------|
| Access to water | 0.4048 | 0.08659 |
| Toilet | 0.5414 | 0.10921 |
| Electricity | 0.6997 | 0.14518 |
| Energy/Fuel | 0.6470 | 0.13361 |
| Car | 0.4016 | 0.07141 |
| Electric hot plate | 0.4406 | 0.09208 |
| Electric Kettle | 0.6972 | 0.13816 |
| Fridge | 0.7178 | 0.13620 |
| Kitchen sink | 0.5333 | 0.10520 |
| Sofa | 0.5907 | 0.10765 |
| Cell phone | 0.4996 | 0.09084 |
| Television set | 0.7224 | 0.13824 |
| Telephone | 0.4019 | 0.07538 |
| Video Cassette recorder | 0.4995 | 0.09664 |

3.7.5 Place of origin

Place of origin in 2003 has been used to assess the movement of individuals from the DSA to Indlovu village, this factor was categorised into peri-urban, rural, and urban; peri-urban is a reference category. Place of origin is included in the analyses to determine the category of individuals that are likely to move into Indlovu village. The expectation is that those who originated from the peri-urban and rural areas are more likely to move more than those who originated from the urban part. This is so because of different socio-economic status in the DSA. Those in the urban segment (KwaMsane) are richer than those from deep living rural areas. Also that, as one moves diagonally from the south-east to north-western part of the DSA, he or she moves comparatively from rich to poorest areas

3.7.6 Educational attainment

It is well documented in the literature that education attainment plays an important role in establishing the well-being of people. Education information in 2003 was used and

categorised into those with no education, primary, secondary and tertiary. The category of those with no education is used as a reference category. Education attainment was included in the analysis to establish level of education of the people who are likely to move. The expected effect is that those with no education, primary and secondary categories are more likely to dominate the number of those who moved because the RDP houses are intended for the poor people who tend to have lower levels of education. The anticipation is that those in secondary and tertiary levels will not move in any significant numbers.

3.7.7 Employment

Employment is also considered as an important factor in establishing the well-being of the people. For this analysis employment in 2003 was used and grouped into no employment, part time and full time categories, making those who are not employed as reference category. Employment in 2003 (this is the period before an individual moves) is included in the analysis to determine how many people who moved and are employed. The expected effect is that those who are not employed and those who do temporary jobs are more likely to dominate the movement stream unlike what is suggested by the literature with reference to the usual migration. This is expected because the policy makes advantageous provision for those who earn less than R3500 and there is a likelihood that this group of individuals fall under this category.

3.7.8 Household types

The dissertation also looked at different types of households that individuals originated from in 2003. In this work types of household were categorised into solitary, incomplete/skipped, nuclear/extended and complex. Complex households are resultants of poverty and culture, which involves family members and relatives-this means parents and their children's families staying together (Amoateng, Heaton, & Sobiti, 2007). Complex households are common in low density settlements (Amoateng, et al., 2007). A nuclear type of household is where a father and mother stay with their children. This is more common in urban areas (Amoateng, et al., 2007). Nuclear type of household is more popular among Asians and whites and is associated with modern live. An extended type of a household involves multi-generations; the father and mother with their children including the grandparents and cousins and nephews (Amoateng, et al., 2007). In addition to these three types of households, the analysis grouped

other types into incomplete type of households, these are single parent households. These could be as a result of death of a partner or single parenthood including the never married who assume parental roles. Finally there is also skipped type of household; these types of households are where grandparents live with their grandchildren. The purpose of including type of household in the analysis was to determine types of households which individuals were likely to be coming from. The expected effect was more likely to be more favoured towards those who came from the household type with more than one member which is all except for those coming from solitary types of household. Again this housing development was intended to reduce overcrowding from the adjacent township (Swartz, 2009). So the likelihood is that the households with more individuals will see a need to relocate or migrate into this housing development.

3.8 Derivation of dependent variables

In order to examine movement of individuals from the DSA to Indlovu village one dependent variable was used: Moved. The scores were captured in a binary form with a positive answer coded '1' for those who moved where a negative answer was coded '0' for those who did not move. The analysis examined single movement of individuals from the DSA to Indlovu village not the reverse. A person is identified as having moved if they have changed residence status from DSA to Indlovu village starting from 1st January 2003 to 1st October 2006 which was identified as a cut off date for inclusion in the analysis. All factors are informed by the RDP policy framework requirements for beneficiaries. This work excludes all individuals who moved out of the DSA but did not move to Indlovu village between 1st January 2003 and 1st October 2006.

C H A P T E R 4:FINDINGS

4.1 Indlovu Village Distribution

4.1.2 Introduction

The chapter provides a description of the demographic profile of people who migrated into Indlovu village. In order to ascertain the population composition of the migrant population, the age -sex distribution, the socio-economic characteristics are presented. Then it establishes patterns of movement into Indlovu village. It also provides, comparisons between the individuals who moved from the DSA and those who never moved are made and this will show whether migrants differ from non-migrants. The later part of the chapter focuses on the household characteristics of the individuals who migrated in Indlovu village, who originated from the DSA by focusing on the sex of the head of household, employment, education and the type of household and their household socio-economic status; then finally their place of origin, whether they originated from the rural, peri-urban or the urban part of the DSA or elsewhere outside the research area.

4.1.2 Demographic profile of Indlovu village

This section aims to present the characteristics of all individuals who moved into Indlovu village despite their place of origin. More people who initially moved into Indlovu village originated elsewhere other than from the DSA (58%) and increased exponentially, while 36% claimed their origin from the DSA and 6% were born in Indlovu village. Origin from the DSA means people migrated from within the DSA boundaries either as individuals or as households. It was considered an internal migration because Indlovu village was then considered part of the DSA (Figure 4.2).

Indlovu village had a resident population of 2,189 on 1st October 2006 with a sex ratio of two males to every three females. In total 996 males and 1,193 females had migrated into Indlovu village by 1st October 2006. In migration studies, gender is an important factor in determining migration. In the study area, gender was fairly distributed resulting in 54% females vs. 46% males. This pattern is not consistent with other migration studies. Other findings suggest that men dominated the migration streams than females (Budlender, Chobokoane, & Simelane, 2004), hence the same expectations were held for the present study.

Migration is selective by age. Usually, the young and able-bodied people and those in seeking employment are likely to migrate. However, when induced migration is considered, only the targeted are likely to move into these new settlements. The RDP development in Indlovu was targeted at the most vulnerable groups from adjoining township of KwaMsane. The modal age of the individuals was 22 years with mean age of 22 years (females) and 20 years (males). Elderly residents accounted for 1.33% of the population. These are residents who were aged 50 years and above.

Marital status has been found to be an important factor in migration studies. Marital status was also included in this current study because it was one of the selection criteria to qualify for the RDP house. This was not understood by some researchers because in South Africa, marriage rates are low (Budlender, et al., 2004). In the current work it was found that (Table 4.1) almost 4% of the 2,189 were currently married, 93% were never married and 3.38% were previously married. Thus, the largest proportion of the population which is now resident in Indlovu is not married. The analyses were also done to determine any correlations between age and marital status where the percentages are going row-wise (Table 4.1). It was found that among those who are young, 34.8 percent are not married, while the rest did not report their marital status. Among those aged (middle) only 1.9% reported that they are married, while 8 percent have been previously married, and the rest (60.9 percent) in this age group did not report their marital status. Among the elderly, 13.3 reported that they are currently married, while 15.6 percent were previously married, 21.1 percent were not married, while 50 percent did not report their marital status.

Table 4. 1 The Relationship between marital status and age in 2006

| Age Groups | Marital Status | | | | |
|-------------------|----------------|-------------------|--------------------|----------------|-----------------|
| | Never married | Currently Married | Previously married | Missing | Total |
| Younger Age Group | 354 34.81 | 0 0.00 | 0 0.00 | 663 65.19 | 1,017 100.00 |
| Middle Age group | 392 36.33 | 21 1.95 | 9 0.83 | 657 60.89 | 1,079 100.00 |
| Older Age Group | 19 21.11 | 12 13.33 | 14 15.56 | 45 50.00 | 90 100.00 |
| Total | 765 35.00 | 33 1.51 | 23 1.05 | 1,365 62.44 | 2186 100.00 |

Education is another important factor in migration studies. In the current study area less than one percent (0.14%) had tertiary education and 17% had no education. Further analysis were done to determine correlations between education attainment and employment and it was found that among those with no education, 28.7 percent were employed, while 42.5 percent were not employed and 28.8 percent did not report their employment status. Among those with primary education, only 4.4 percent reported that they were employed. Among those with secondary education, 32.5 percent were employed, while about two-thirds were not employed. There were very few people with tertiary education in the area, but among the three with tertiary education who were interviewed, 2 of them were working (Table 4.2).

Table 4. 2 The Relationship between Education attainment and Employment in 2006

| Level of Education | Employment | | | |
|---------------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|-----------------|
| | Not Employed | Employed | Missing | Total |
| No Education | 164 42.49 | 111 28.76 | 111 28.76 | 386 100.00 |
| Primary Education | 76 84.44 | 4 4.44 | 10 11.11 | 90 100.00 |
| Secondary Education | 52 67.53 | 25 32.47 | 0 0.00 | 77 100.00 |
| Tertiary Education | 2 66.67 | 1 33.33 | 0 0.00 | 3 100.00 |
| Too Young | 27 5.78 | 1 0.21 | 439 94.00 | 467 100.00 |
| Total | 321 31.38 | 142 13.88 | 560 54.74 | 1,023 100.00 |

Table 4.3 provides additional information of all Indlovu village community. Data on age and gender of individuals in Indlovu village is complete. However, only people who originated from the DSA had data on marital status almost complete. Almost all individuals who had their origin from other places other than the DSA did not have their marital status recorded. Further only people who originated from DSA had data on place of origin complete

Table 4. 3 Socio-demographic profile of everyone in Indlovu village and their characteristics in 2006

| | Numbers | Total (%) |
|------------------------------------|-----------|-----------|
| Gender | | |
| Female | 1,193 | 54.5 |
| Male | 996 | 45.5 |
| | n=(2,189) | |
| Age | | |
| Less than 18yrs | 946 | 43.24 |
| 18-29 | 565 | 25.82 |
| 30-39 | 424 | 19.38 |
| 40-49 | 161 | 7.36 |
| 50-59 | 63 | 2.88 |
| 60 or more | 29 | 1.33 |
| | n=(2,188) | |
| Marital status | | |
| Currently Married | 30 | 3.62 |
| Never Married | 771 | 93.0 |
| Previously Married | 28 | 3.38 |
| | n=(829) | |
| Place of original residence | | |
| Peri-Urban | 593 | 74.87 |
| Rural | 112 | 14.14 |
| Urban | 87 | 10.98 |
| | n=(791) | |

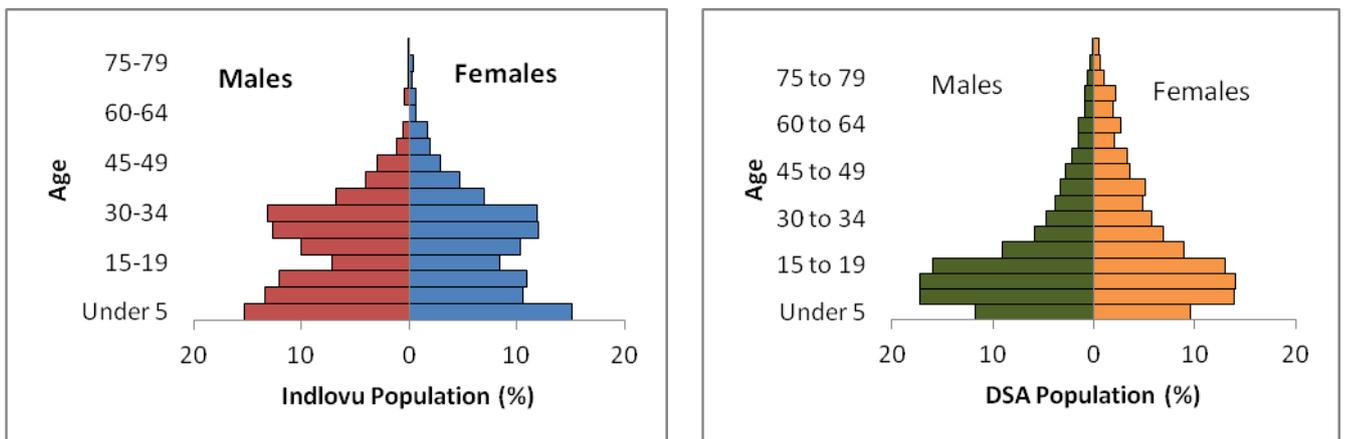
4.1.3 Age and sex composition

The impact of migration is more than just an addition of new members into the society; migrants are different from both population at origin and at destination, they have different demographic and socio-economic profiles (Cross, Gelderblom, Roux, & Mafukidze, 2006). Migration trends are known to be selective of young adults, the skilled and adventurous (Cross, et al., 2006). The Indlovu village selection mechanism is highly selective by age. This is as a result of the supply of RDP houses. The dominance of young adults and those below 14 years is apparent. This can also be explained by the movement of young adults with their children into the village.

The population structure of Indlovu village (Figure 4.1) indicates a population with a large proportion (46%) aged 14 years and below with a relatively small proportion (1.4%) aged 60 years and above, and 35% aged between 20 and 34 years. When compared to the DSA pyramid, Indlovu village structure shows the results of the patterns of movement into the area, individuals moved in the area at different age groups. For example those in child bearing age moved in with their children. The shape is broad at the base, with evident dent at the middle.

It then broadens again at age groups 20-45 years. The DSA pyramid shows a population structure of the sending area since the deficit at various age groups (under 5 and 20-45) indicates that people could have migrated to Indlovu village [and other external places]. The population pyramid of DSA which is broad at the base and narrow as age increases could not have occurred only resulted from declining births and deaths of older people but also due to migration.

Figure 4. 1 Indlovu and DSA population age pyramids



4.1.4 Comparison of Individuals who moved and those who did not move from the DSA

This part of the dissertation presents the difference between the DSA people who moved to Indlovu village and those who remained in the DSA. This comparison is essential in that it shows how migration intensifies and patterns vary by demographic characteristics. It is also important for the purpose of this work to identify individuals who moved. This helps in knowing the type of people who are likely to benefit from these kinds of development projects, whether there are the intended beneficiaries or whether the development has a potential to attract certain group of individual. The analysis looks at the demographic factors like age, sex, marital status and education, employment and socio-economic status, place of origin and type of household as presented in table 4.4.

Patterns of movement into Indlovu village between 2003 and 2006

There is an apparent upward trend in the number of people moving into the village. The overcrowding in KwaMsane and general lack of accommodation for poor people could be the reason for increased movement into RDP houses within the village under-study. The 1st October 2006 cut-off date was used to align the analysis with the date when Africa Centre started retrospectively collecting data on Indlovu village and including it into the DSA demographic surveillance system as part of the research.

Table 4. 4 Comparison of individuals who live in Indlovu village who moved from DSA and those that did not move in 2003

| Determinant | Movers | Non movers |
|--|---------------|-------------------|
| Gender | | |
| Females | 476(60) | 36,537(54.7)* |
| Males | 316(40) | 30,199(45.25)* |
| Age group | | |
| Younger (<20) | 335(42.30) | 38,113(57.11)* |
| Middle Age (20-49) | 409(51.64) | 21,109(31.63)* |
| Older (50+) | 48(6.06) | 7,514(11.26)* |
| Marital status | | |
| Currently married | 32(4.06) | 2,729(4.40)* |
| Never married | 722 (91.51) | 53,429(86.11)* |
| Previously married | 23(2.94) | 3,482(5.61)* |
| Missing | 12(1.52) | 2,406(3.88)* |
| Education | | |
| No education | 370(47.99) | 0 |
| Primary education | 86(11.15) | 26,526(46.92)* |
| Secondary education | 76(9.86) | 6,761(11.96)* |
| Tertiary education | 3(0.39) | 968(1.71)* |
| Too young | 123(15.95) | 13,769(24.35)* |
| Missing | 113(14.66) | 8,515(15.06)* |
| Employment | | |
| No employment | 334(42.17) | 19,948(72.16)* |
| Employed | 139(17.55) | 6,714(24.28)* |
| Missing | 319(40.28) | 985(3.56)* |
| Type of household | | |
| Solitary | 86(14.98) | 1251(10.71)* |
| Incomplete | 26(4.52) | 4466(38.2)* |
| Nuclear | 14(2.4) | 4063(34.79)* |
| Skipped | 19(3.31) | 3793(32.47)* |
| Complex | 290(50.52) | 11678(35.6)* |
| Extended | 139(24.2) | 3711(31.78)* |
| Household socio-economic status | | |

| | | |
|--|-------------|-----------------|
| Very low SES | 10(1.24) | 11,126(18.22)* |
| Low SES | 47(5.83) | 11,925(19.53)* |
| Average SES | 88(10.93) | 13,316(21.81)* |
| High SES | 68(8.43) | 12,913(21.15)* |
| Very high SES | 593(73.57) | 11,775(19.29)* |
| Place of origin | | |
| Rural | 112(14.14) | 19,790 (29.65)* |
| Peri-Urban | 593 (74.87) | 43,088(64.56)* |
| Urban | 87(10.98) | 3858(5.78)* |
| Move: N=792 Did not move: N=66736 | | |
| * represents the Statistically significant | | |

A total of 792 individuals reported to the field workers that they originated from one of the Africa Centre research areas. Their information had previously been recorded in the research area before they moved to Indlovu village. Indlovu village housing development was more likely to attract individuals who did not come from the DSA and the surrounding areas. This is so because out of the 2189 people that stay in Indlovu village, the 792 could fully be linked from their place of origin to the DSA. The others either had their origins captured while they had their origins from elsewhere, while others had their origins missing. For these ones with missing data, it was assumed that because they suspected that the Africa Centre might report them to the Municipality so they decided not to report it or hide the information (Newell, 2010). This means that it partially failed to benefit the intended community fully which according to the municipality was KwaMsane Township located within the DSA. One would expect a large number of individuals to at least be coming from the DSA which in the case of this analysis illustrates the opposite to be true.

4.1.4.1 Sex

It is historically known and documented from previous studies that men are more likely to migrate than females (Cross, et al., 2006; Posel, et al., 2004). This was so because of the labour migration where men would go and work in mines leaving their families and partners behind. This was perpetrated by the apartheid laws which existed in South Africa preventing men to migrate with their female partners (Encyclopedia Britannica eb-com; Posel, et al., 2004).

Table 4.4 above shows that 60% of females were more likely to move into Indlovu village than 40% of men and when comparing these individuals with those who did not move, there is statistically significant difference between the two by gender (p -value <0.001). There is also

more females who did not move (54.7%) compared to (45.3%) of males. The majority of DSA population are women and were likely to dominate the movement to Indlovu village. Indlovu village attracted more females than males from the DSA.

4.1.4.2 Age groups

Evidence has shown that migration is selective by age (Mafukidze, 2006). Those in middle twenties are usually more likely to migrate than the other age groups. This is so because this group is economically active and in most cases they migrate because they are looking for better jobs which pays better (Pieter Kok, et al., 2006; Todaro, 1987). Table 4.4 also shows that among movers the majority were in the middle age group, whereas among the non-movers the majority were in the younger age group. This may be as a result that in this age group most people need to start their families. Again this is the group that was expected to move because they are above 18 years as required by the RDP housing policy. There is 6.06% of elderly (50+) people who moved to Indlovu village, the possibility is that this group of individuals have moved with those in the middle aged groups as parents.

4.1.4.3 Marital status

Marital status is one other important factor in migration. Previous work has found that individuals who were previously married, meaning those who have divorced and widows were more likely to migrate than those who are still in marital unions. This could occur due to family responsibilities that are associated with being married (Pieter Kok, et al., 2006; Statistics South Africa, 2006). Table 4.4 further shows that among the people who moved to Indlovu village from the DSA 4% were married, 3% were previously married and the majority were never married (92%). There were a significantly high proportion of individuals reporting that they were never married between those who moved and those who did not move ($p < 0.001$)

4.1.4.4 Education attainment

Education attainment is used to establish well being of the migrants. According to previous work individuals with high education are more likely to move than those with lower education (Pieter Kok, et al., 2008). However, previously labour migration was more dominated by less educated individuals (Pieter Kok, et al., 2008), this could be due to the large number of mining in South Africa. Where, men with less education were recruited for lower paid wages and intensive work in the mines (Hoggett, 2002). Table 4.4 further illustrates that more people

with no education moved to Indlovu village. The least proportion of movers into Indlovu was among population with tertiary education. There were a significantly high proportion of individuals reporting that they never had education between those who moved and those who did not move ($p < 0.001$)

4.1.4.5 Employment

Studies have found that people migrate with a hope and expectations of an improved quality of life and of high standards in the receiving land comparing to that of the sending area. Table 4.4 shows employment status of those who moved to Indlovu village from the DSA. Excluding those with missing, an overwhelming majority of those who moved into Indlovu village were unemployed. There were a significantly high proportion of individuals reporting that they were not employment between those who moved and those who did not move ($p < 0.001$)

4.1.4.6 Type of households

By type this implies that a household that an individual originates from can be important in determining the likelihood of migrating. It is shown in the table 4.2 that 15% of individuals who moved from the DSA lived alone, while 5% lived in incomplete households, 2.4% from the nuclear family types, 3.3 % from skipped type of households, 51% lived in the complex household and only 24.% living in the extended type of households. This confirms that individuals from household with more than one individual are likely to move to this housing development. The majority being those who came from the complex followed by those coming from the extended types of households, which implies that they came from the overcrowded households. There were a significantly high proportion of individuals reporting that they came from complex types of household for those who moved ($p < 0.001$) . This confirms that individuals from households with more than one person are likely to move into these housing developments, with the majority being those who came from the complex, followed by those coming from the extended type of household.

4.1.5 Household characteristics

4.1.5.1 Household socio-economic status

Household socio-economic status is also important in determining who migrate. For the RDP it is expected that the poorest and most vulnerable members of the society are supposed to benefit. However, the results at Indlovu village show the contrary. It is shown in table 4.2

that the majority of the individuals who moved to Indlovu from the DSA have very high socio-economic status followed 80% by those in an average socio-economic status 11% and the least had very low Socio-economic status 1.2%. These findings are the adverse to the intentions of the RDP housing policy which intended to cater for those in low socio-economic status. There is statistically significant difference by socio-economic status when comparing those who moved from the DSA to Indlovu and those who never moved from the DSA.

The characteristics of household heads in this study remains gender disproportioned. Table 4.5 shows that there are slightly more male headed households than female headed households in the Indlovu village. The median household size among moves into Indlovu was 4 with minimum household size of one and maximum 14. It also shows that there is a slight difference in the average household size between male and female headed households. In female headed household there is a mean of 4.2 while male headed household there is an average of 3.7 individuals in a household. An average age of household head in Indlovu village was 35 years. Information on characteristics of head of household is important in helping researchers to classify households on the basis of education and age of household head (Budlender, 1997). The current work looked at the characteristics of household head by gender. Table 4.3 also displays level of education of head of household; more female household head have no education than males; slightly higher proportion of males than females had tertiary education. Furthermore, it is also shown that a higher proportion of female heads than male heads were not employed. A higher proportion of solitary households, nuclear households and extended households were headed by men, while on the other hand a higher proportion of incomplete households, skipped households and complex households were headed by women.

Table 4.5 Socio-demographic characteristics of household head in Indlovu Village

| Gender of head of household | Females (%) | Males (%) |
|------------------------------------|--------------------|------------------|
| Gender | 49.0 | 51.0 |
| Average household size | 4.2 | 3.7 |
| Level of Education | | |
| No education | 30 | 16.5 |
| Primary | 5.4 | 3 |
| Secondary | 9.8 | 5 |
| Tertiary | 0.3 | 0.55 |
| Too young | 0.3 | 0.3 |
| Missing | 54.2 | 75.14 |
| Employment | | |
| Not employed | 31.2 | 12.3 |
| Employed | 16.3 | 13 |
| Missing | 53 | 75 |
| Types of households | | |
| Solitary | 32 | 68 |
| Incomplete | 60 | 40 |
| Nuclear | 45 | 55 |
| Extended | 42 | 58 |
| Skipped | 60 | 40 |
| Complex | 55 | 45 |
| <i>Total</i> | <i>343</i> | <i>359</i> |

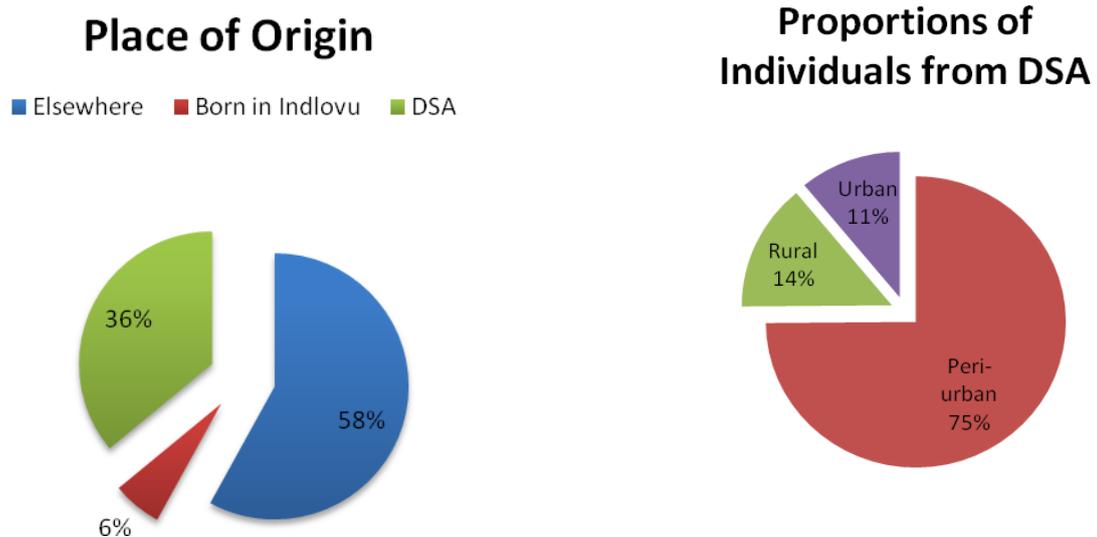
N=702

4.1.6 Spatial distribution of Indlovu village population

It was of importance to establish where the individuals in Indlovu village originated from. The finding will assist housing department to realise where the people who benefit from these housing developments come from. The officials would be able to determine whether their projects are well targeted to deserving beneficiaries. Figure 4.2 displays the proportions according to the places of origins, it showing that 1,397(58%) of individuals residing in Indlovu village have their origins elsewhere other than from the DSA while only 792(36%) originated from the DSA and 129(6%) were born in Indlovu village. Of the 792 the majority (75%) came from the Peri-urban part of the DSA, 14% came from the rural area and 11% came from the urban area respectively. This finding is contrary to what the Municipality hoped the development will manage to achieve. Mayor Swartz (2009) points out that instead of attracting most people from KwaMsane township, it attracted mostly people from other places like Durban, Richards Bay, and Jozini to mention a few.

A separate analysis was done to compare the group of people who originated from the DSA and those who originated from elsewhere and it was found that more people originated from elsewhere other than the DSA. For details on this analysis refer to Appendices of results (Table A1).

Figure 4.2: Place of origin



4.2 Determinants of moving into Indlovu Village

4.2.1 Introduction

The previous chapter provided a descriptive bivariate analysis of the population of movers and non-movers using age, sex, marital status, socio-economic status, education, employment, types of household and place of origin. However such techniques do not control the effects of other characteristics. A multivariate approach is employed to identify factors significantly associated with movement of people into Indlovu village to corroborate the results obtained in the previous chapter.

4.2.2 Multivariate analysis findings

This section focuses on multivariate analysis findings. The results are interpreted using odds ratios which were used to calculate the risks of moving into Indlovu village. An odds ratio estimates a probability of an individual moving into Indlovu village. First, the odds of moving were estimated by using an outcome and one variable of interest. For example an outcome

variable (moved) and age. This is called an unadjusted odds ratio. While the adjusted odds ratio was estimated by adding all other variables in the equation to see how an outcome variable reacts when the other variables are added. The relative risk is used to compare the risk. If the odds ratio are equal ones then the occurrence of moving is more likely to happen and if the odds ratio are less than one the event of moving is less likely to happen than not. The estimated odds ratios of moving into Indlovu village among individuals who came from the DSA according to the net effects of age, sex, socio-economic status, education, employment, place of origin and type of household are presented in table 4.6 The results represent the movement outcome in 2003.

4.2.2.1 Gender

The model presented in table 4.6 estimates the effect of sex in moving. The findings show that males had increased odds 1.2857 OR of moving than females in 2003 unadjusted. The findings were at 95% statistically significant. However, after controlling for other factors (age, marital status, educated, employment, and type of household, socio-economic status as well as place of origin) both males and females had almost equal risk of moving into Indlovu village although this finding was not statistically significant. This finding may suggest that both female and males equally benefited from this housing development. This is evident that, the policy has been successful in catering for both males and females.

4.2.2.2 Age Group

Age group was separated into younger age group which entailed those individuals in the ages below 20 years; the middle age group which entailed those in ages between 20 years and 49 years of age. Finally the elder age group are all those above the age of 50 years and above. The findings show that the risk of moving is reduced for an individual who is in the middle age group 0.59 OR compared to those in younger age groups and highly statistically significant. The odds of moving were two times higher 2.23 OR in individuals in the older age group (>50 years) when compared to younger age group and the finding was highly statistically significant.

After controlling for other factors, being in the middle age group 2.66 AOR and older age groups 4.0007 AOR put individuals at more risk of moving than the younger age group however, the finding in both age groups were not statistically significant. This findings may suggest that being in the middle age group provided individuals with more opportunities of

moving. This may either be due to the fact that individuals in the higher age cohort have access to resources that allow them to move. However this cohort has no statistical difference to the younger age group.

4.2.2.3 Marital Status

Marital status was grouped into the currently married, which included all individuals who were married despite the type of marriage they were in; then the previously married which is the group of those individuals who were divorced and widowed and finally those who were never married. Table 4.6 also shows that the odds of moving are less among individuals who were currently married 0.2601 OR compared to those who were never married, but statistically significant. Those who were previously married were also at less risk of moving 0.7339 OR and not statistically significant relative to those who were never married. After controlling for other factors the odds of moving remained low for those who were currently married 0.5248 AOR compared to those who were never married and there was no statistical difference between the two. However risk of moving after controlling for other factors was 10.914 AOR higher for individuals who were previously married compared to never married individuals. This finding may suggest that being previously married places an individual at an opportunity of moving into RDP housing developments.

4.2.2.4 Educational Attainment

In this work educational attainment is grouped into those with primary education and secondary education, tertiary education and those in the too young category who have not started schooling. It was discovered in this work as presented in table 5.1 that the odds of moving are higher among individuals with tertiary education (5.72 OR) but not statistically significant compared to those with primary education. Those who have secondary education with 0.563 OR and those that were too young 0.7025 OR their odds of moving were low compared to those with primary education. Only those findings with primary education were statistically significant. After controlling for other factors, the odds of moving for those individuals with tertiary were omitted due to small values. For those individuals with secondary education 0.5583 AOR they were at less risk of moving even after adjusting for other factors, but this finding was not significant statistically. Again those in the too young group 0.9152 AOR were also less likely to move compared to those with primary education. However the finding was not statistically significant. These results may suggest that people

with higher education attainment have slightly higher opportunity of moving than those with lower education.

4.2.2.5 Employment

Employment was segmented into those with no employment, those who were in full time employment and those in the part time employment. This work discovered that those in full time employment 0.897 OR and part time 0.6105 OR employment were both at less risk of moving relative to those with no employment; and not statistically significant. After controlling for other factors odds of moving for those in part time employment were increased (4.443 AOR) compared to those with no employment while the odds of moving for those in full time employment remained low 0.8553 AOR. Both findings were not statistically significant. These results may suggest that employment has positive effects on movement of individuals to Indlovu in 2003.

4.2.2.6 Type of Household of origin

The type of household of origin was grouped into solitary household, meaning those households with one person staying in them. The other group was either incomplete/skipped. This is the household where either a father or a mother is not staying with the household but staying with other relatives like the grandparents. The third group is the nuclear type of household which entails the two parents with their children only. Finally the complex type of household which is multi generational was considered. It was found in this work that coming from larger household put individuals in high risk of moving than those who came from small households. Those who came from incomplete/skipped households and from the complex households were more than two times 2.542 OR more likely to move relative to those who came from solitary households. While those who came from nuclear type of household were more than three times 3.543 OR more likely to move relative to the solitary households. The finding was statistically significant for those who came from both the incomplete/skipped and complex households. Those who came from complex households were 1.984 OR likely to move more than those who came from solitary type of households. After adjusting for other factors the odds of moving reduced in all the types of households. Those from the complex households had slightly higher odds of moving than those who came from the solitary type of households. The individuals who came from the Incomplete/skipped household types 0.9307 AOR and nuclear household types 0.9231 AOR were less likely to move compared to those originating from the solitary type of household. These findings were not statistically

significant. The findings may suggest that moving was important for individuals who came from households with more than one person and while those who stayed alone never had a reason to move.

4.2.2.6 Household Socio-economic status

Socio-economic status of the household was grouped into very low, low, average, high and very high socio-economic status. The study discovered that those who came from households with relatively low 0.3597 OR and average socio-economic status 0.2064 OR were less likely to move compared to those from household with relatively very low socio-economic status and both findings were highly statistically significant. On the other hand individuals who came from household with relatively high 0.1879 OR and very high 0.229 OR socio-economic status also had low odds of moving, however these findings were highly statistically significant. After adjusting for other factors odds of moving for those individuals who came from relatively high socio-economic status (1.767 AOR) were increased although it was not statistically significant. These findings may suggest that affluent people are the ones that have access to moving opportunities. Those odds of moving for those with relatively low and average socio-economic status remained low compared to those in the very low socio-economic status. These findings were not statistically significant.

4.2.2.7 Place of Origin

Place of origin was divided into those who came from the peri-urban, urban and rural part of the DSA. This work further discovered that the odds of moving were fourteen times 14.1873 OR high in people who came from rural part of the DSA, than those who came from the peri-urban part of the DSA and the finding was highly statistically significant. For those who came from the urban part of the DSA the odds of moving were slightly higher relative to those who came from the peri-urban part of the DSA and the finding were not statistically significant. After controlling for other factors the odds of moving for individuals who came from the rural part were twelve 12.730 AOR times more than those who came from the peri-urban parts of the DSA. This finding was highly statistically significant. Those who came from the urban part of the DSA their odds of moving remained low at 0.5358 AOR compared to those who came from the peri-urban part of the DSA. This finding was not statistically significant. This may suggest that after considering other factors in the model the housing development become more important for those who came from the rural area.

Table 4.6 Determinants of moving into Indlovu village (RDP)

| Determinant | OR | P-value | AOR | P-value |
|--|--------------------------|----------------|-------------------------|----------------|
| Gender | | | | |
| Females | 1.0 | | 1.0 | |
| Males | 1.2857(1.0790-1.5320) | 0.005 | 1.0015(0.462-2.1703) | 0.997 |
| Age groups | | | | |
| Younger | 1.0 | | 1.0 | |
| Middle Age | 0.5900(0.4952-0.7029) | <0.001 | 2.6612(01.0069-7.0335) | 0.048 |
| Older | 2.2372(0.4596-3.4290) | <0.001 | 4.0007(0.6425-24.9212) | 0.137 |
| Marital status | | | | |
| Never married | 1.0 | | 1.0 | |
| Currently married | 0.2601(0.164-0.4106) | <0.001 | 0.52486(0.1081-2.4501) | 0.404 |
| Previously married | 0.7339(0.370-1.454) | 0.376 | 10.9145(0.732-11.4139) | 0.945 |
| Education | | | | |
| Primary Education | 1.0 | | 1.0 | |
| Secondary Education | 0.5636(0.42529-0.74690) | <0.001 | 0.5583(0.00066-66.98) | 0.597 |
| Tertiary Education | 5.7292(0.8012-40.9695) | 0.0820 | omitted | |
| Too Young | 0.7025(0.5521-0.8938) | .004 | 0.91526(0.00399-209.7) | 0.975 |
| Employment | | | | |
| No Employment | 1.0 | | 1.0 | |
| Full time | 0.8973(0.6496-1.2395) | 0.511 | 0.8553(0.3200-2.285) | 0.755 |
| Part time | 0.6105(0.3291-1.1323) | 0.117 | 4.4439(0.7033-28.079) | 0.113 |
| Type of household of origin | | | | |
| Solitary | 1 | | 1.0 | |
| Incomplete/Skipped | 2.5420(1.6087-4.0168) | <0.001 | 0.9307(0.25496-3.3975) | 0.913 |
| Nuclear/Extended | 3.54301(1.2481-10.0569)) | 0.017 | 0.9231(0.1595-5.3429) | 0.929 |
| Complex | 1.9846(1.239-3.099) | 0.003 | 1.0205(0.2899-3.5927) | 0.975 |
| Household socio-economic status | | | | |
| Very low SES | 1.0 | | 1.0 | |
| Low SES | 0.3597(0.2269-0.5704) | <0.001 | 0.2585(0.0296-2.2566) | 0.221 |
| Average SES | 0.2064(0.1342-0.2865) | <0.001 | 0.3703(0.3703-2.5901) | 0.279 |
| High SES | 0.18797(0.1232-0.2865) | <0.001 | 0.6235(0.07106-5.4717) | 0.670 |
| Very high SES | 0.22943(0.1490-0.3531) | <0.001 | 1.76729(0.1628-19.1826) | 0.640 |
| Place of origin | | | | |
| Peri-Urban | 1.0 | | 1.0 | |
| Rural | 14.1873(10.8534-18.5452) | <0.001 | 12.7308(4.0491-40.0268) | <0.001 |
| Urban | 1.2501(0.9565-1.6339) | 0.102 | 0.5348(0.12988-2.2025) | 0.386 |

Move: N=792 *Did not move: N=66736

***in this model 1 = moved and 0=did not move

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

5.1 Introduction

This study aimed at understanding the characteristics of the population of Indlovu village; to understand the characteristics of the population of Indlovu village and to examine the demographic and socio-economic characteristics of people migrating into Indlovu village. Better understanding of who move and stay in Indlovu village RDP housing development will improve understanding of characteristics of the people who benefit and an impact of this development to the beneficiaries. In response to the aims of this study, a descriptive analysis was done to determine the characteristics of Indlovu village and its population.

5.2 Discussion on the characteristics of Indlovu village population

The findings from our analysis can be summarised as follows; out of 2189 people who stay in Indlovu village 43% were below 18 years and 45% in the middle age groups. Proportion of Indlovu village residents are not in marital unions. Of the individuals who stay in Indlovu village 60% came from other areas other than the DSA. Residents started occupying houses in the village in 2003. The possible explanation lies on the possibility that these people might have had enough resources again to allow them to relocate than the locals or those who originated from the DSA. They might also have had an opportunity to have identity documents to prove their citizenship over the locals who might have struggled to get identity documents due to poverty. Below the characteristics are discussed separately.

5.2.1 Gender

The findings in this study are consistent with the existing literature on the gender of people who are likely to migrate. These findings revealed that (60%) of the people who stay in Indlovu village are females. Many researchers and authors point out that historically, males used to dominate the migration streams than females due to labour migration in all age groups. They left their families behind to work while the women stayed at home looking after the children and worked in the farms (Oucho & Gould, 1993; Posel, et al., 2004; Rogan, Lebani, & Nzimande, 2009). This situation was greatly motivated and controlled by South African apartheid government laws that did not allow men to migrate with their families. Recently this started changing as women have become equal competitors into the labour market and take up same positions as their male counterparts (Oucho & Gould, 1993; Posel, et

al., 2004). However, in this informal settlement residents are more likely to be unemployed with few being involved in temporary jobs.

5.2.2 Marital status

The findings in this study remain unswerving with the existing body of literature documenting the marital status of people who are likely to migrate. This study's findings divulge that mostly single people who never married dominated the movement stream into Indlovu village. The possible explanation is that, this group of people does not have large responsibilities and it is easier for them to move. Niel Roux (2009) supports these findings mentioning that those who are married are less likely to migrate compared to their unmarried counterparts. Further findings suggest that married women are less likely to migrate especially if there is a male in the family who is working (Posel, et al., 2004). Also important to note is that the DSA population is characterised by low marital status (McGrath & Newell, 2009) and this brings these findings in line with what the literature has previously revealed in relation to migration and marital status of the migrants.

5.2.3 Educational Attainment

A considerable work has been done in the field of the influence of education on migration. The findings in these studies are very consistent with what has been found in this study as well. In this study, almost half (48%) of the individuals who moved into Indlovu village do not have any form of education. This was expected because of the high illiteracy level in the area. This however seemed to oppose findings that suggest that individuals with high level of education are more likely to move (Pieter Kok, et al., 2008). Forty percent (40%) of individuals out of the total number of the people who came from the DSA had no employment. These findings can be explained by high poverty levels in the area which results on dependency on state grants. These findings therefore shed light on some of the reasons why people left their place to migrate in the Indlovu village. As revealed from the analysis, poverty has been a push factor towards this housing development.

5.2.4 Place of origin

From the 36% of people who originated from the DSA 75% came from the peri-urban part of the DSA. This is an expected finding, the municipality aimed at relieving the overcrowding in KwaMsane, which is part of the peri-urban according to the DSA boundaries. This suggests that, as the policy was designed, there is a necessity in knowing where the beneficiary

enumerated from in order to qualify for the RDP house. Moreover, in the study of migration there is always an importance attached to the place of origin of the migrant. This does not only help in finding the ways of assisting the person but to also keep his real identification and originality.

5.2.5 Socio-economic status

The findings in this study are more dependable on the existing research findings conducted by the Africa Centre DSA in (2003 and 2006). From the analysis of the existing and current data, findings suggest that Indlovu village housing development benefited mostly individuals in very high socio-economic status (74%) of the 36% that originated from the DSA. This could be explained from the fact that, these people were closer to the development and it was easier for them to move. Moreover, on the basis of their high socio-economic status it was easier for them to move. Although the municipality targeted the township community to be primary beneficiaries of this development, and regardless of the policies formulated for the interest of the above cited community, these people do not qualify owing to their lower socio-economic status, and this means the development realised its goal. Studies conducted by a number of researchers in this field have supported these findings. They have revealed that those people who originate from families with high economic status are more likely to migrate because they have the wherewithal to migrate (Roux, 2009; Wentzel & Thobela, 2006).

5.3 Discussion on examination of demographic and socio economic characteristics of people migrating into Indlovu village in order to understand determinants of movement.

To examine demographic and socio-economic characteristics of people migrating into Indlovu village multi-variate analysis was used. To determine the risk of movement on the people unadjusted and adjusted odds ratios were used. The discussion on each characteristic has been presented below.

5.3.1 Age

The findings of this work indicate that individuals in the older age group (50+) were four times while those in the middle age group were two times more likely to move into the local RDP housing development than those in younger age groups. These findings are consistent

with what is reported in previous similar studies revealing that those in the middle age groups (25-29 years) are at more risk of moving than other age groups (Foote, et al., 1993; Oucho & Gould, 1993) although here the older age group are also at high risk of moving. Their movement was however within the requirements of the policy.

5.3.2 Gender

The current work hypothesized that there would be no difference in the patterns of movement between males and females. This was confirmed by the findings that males and females had equal chances of moving into RDP housing. This finding concurs with findings of other studies which showed that migration streams were previously dominated more by males than females, this also confirms the observation that female migration was increasing (Oucho & Gould, 1993; Posel, et al., 2004). This finding suggests that the policy was successful in allocating houses to both females and males.

5.3.3 Marital status

Further, the study discovered that moving was low in those who were in marital unions and those who were previously married compared to those who were single individuals. After controlling for other factors, those who were previously married had high risk of moving. This confirms what is known from the literature that the previously married meaning those who were divorced or widowed and those who are single were more likely to migrate (Pieter Kok, et al., 2006; Todaro, 1987). The current finding may mean that marital status did not deter individuals from getting houses. This may also show that people who qualified; who had dependants even if they were not married did obtain the houses.

5.3.4 Educational Attainment

The findings in this study remain consistent with the existing evidence concerning skilled migrants. This work made an assumption that there will be high likelihood of individuals with low or no education dominating the movement into Indlovu village. However not living out the possibility of the highly educated to dominate the movement. This is so because of usual trends in migration where migrants report high education attainment (Oucho & Gould, 1993). The findings in this work confirm what was found in other migration studies that individuals with high education are at high risk of moving than individuals with lower education attainment.

5.3.5 Measure of Socio-economic status

The study found that those in the relatively high socio-economic status were more likely to move into Indlovu and this concurs with the findings of previous studies (Todaro, 1987) that wealthy people are at an increased risk of migrating than individuals in the low socio-economic status. The study used assets ownership to estimate the household socio-economic status as the only best tool in this rural setting. These results may mean that some households may not necessarily be wealthy but this could be as results of lifelong accumulation of assets and for some they might have inherited the assets from the parents. For instance a household that owns a fridge or sofa may not be any better than the household that does not have one; because they may be owning a fridge but not having means of operating it or do not have food to put in it.

5.3.6 Place of origin

Findings in this study are consistent with the evidences existing regarding the place of origin of migrants. Studies on internal and national migration reveal that migrants tend to take a common direction and that is from rural to a closely or fully urbanized area. This was justified by the fact that, many migrants consider some elements including the easy and free access to many facilities in semi urban or urban comparing to rural (Todaro 1987; In this study for example, the main factors pulling them were noted in the previous chapter as including proper housing, proximity to working place and possible easy transportation to the main cities. Nevertheless, this work also expected that more movement would be observed mainly from individuals who originated from the peri-urban and rural part of the DSA. The findings found that most individuals originated from the rural part of the DSA. This could mean that relevant people obtained the houses.

5.3.7 Household type of origin

It was important for this work to establish which households benefited mostly from this RDP housing development. The study found that those from the complex, nuclear and extended types of households were the ones who benefited from the development. Research has proofed that complex households are as a result of poverty (Amoateng, et al., 2007). However, after controlling for other factors those who came from complex households were more likely to move. This may mean that there was an overcrowding in the household which warrant a need for housing and this development came as a way to address it, which means that the development benefited the right households and was able to meet the requirements of the

policy which targeted those living in poverty. However, although the study did not go further in examining the level of poverty in the community, but existing evidences and information from the ground reveal that there exists a high level of poverty in the community under-study. Therefore, the assumptions that the requirement of the policy was met remain uncertain.

5.4 Implications and limitations of the Study

Generally, demographic determinants of people who moved into RDP housing developments are not always simpler and obvious and need more research. There is still need to develop inclusive studies within which country-wide movement dynamics of these individuals and their households could be better understood. Current information suggested that not only individuals who are intended to move into these developments end up being the beneficiaries of these houses, people move from different parts of the provinces and country, make arrangements to allow them to access the houses. This might require the government to review the strategies used for the allocation of the houses and the nature of beneficiaries intended for the houses.

Lack of literature for this work make it difficult to make solid conclusions in comparison with other findings, however the housing and migration literature that was used provided a basis for the success of this work.

Representativeness and Geographical limitation: Indlovu village is predominantly Zulu and have a value as a case study which provides detailed information on the specific sub-population. Geographically the population may represent the dynamics in KwaZulu Natal and can not be used to generalise at national or provincial level or explain the situation that prevailed in other provinces like Gauteng and Cape Town.

Selection bias: this can be overlooked because the data that was used for the purpose of this work is derived from a big surveillance system which has been around since 1997. Generally, this study looked at movement of individuals from the DSA to Indlovu village. It did not take into consideration the back movement of people who might have moved back to the DSA. This movement could have been caused by the fact that the sizes of the houses are small to accommodate their families. Again the study did not look at those individuals who are renting.

Policy limitations: The RDP policy use money as an indicator for socio-economic status. Previous work showed that income is not a reliable variable to determine socio-economic status hence use of assets. This policy intended to address a social inequality that was a result of apartheid regime; however, it failed to identify a qualifying factor that will accurately measure socio-economic status of the South Africans. There is no provision in the policy to verify proof of residence. This would assist the system to identify people who were supposed to get the houses.

5.5 Conclusions

This study was conducted in Indlovu village situated in the rural Kwazulu-Natal. Its main objective was to examine migration into New Housing Developments (RDP), in Northern KwaZulu Natal. In order to respond to the problem statement of the study, the dissertation examined the socio-economic and demographic characteristics of house-holds/individuals that moved into RDP houses in Indlovu village, Northern KwaZulu-Natal between the year 2003 and 2006.

According to the objective number two, the study aimed to understand the characteristics of and the population of Indlovu village and their place of origin. Hence, the aim to understanding the difference between peoples who migrated in and those who did not. With an effort to understand the determinants of the movements, the demographic and socio-economic characteristics of the people migrating were examined, which also helped to measure the relationship between what the government policy targeted and the ultimate inhabitants of the Indlovu village.

In order to respond to the main objectives and aims of the study, the study used the data that were provided by the Africa Centre for health and population studies, which is a demographic surveillance area characterised by household and HIV surveillance. The study used quantitative method to analyse the 2003 and 2006 data collected for the household surveillance and socio-economic status. The data were analysed using STATA software which helped at finding the estimates and to test the significance of the coefficients in the

model. Unlike the way it was expected and as the policy was planned; the study's findings revealed that many people who benefited from the RDP houses were from a distant place far from the ones who they were intended for. Moreover, although the Indlovu village was meant for poor population, the analysis of the data used in this study suggests that people who migrated into these houses were not necessarily poor as anticipated.

Opposing to the objective number four that was set to examine the relationship between what government policies were targeting and the ultimate inhabitants of the Indlovu village, The findings in this work clearly show that most of the people who benefit from RDP housing developments are more likely to come from places that are different from the targeted ones. The people who were meant to benefit from these RDP housing are those who lived in the over-crowded informal settlement nearby KwaMsane. Unfortunately as the findings suggest, these were not the only beneficiaries, since other people from as far as Empangeni (a city situated at almost 55 km from Indlovu village) ended up benefit from this project as well.

Understanding movement of people and their motivations to move has been a major interest in demography. Nevertheless, there is great interest to understand characteristics of who move in to RDP housing developments. The development adds an interest in the observation of general movement of people in South Africa. However a limited literature makes it difficult to fully understand RDP housing induced movements in the country. On the other hand similarities are observed on demographic characteristics of people who move to RDP houses and those who generally migrate. Middle age and the economically active group were more likely to migrate to Indlovu village. The observation concluded that there are very few economical activities in the area resulting in people doing part time or domestic work. And very few had attained higher education.

According to the theory of push and pull factors, economical reasons are one of the major cause of migration. The current study being a residential movement, the result still suggest that people with high socio-economic status were more likely to dominate movement stream towards these housing developments. Therefore, this study reveals that not everyone who moved in this area came from a longer distance; neither does it assume that the group that moved from the DSA is representative of all other migrants in the village. As it is explicitly indicated; the Indlovu housing scheme target people living in and around the DSA, but the development mostly benefited those originating from faraway places. Almost 60% of the

residents in Indlovu came from places outside the DSA while only 36% originated from within the DSA.

It can be conclusively said that the housing development was able to attract individuals from household with average socio-economic status and those from high and very high socio-economic status relative to the very poor households. The RDP policy required that poor individuals with low socio-economic status should benefit, unfortunately the current study proves the contrary. However, though by demographic characteristics (gender, age and marital status) most of the beneficiaries met the criteria for eligibility for RDP housing, most came from places further than communities surrounding these housing schemes, disadvantaging the intended beneficiaries

Recommendations

Every research is designed for different reasons but three are the most common:

- Firstly it is to assist policy makers in decision making when designing policies that can favour and benefit the community.
- Secondly, to fill the gape existing in the literature or between the researched and no researched spaces in a particular field.
- Thirdly and most importantly, a research is conducted to solve particular existing problems so there is a much larger audience eager to support research that is likely to be profitable or solve problems of immediate concern.

It is therefore important to understand how research impacts decision making and problems solving. In another way, research findings can play a role voicing on behalf of the community under-study (when the study involved human beings such as the current).

Based on the findings from this study, few recommendations can be made including:

- Research: more research of this nature is required so that the government could understand who move to RDP housing developments. Although longitudinal studies are expensive to run, it is however important for the South African government to invest in a quality surveillance that will provide better understanding of who stay in these houses. Census The state should not only rely on census or national surveillances because they provide de facto at national level, cross sectional data and although they

allow deeper inquiry and allow retrospective longitudinally, these kinds of observations do not address the complex social transitions in a comprehensive manner.

- Department of housing: this study recommends also that the South African housing department should find better ways to make sure that vulnerable, deserving citizens benefit from these projects. Moreover, there should be a clear direction from national Government on rural development. Private -Public Partnership must be encouraged so that housing problems are addressed. The uMkhanyakude district's leadership must work closely with the NGOs at place, the churches and the private sector, in the provision of housing. These institutions must be included in local and even national Government mechanisms for selection of RDP housing beneficiaries. The private sector must be encouraged to invest in rural areas. Local governments must look beyond the provision of houses but must aim at improving their performance in service delivery.
- The South African government: A rural housing supervisory body must be established in order to solve the problem of housing delivery in some rural area. It is evident that local leadership and municipalities do not have the capacity to address housing delivery in some rural areas. This is one of the reasons that lead to acquisition of housing to a non-intended beneficiary. Therefore, the existence of this body will develop good organization and the capacity to implement housing projects and mandates by the national Government. This body must be given autonomy to deal with all technicalities that are involved and will operate under the national body which is the National Department of Housing. The body will ensure that housing beneficiaries are within the requirements of the law and policy set by the housing department and the South African Government.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Results

Table A 1: Comparison of individuals who live in Indlovu village who have their origin in the DSA and those that never came from the DSA

| Determinant | Those who claimed to originate From DSA N | Those who originated from Elsewhere N | P-value |
|--|---|---------------------------------------|---------|
| Gender | | | |
| Females | 476(60) | 717(51.32) | |
| Males | 316(40) | 680(48.68) | <0.001 |
| Age Groups | | | |
| Younger | 335(42.30) | 682(48.8) | |
| Middle Age | 409(51.64) | 670(47.96) | |
| Older | 48(6.06) | 45(3.22) | <0.001 |
| Marital Status | | | |
| Currently married | 32(4.06) | 0(0.0) | |
| Never married | 722 (91.51) | 43(3.08) | |
| Previously married | 23(2.94) | 0(0.0) | |
| Missing | 12(1.52) | 1353(96.92) | <0.001 |
| Education | | | |
| No education | 370(47.99) | 16(1.15) | |
| Primary education | 86(11.15) | 4(0.29) | |
| Secondary education | 76(9.86) | 1(0.07) | |
| Tertiary education | 3(0.39) | 0(0.0) | |
| Too young | 123(15.95) | 344(24.71) | |
| Missing | 113(14.66) | 1027 (73.78) | <0.001 |
| Employment | | | |
| No employment | 334(42.17) | 14(1.0) | |
| Employed | 139(17.55) | 7(0.5) | |
| Missing/part time | 319(40.28) | 137(98.5) | <0.001 |
| Type of Household | | | |
| Solitary | 86(10.86) | 148(63.25) | |
| Incomplete | 26(34.7) | 49(65.33) | |
| Nuclear | 14(33.3) | 28(66.67) | |
| Skipped | 19(34.55) | 36(65.45) | |
| Complex | 290(37.04) | 493(62.96) | |
| Extended | 139(37.98) | 227(62.02) | 0.982 |
| Household Socio-economic status | | | |
| Very low SES | 2(0.93) | 1(0.33) | |
| Low SES | 10(4.65) | 14(4.58) | |
| Average SES | 47(21.86) | 83(27.12) | |
| High SES | 88(40.93) | 112(36.60) | |
| Very high SES | 68(31.63) | 96(31.37) | 0.588 |
| Place of origin | | | |
| Peri-Urban | 593(74.87) | Missing | |
| Rural | 112(14.14) | Missing | |
| Urban | 87 (10.98) | Missing | |

Appendix 2: Explanation of inclusion of Indlovu village into the DSA

Details of expansion of the DSA to include the INDLOVU village

Amended version post meeting 21st June 2006 (Present: Lindiwe Ndlovu, Tinofa Mutevedzi, Caterina Hill)

We have received ethical approval for the expansion of the Demographic Surveillance Area (DSA) to include approximately 1200 new houses that have been built just outside the current DSA boundary, in previously sparsely inhabited land. This new housing development is supported by the Government's rural development programme (RDP). Such new housing is likely to be taken up by people from within the current DSA.

Motivation for expansion of the Demographic Surveillance Area

Population surveillance seeks to include all social and economic strata in a population and therefore it is important to include this new development within the DSA for the following reasons:

- a. Many individuals and households from the current DSA may move into this area and therefore would be lost to follow-up.
- b. All clinic catchment areas are currently included within the DSA. If this new development were to be excluded, important information regarding health utilization would be missed.
- c. The original boundary was drawn up to represent the heterogeneity present in South Africa. As RDP housing increases in rural South Africa it would be advantageous to have this subpopulation in the DSS.
- d. Our socio-economic and demographic data can be used to examine the access to such housing and therefore may contribute to rural development policies.

Project for fieldwork operations

CLO are seeking community permission for expansion. They have met with Counselor Zungu who is positive about the expansion. He will present to the ward council and then ask AC to present to the full council. At community meetings a CAB member will then be elected. There will be a road show in the neighbouring area to which they will be invited.

NB: CLO to keep team informed as to when these meetings may occur. The decision may be taken to delay start of fw in these areas until the formal introduction to the community has taken place, if the meetings are later than the beginning of the new round.

There will be approximately 1200 bounded structures that will need to be registered.

Field staff requirements

There is currently budget for 5 FWs (2 type B and 3 type A)

Current modeling suggests we will need more than 3 Type A FWs for the first 6-months, when registration will take place. In which case provisions to be made to deploy the Type B FWs to this area, until January 2007 when the registration will be complete and the eligibility list including this area drawn.

There is also budget for 1 SV. (Nb: Tinofa to motivate for funding for the additional standby sv)

Action:

1. Tinofa to make final decisions around this (with Caterina) and present to Kobus. This needs to be done quickly, as the FWs will be employed at the beginning of the new round (July).
2. Lindiwe to deploy the best existing FWs. If 3, then 3 female. If 5, then 4 female and 1 male. New FWs to be deployed in existing areas.
3. Lindiwe also to deploy SV in this area

Logistics of new area

Accommodation:

Accommodation to be found where the FWs would like to live, not the INDLOVU village, due to security concerns.

Transport:

FWs to meet SV at Centre every morning and drive together to Indlovu village.

FWs to store bundles in locked cupboard.

SVs&FWs to log the time that it takes for FWs and SVs to leave office every morning.

Security:

FWs to work only during day-light hours.

Appendix 3: Specifications for data requests

Final dataset request list

Rules for eligibility

Criteria

- a) All individuals under surveillance in Indlovu village on the 1st October 2006
- b) All DSA residents on 1st January 2003 who are 18 years and older

Other rules for extracting the data

- Socio-economic dataset for 2003 will be used if the information is not complete 2005 data will be used for dataset b.
- For individuals under surveillance in Indlovu village (dataset a), 2007 Socio-economic dataset will be used, if not complete 2008 data will be used.

Summary of variables sources

a) Variables required for individuals under surveillance in Indlovu village on the 1, October 2006;

- Age of an individual at 1 Oct 2006
- Gender of the individual
- Place of origin of individuals that are under surveillance in Indlovu village
 - For the individuals under surveillance in Indlovu village information on place of origin is required i.e. whether a person comes from the DSA or elsewhere.
- Marital status of the beneficiary at 1 oct 2006
- Socio-economic status data collected in 2007/8.
- BS ID of residence in Indlovu on 1 Oct 2006
- HHIntID of household they are co-resident with in Indlovu on 1 Oct 2006

b) Variables required for all DSA residents on 1st January 2003

- Age of individuals on 1 Jan 2003
- Gender of the individuals
- Residence BSIntID of individual from the DSA on 1 Jan 2003
 - Provide isigodi of origin, bounded structure and whether the bounded structure is classified as rural, peri-urban or urban
- Marital status of the individual on 1 Jan 2003
- Socio-economic status of the household of origin collected in 2003/2005/ 2006
- HHIntID of household the individual is co-resident with on 1 Jan 2003.

Dataset 1: Individual dataset variable list

Criteria for inclusion

- a) All individuals under surveillance in Indlovu village on the 1st October 2006

Unit of analysis

- Individual & couples

| Variable name | Description | Notes |
|----------------------|---|-----------------------------|
| IIntId | unique internal Id of | All individuals resident in |
| Sex | Male or Female | |
| Date of Event | When did the individual | |
| Partnership status | Partnership on 1 st Oct. 2006 | |
| Marital status | Marital status on 1 st Oct. | |
| Age | Age of individual on 1 st Oct. | |
| Place of origin | DSA, outside DSA, or born | |
| | If coming from DSA, provide | |
| OriginBSIntId | Id of Bounded | Bounded structure in which |
| CurrentBSIntId | Id of Bounded structure in | Resident in on 1 Oct 2006 |
| OriginHHIntID | Id of the household of origin | Household to which the |
| CurrentHHIntID | Id of the household in | HouseholdId of the |
| Residency start type | An individual should start as | |

Dataset 2: Individual dataset variable list

Criteria for inclusion

- b) All DSA residents on 1st January 2003

Unit of analysis

- Individual & couples

| Variable name | Description | Notes |
|----------------------|---|-----------------------------|
| IIntId | unique internal Id of | All individuals resident in |
| Sex | Male or Female | |
| Date of Event | When did an individual move | NULL if the person did not |
| Partnership status | Partnership when on 1 st Jan. | |
| Marital status | Marital status on 1 st Jan. 2003 | |
| Age | Age of individual on 1 st Jan. | |
| Place of origin | Provide isigodi of origin, | |
| BSIntId | Id of Bounded | Bounded structure the |
| HHIntID | Id of the household of origin | Household to which the |
| Residency start type | An individual should start as | |

Dataset 3: Household assets

a) Criteria for inclusion

- All households of the individuals in Dataset 1 and collected in 2007, or if unavailable in 2008.
- All households of the individuals in Dataset 2 and collected in 2003, or 2005 if not available in 2003.

b) Unit of analysis

- One record per household

| Variable name | Description | Notes |
|---------------------------|-------------------------------|----------------------------|
| HHIntId | Household Id. | To be linked to HHIntID in |
| VisitDate | HSE visit date | 2003, 2005 datasets and |
| Socio-economic Category | As developed through PCA | |
| Bed | Number of beds owned | |
| Block maker | Number of block makers | |
| Car | Number of cars/bakkies | |
| Electric stove with oven | Number of electric stoves | |
| Electric Hot plate | Number of electric hot plates | |
| Fridge | Number of fridges owned | |
| Gas cooker | Number of gas cookers | |
| Hoe, spade or garden fork | | |
| Kombi/Lorry/tractor | Number of Kombis; lorries; | |
| Kitchen sink | Number of kitchen sinks | |
| Motorcycle | Number of motorcycles | |
| livestock | Does HH keep any livestock | |
| Primus cooker, Siken | Number of primus cookers | |
| Radio/Stereo | Number of radios/stereos | |
| Sofa | Number of sofas owned | |
| Sewing machine | Number of sewing machines | |
| Table/Chairs | Number of tables/chairs | |
| Telephone | Number of landlines owned | |
| Cell phone | Number of cell phones | |
| Television | Number of television owned | |
| Video cassette recorder | Number of video cassette | |
| wheelbarrow | Number of wheelbarrows | |
| Kettle | Number of kettles owned | |
| Car Battery | Number of car batteries | |
| Bicycle | Number of bicycles owned | |

NB: Principal component analysis to identify five socio-economic groups

Appendix 4: Ethical approval

Faculty of Humanities, Development and Social
Sciences
University of KwaZulu Natal
Memorial Tower Building
Howard College Campus

Masters Proposal: Demographic determinants of moving into an RDP housing development: Case of Indlovu village in the Africa Centre Demographic Surveillance Area.

This is to advise that the Faculty Higher Degrees committee approved your research proposal and request for ethical clearance, and that you may proceed with your research project.

This permission is subject to review by the University Research Committee, who will be sending you a letter in due course.

Kind regards

Suzette van der Westhuizen
Temporary Postgraduate Officer: Postgraduate Studies

Appendix 5: Pictures and Maps

Figure A1: Map of the Africa Centre Surveillance Area

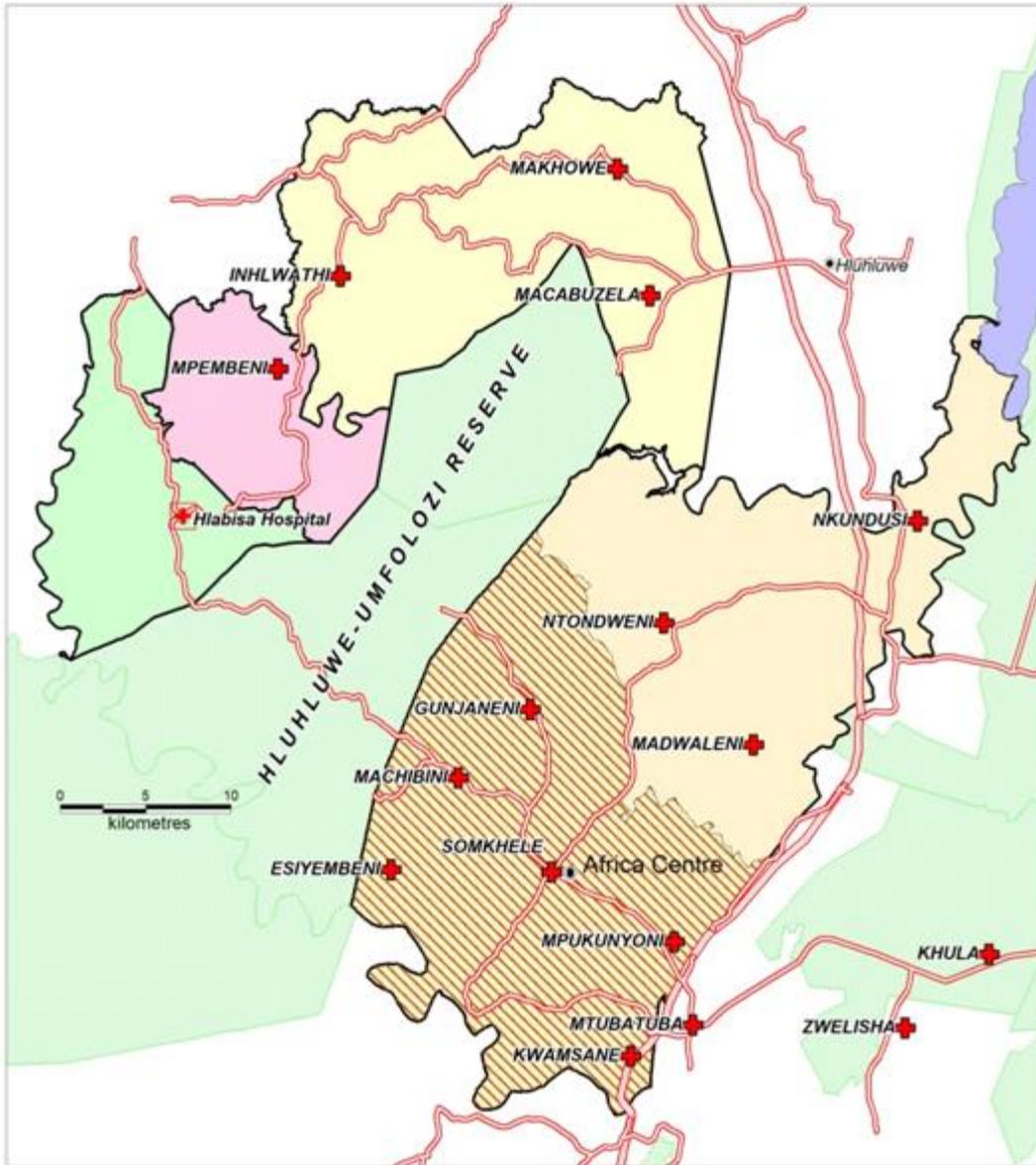


Figure A2: Map of Indlovu Village



Source: Google maps 2006

Figure A3: Indlovu village Photo taken in July 2011

