The Impact of Internal Migration on Housing Shortage and Affordability: the Case of Cape Town, South Africa

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Declaration

Hereby I, Oluwaseyi Olatundun Efuntoye, declare that ''Internal Migration on Housing Shortage and Affordability: The Case of Cape Town, South Africa,'' is my own original work and that all sources have been accurately reported and acknowledged, and that this document has not previously in its entirety or in part been submitted at any university in order to obtain an academic qualification.

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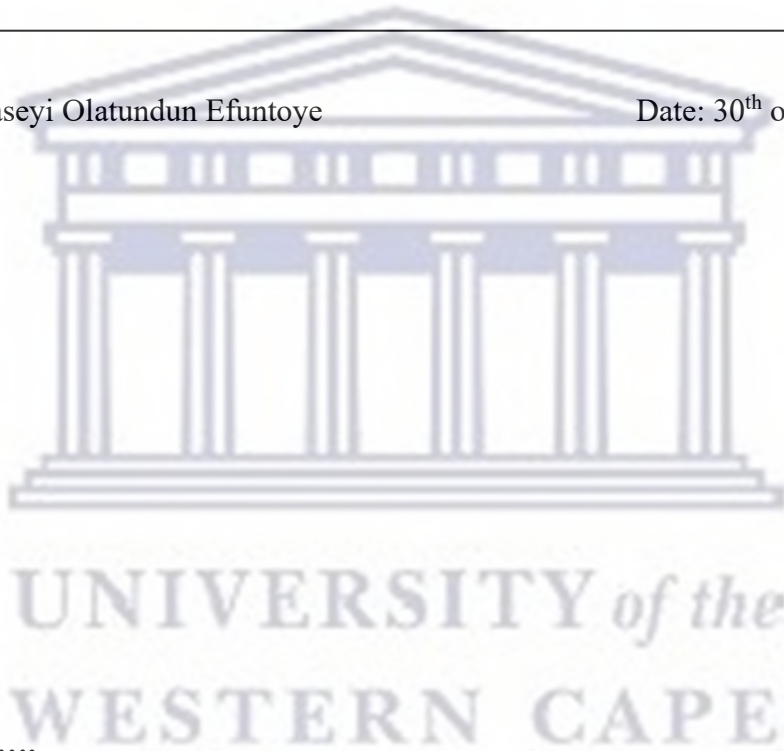
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Abstract

Cape Town faces a significant housing shortage and affordability challenge, a situation exacerbated by internal migration dynamics. Internal migration in South Africa is driven primarily by regional disparities at the macroeconomic level and a fundamental dearth of employment opportunities, resulting in suboptimal living conditions among diverse socioeconomic strata. Urbanization in South Africa is a pressing concern, characterized by uncontrolled growth in slums and informal settlements and a persistent inadequacy of suitable housing options. Within this context, this study examines the ramifications of internal migration on housing shortages and affordability in Cape Town. This study is motivated by a United Nations projection, which predicts that South Africa will see an increase in the urban population, with an estimated 71.3% of the population residing in urban areas by 2030. This projection underscores the importance and relevance of the present study. To comprehensively grasp the impacts of internal migration on housing, this study draws on three theoretical frameworks: the Migration-Residence (M-R) model theory, the Push-Pull-Mooring Migration Model (PPM model), and the Agglomeration Theory. It employs mixed methods that encompass both qualitative and quantitative research techniques, and analyzes secondary data using descriptive statistics. The findings highlight how internal migration significantly affects urbanization, housing demand, and sociopolitical inequalities in Cape Town. Multiple factors, including a robust local economy, internal migration flows, and a flourishing tourism sector, collectively contribute to this phenomenon. Furthermore, the research reveals Cape Town's attractiveness as a destination for internal migrants, exerting considerable strain on its infrastructure, public services, job markets, and availability of affordable housing. Considering these findings, the principal recommendation of this study pertains to the incentivization of private sector investors and developers through initiatives that support housing affordability and shortage reduction. Establishing partnerships and fostering collaborations are proposed as strategic avenues to stimulate engagement in affordable housing initiatives, thereby ameliorating the prevailing housing crisis.

Key words: *Internal migration, Urbanization, Housing Shortage, Housing affordability, Housing, Adequate housing, Human settlements, Cape Town, South Africa*

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This degree would be nowhere to be without my Helper, my Rock, Jesus, and Lover of my soul. Oluwa mi, e se, mo du pe. Eyin le se eyi tan.

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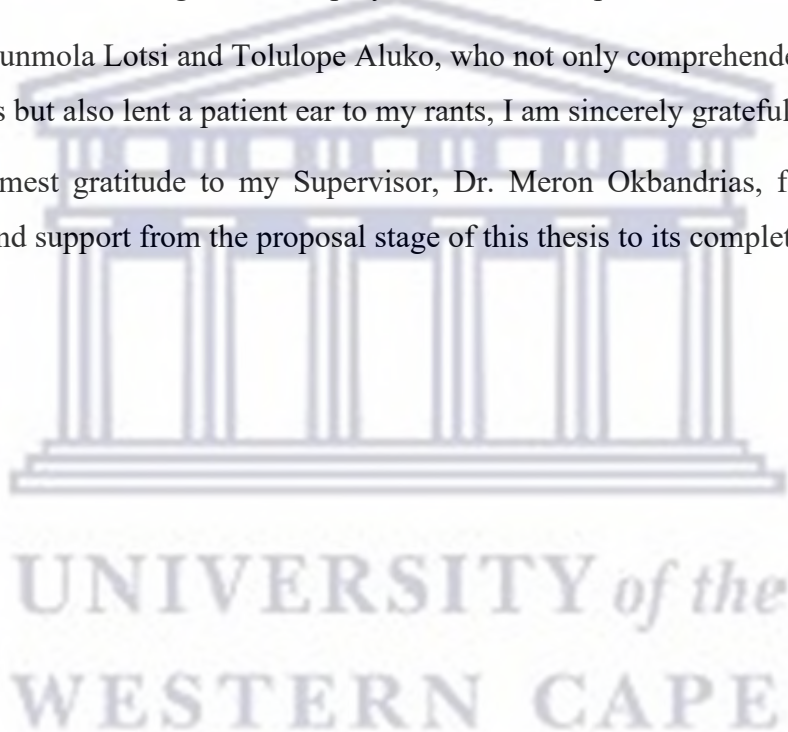
Dedication

...to my unborn children, I trust that I, your mother, made you proud.

...and to myself, girl, look! You did not give up; You made it through it all.

Abbreviations and Acronyms

BNG	Breaking New Grounds
CAHFA	Centre for Affordable Housing Finance in Africa
COHRE	Centre on Housing Rights and Evictions
COVID-19	Coronavirus Disease 2019
DESA	Development Education Society for Africa
DoH	Department of Housing
DPME	Department of Planning, Monitoring and Evaluation
DSC	Delft Symphony community
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GFC	Global Financial Crisis
IDT	Independent Development Trust
OHCHR	Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights
IMF	International Monetary Fund
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
PPM	Push and Pull Model
MTSF	Medium-Term Strategic Framework
M-R Paradigm	Mehrabian & Russell paradigm
NASHO	National Association of Social Housing Organisations
NHP	National Housing Platform
NIDS	National Income Dynamics Study
RDP	Reconstruction and Development Plan
RPPI	Residential Property Price Index
SDG	Sustainable Development Goals
SHRA	Social Housing Regulatory Authority
SARB	South African Reserve Bank
StatsSA	Statistics South Africa
UN	United Nations
UNHCR	United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

1.1 Introduction

People move from one place to another through migration, a global phenomenon that is frequently linked to a shift in their permanent abode. Migration is caused by interregional and intraregional inequities at the macro level as well as a fundamental lack of employment possibilities that lead to poor living conditions among various socioeconomic groups at the micro level. The lack of opportunities in the socioeconomic sector operates as a push force, whereas opportunities from more developed locations act as pull factors. In addition to economic factors, social, political, cultural, environmental, health, educational, and transportation variables influence migration (Van Hear et al., 2018).

The internal migration research field investigates two main questions: the characteristics of those who move, and the factors that drive population growth in certain areas. The factors influencing the decision of individuals or households to move may include economic considerations, life stages, social and cultural influences, and regional policies. Similarly, factors that contribute to population growth in particular regions may include economic advantages, changes in the demographic makeup of an area, and policies that affect the benefits and drawbacks of living in a certain location for both individuals and businesses (White & Lindstrom, 2005). Internal migration is acknowledged as a significant method through which changes occur in the spatial distribution of people over time (Greenwood, 1997). Since Ravenstein's original scientific study in 1885, which focused primarily on demographic and economic factors, the movement of people across different locations has been researched as a complex phenomenon (Turok, 2012).

The right to housing is acknowledged as a fundamental human right that includes the ability to have a sufficient standard of living. The government is dedicated to ensuring that all citizens have access to a suitable home, as outlined in Section 26, Subsection 1 of Chapter 3 of the 1996 South African Constitution (referred to as the South African Constitution).

The three domains of government's roles and obligations in ensuring that South African citizens have adequate low-income housing are clearly laid out in the Constitution (Bidandi, F., 2007; Tyhotyholo, T, 2021). According to Khan and Thring (2003), the population of South Africa's

urban areas is expected to double by 2010, reaching an average of 9.5 million and metropolitan regions generating more than 90% of South Africa's GDP. This increase will put significant pressure on the national resources and infrastructure. Furthermore, a large portion of the country's poor population resides in rural areas, causing a specific demographic (between the ages of 18-45) to move to metropolitan areas in search of improved amenities. Therefore, urban revitalization and rural development are necessary complementary measures. For instance, the number of households in numerous municipalities in South Africa has increased by an average of 3.3% annually (Marutlulle, 2021a). Considering the current migration and demographic trends of the population, it is necessary for provincial and local governments to plan for a projected household growth rate of 25,000–40,000 per year, given the steady influx of immigrants from rural areas and refugees from other parts of the world. South Africa is currently facing a significant housing backlog, estimated at over five million homes. Over 200,000 new households each year are unable to find sufficient accommodations. People who reside in substandard housing include those who live in hostels, backyard bungalows, and shacks as well as those who live in informal settlements (Bah et al., 2018).

Internal and international migrations are two distinct types of migration. Internal migration involves individuals relocating within a country, while international migration involves people crossing borders seeking employment, a new residence, or a better standard of living (Thet, 2014). Concern or even anxiety over the rate of urban population expansion and that of larger cities is a major driver of policy interest in internal migration (Lucas 1997). There are four categories of internal migration: moving from one rural area to another, moving from a rural area to an urban area, moving from an urban area to a rural area, and moving from one urban area to another (Cattaneo and Robinson, 2019). Urbanization is a process by which rural populations become urban residents (Shaoquan et al., 2004). Therefore, this study will be focusing on the rural-urban migration, and in this context "internal migration'' and "urbanization'' will be used interchangeably. This study examines how internal migration contributes to housing shortages in Cape Town with the intention of identifying strategies to address this challenge. The next section offers a historical examination of the internal migration and housing distribution challenges in South Africa and the City of Cape Town.

1.2 Study Background

Generally, Mpumalanga, KwaZulu-Natal, Eastern Cape, and Limpopo, which are rural provinces, have been the main sources of labor for mines. The impact of apartheid in South Africa has played a role in the rise of rural-urban migration. In the past, certain racial groups had been prohibited from moving to other regions. With the elimination of apartheids, people can now travel freely, leading to an increase in internal migration within the country (Mlambo, 2018).

In present-day South Africa, internal migration, which is mainly driven by employment opportunities, is more prevalent than cross-border migration. According to the most recent population survey, 6.1% of the population had moved within the country over the five years preceding the census, while only 1.1% had moved from abroad (Stats SA, 2022). South Africa is home to a diverse array of internal migration types undertaken by a broad spectrum of people. In the country's 2022 population census, age, gender, and education were established as crucial individual-level factors that influence and are associated with internal migration. This type of mobility is often driven by employment and job searches, and areas with higher unemployment rates tend to have higher outmigration rates. Young adults are most likely to migrate internally; while internal migration streams are still overwhelmingly male, they are increasingly becoming more female (Ginsburg et al., 2016; Stats SA, 2022).

Despite the prevalence of urbanization, there remains a strong connection between South Africa's rural and urban areas, despite the trend of internal migration toward more urban settlement patterns (Wickramage et al., 2018). According to Sakketa (2023), the relationship between South Africa's rural and urban areas is deeply intertwined, with each depending on the other in various ways. Urban inhabitants rely on rural areas for essential resources like food and natural materials. Conversely, rural communities often depend on urban services for critical needs. This interdependence underscores the vital connection between the two. Rural residents play a significant role in supplying food and natural resources to urban centers, highlighting the symbiotic nature of the relationship. This dynamic can impact economic incentives for farmers, driving up prices and motivating increased crop production to meet urban demand. However, urbanization can also pose challenges to rural areas. The expansion of cities and suburbs can lead to the loss of fertile agricultural land, reducing the overall farming capacity (van Vliet, 2019). Additionally, human mobility between rural and urban areas, whether through temporary or permanent

migration, commuting, or circular migration, can influence social and economic structures. Changes in agricultural fertility rates and social relations may occur as a result, potentially exacerbating income inequalities or fostering positive developments, depending on various factors. Urbanization can also open avenues for rural employment by boosting the demand for goods and services from rural areas and improving access to urban markets (Gutu Sakketa, 2023). The significance of internal migration in a country's economic, social, and demographic development cannot be overstated. This can significantly impact population growth and employment rates within nations, which is essential for the proper functioning of housing markets and overall economic growth. Additionally, it allows individuals and families to achieve their goals and aspirations (Bell et al., 2015; Bernard et al., 2014; Maza, 2020).

In the late 1980s, as the influence of the apartheid state diminished, so did official limitations to travel to and within South Africa. South Africa's previously prohibited cities became the main entry point for immigrants from all over the country when the nation held its first democratic election in 1994. They have grown into major hubs for migratory workers from all over the continent and beyond, who are looking for work, safety, and a chance to continue their journey. The population and economy of the nation have been transformed like never before by human mobility (Hiropoulos, 2020).

Mlambo (2018) and Posel (2010) associate the movement of employees from rural to urban areas within the South African economy with the search for better employment opportunities. Studies conducted in South Africa often conclude that immigrants' post-migration wages increase. Njwambe et al. (2019) in a recent study found that people who move from rural to urban areas in South Africa are more likely to secure formal employment than those who do not migrate. According to the United Nations, 71.3% of South Africa's population is expected to reside in urban areas by 2030. Although this depicts the growth of South Africa, it also raises concerns about the future of rural areas in the country. As rural-urban migration becomes more frequent, these areas will continue to lose talented and progressive individuals, exacerbating the cycle of poverty and underdevelopment (Mlambo, 2018).

South Africa remains one of the most unequal countries in the world, 25 years after the end of apartheid, in terms of income class, race, and gender. The ownership of household assets, including business ownership and household resources, access to high-quality education, which is largely

determined by family wealth and race, municipal infrastructure, and stark differences in household income are all indicators of inequality. Historically, exporting regions of labor have generally lagged considerably behind the rest of the nation (Makgetla, 2020a). There has been a noticeable influx of people from rural areas into cities across the country, leading to increased traffic congestion, housing infrastructure backlogs, and, to some extent, an increase in crime levels. This trend highlights the challenges that rural-urban migration presents to both rural and urban communities in South Africa (Mlambo, 2018).

1.3 Statement of the Problem

Rogerson (2017) showed spatial patterns of migration in metropolitan areas, wherein more than 10% of the population has recently moved to Metsweding, a smaller municipality in the Gauteng Province. While discussions of urbanization sometimes center on major cities, smaller villages beyond the "urban edge" are seeing Gauteng's fastest growth. The most notable and divisive result of this increase was the rise of shantytowns and other poorly maintained informal communities around older, better-served formal settlements (Landau & Segatti, 2009).

Particularly for previously oppressed South Africans, there was great hope for progress and change in human settlements after the apartheid government was overthrown and a democratic state was established in that country in 1994 (Tyhotyholo, 2021). To address this significant need, the government proposed a National and Provincial Housing Strategy that aims to provide all South Africans with access to affordable housing within suitable communities or locations. (Bidandi, 2007). However, a look at Cape Town's housing situation shows that the National and Provincial Housing Strategy do not have the expected effect. The Western Cape government has advised the development of appropriate methods for efficient distribution of low-income housing (Knoetze, 2014). In the same vein, Lategan (2017) claims that since the beginning of democracy, South Africa's low-income housing policies, planning rules, and laws have not been sufficient to meet the country's needs. Therefore, most South African urban townships (such as the DS community) are known for their subpar housing.

As a result, it is reasonable for planners and policymakers in various countries to strive to solve the challenges related to housing and related issues, particularly the shortage of housing, which has recently become a critical global concern (Marutlulle, 2017). The argument for social housing in South Africa has consistently been intertwined with the goals of urban development and social

progress (Visagie, 2020). Obvious signs of poverty and inequality in cities include slums, informal settlements and substandard housing. According to the UN (2008), the resolution of housing issues remains a challenge that varies from country to country and over time. These issues are shaped by the unique social, economic, and political contexts of each country as well as the public's sentiment towards living standards and their aspirations for housing improvements.

1.4 Research Question

The main research question is: What are the effects of internal migration on housing shortages and affordability in Cape Town, South Africa?

The sub-questions are as follows:

- What is the context of internal migration and its impact on Cape Town?
- What is the impact of Internal Migration on housing shortages and affordability in Cape Town?
- What are the recommendations for bridging the housing shortage gap in Cape Town?

1.5 Research Objective

As mentioned above, the main research objective is to examine the effects of internal migration on housing shortages and affordability in Cape Town, South Africa.

These sub-objectives are based on the aforementioned research questions:

- To investigate the context of internal migration and its impact on Cape Town.
- To assess the impact of internal migration on housing shortages and affordability in Cape Town.
- To provide recommendations to bridge the gap in housing shortages in Cape Town.

1.6 Significance of the Study

Rapid urbanization, along with housing and land shortages, is one of the main issues facing the South African government. The government's capacity to deliver housing has been limited, as more people relocate to urban regions, driving increasing demand. The number of individuals in need of housing has expanded with population growth and appears to be exponential in urban regions. This study is motivated by the alarming increase in informal settlements and housing shortages in Cape Town. The majority of South Africa's urban population is either unemployed or comes from low-

income backgrounds, making it difficult for them to afford to purchase apartments. As a result, this study focuses on examining Cape Town's urbanization trends and their underlying causes. The study also covers the benefits and drawbacks of urbanization and how these factors affect housing shortages in the city.

1.7 Data Collection

Secondary data were obtained from books, journals, newspaper articles, South Africa National Income Dynamics Study surveys, census reports, StatsSA reports, Centre for Affordable Housing Finance in Africa reports and the South African Department of Human Settlements. The data were critically examined to produce a well-informed report. The researcher performed a more detailed and fine-grained analysis of the collected secondary data, together with secondary figures, writing, and charts. The figures and charts will be examined and analyzed in the form of descriptive statistics, such as graphs and charts, to obtain reliable results. This constitutes part of the quantitative technique used. This method will help researchers arrive at a reliable conclusion on how internal migration impacts housing shortages and affordability in the City of Cape Town.

To ensure the accuracy of the research findings, it is crucial to clarify the nature of the secondary data and their significance in the context of this study, as the research will be based on secondary sources. Hox and Boeije (2005) stated that secondary data, which are collected for purposes other than research, can be used to answer social research questions. This type of data can serve as secondary data because they are archived or made available. The importance of secondary data analysis cannot be overstated as it can add valuable knowledge to existing research on a particular topic or related topics. By utilizing secondary data analysis, the information can be re-examined to address the research issue. In this investigation, secondary data were used to respond to the research question and resolve the problem. Furthermore, the secondary data that will be used will be sourced from publications, periodicals, articles, the Internet, and archived documents from government gazettes.

1.8 Data Analysis

The data were thoroughly examined and re-examined to obtain the information regarding the root causes of housing shortages and internal migration in Cape Town. Content analysis was applied to review and interpret textual data for patterns, themes, and relationships. This involved reviewing and evaluating secondary data sources to answer research questions and identify the reasons behind

housing shortages and internal migration in Cape Town. According to Hatch (2002), the process of data analysis involves a systematic search for meaning and the organization of collected data to bring order and structure, while also facilitating ongoing analysis. In this study, data from multiple secondary sources were gathered, reviewed, and analyzed to arrive at a particular conclusion.

1.9 Ethical Considerations

Ethics clearance was requested and received from the Humanities and Social Science Research Ethics Committee of the University of the Western Cape.

1.10 Definition of Concepts

This section provides precise definitions of the key concepts used throughout the research. This ensures that these terms are clearly understood in the context of this study, thus minimizing potential misunderstandings or ambiguities in the narrative. Further elaborations are available in the main text of the research when necessary. The key terms used in this study are internal migration, urbanization, human settlement, housing, and adequate housing.

1.10.1 Internal migration

This, also known as urbanization, adequate housing, and income disparity, is the key idea of this study. According to the World Bank (2006), internal migrants are those who have crossed administrative borders within a country. Internal migration is defined as "a shift from one migration-defining area to another that was made during a specific migration period and that involved a change of residence" in the United Nations guidelines for measuring internal migration. As a result, "a person who has shifted his customary place of residence from one migration-defining area to another at least once throughout the migration period" is defined as a "internal migrant" (United Nations, 1970). Existing literature defines an internal migrant in a variety of ways. The most typical premise is "time," where a person is classified as a migrant if they spend more time than a predetermined period away from their respective homes. However, there is no consensus regarding this timeframe (Sharma & Grote, 2019). While some studies use a month as the cutoff (Nguyen et al., 2015), others (Gröger & Zylberberg, 2016) define a migrant as someone who has been away from home for at least six months.

1.10.2 Urbanization

Urbanization refers to the process of population growth and migration to urban areas, resulting in the transformation of land for residential, commercial, industrial, and transportation purposes.(United States Environmental Agency, 2022). Smaller towns and rural areas experience population declines, whereas cities experience population growth due to urbanization. Urbanization is a process that occurs over time rather than all at once(Jones & Linde, 2021). Urbanization indicates a shift in the social, cultural, and economic facets of society. It is a transformation into an urban area; a flow of people or activities; or an expansion of urban areas, populations, or processes (Hussain & Imitivaz, 2016).

1.10.3 Human settlement

A recent study by Xie et al. (2022) indicated that the concept of the human settlement environment represents a comprehensive idea encompassing the amalgamation of quality of life and social well-being. Human settlements extend beyond the considerations of residential and ecological sustainability; they also encompass the economic and social sustainability of urban areas. Živković (2020) further buttresses human settlements to encompass the entire human community, including the social, physical, structural, spiritual, and cultural aspects that support it. Any place where a group of people lives, from a single house to a bustling city, and where they work toward their life objectives can be considered a settlement. The implications of human settlement can be described as follows: First, the focal point of human settlements is humanity itself, necessitating that they primarily fulfill the basic living requirements of individuals. Second, human settlements are intricately intertwined with the natural world in terms of habitation and productivity. Appropriateness of the natural environment significantly affects human health. Finally, human beings engage in interactions and connections with the natural environment (Xie et al., 2022).

1.10.4 Housing

Housing is a fundamental part of material culture and is present in almost all societies except nomadic ones. It is also a vital contributor to the nation's construction efforts and overall economic development. From a sociological perspective, housing plays a crucial role in maintaining community life over time (Encyclopedia, 2018). Housing serves as the cornerstone of stability and security for both individuals and families. It stands at the heart of our social, emotional, and

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financial lives. Ideally, a home should function as a sanctuary, offering a tranquil, safe, and dignified space for living. It is an essential human right (OHCHR, 2009).

1.10.5 Adequate Housing

The provision of adequate housing has been recognized as a crucial aspect of the right to a satisfactory standard of living, as stated in Article 25 of the 1948 Universal Declaration of Human Rights and Article 11.1 of the 1966 International Covenant on Economic, Social, and Cultural Rights. Essential features of adequate housing encompass security of tenure, access to services, affordability, livability, accessibility, and location.(OHCHR, 2009). The following factors contribute to housing inadequacy: the lack of affordable housing for the urban poor; population growth; rural-to-urban migration; weak governance in areas such as policy, planning, land management, and urban development, leading to land speculation and grabbing; economic vulnerability and underpaid work; and discrimination, marginalization, and displacement due to conflict, natural disasters, and climate change (UN-Habitat, 2015). Raymond et al. (2011) Refuted the characterization of substandard housing as an inhabited dwelling exhibiting significant physical deficiencies, including inadequacies in plumbing, heating, electricity, hallways, and upkeep.

1.11 Proposed Structure of the Thesis (Chapter Outline)

This study is divided into five parts.

Chapter 1

The first chapter provides the background and introduction of this study. It covers the statement of the problem as the challenges and complexities associated with housing and urban development in South Africa. In addition, it offers insights into the research questions, objectives, and significance of this study. It also describes the research methodology employed in this study and its guiding framework.

Chapter 2

This chapter delves into the literature review, providing an in-depth exploration of existing research, theories, and concepts relevant to the research topic. It also discusses the significance of internal migration and urbanization in South Africa, emphasizing the role of historical and social

factors in shaping migration patterns. The comprehensive literature review serves as the foundation for the subsequent chapters of the study, providing an understanding of the research context and guiding research methodology and analysis.

Chapter 3

This chapter focuses on the research methodology to explain how the study was conducted, including the methods, procedures, and tools employed to gather and analyze data. It further discusses the use of both qualitative and quantitative research methods, focusing on secondary data analysis with an emphasis on descriptive statistics as a data analysis technique.

Chapter 4

The fourth chapter develops the presentation and analyzes the research findings. It provides a comprehensive account of the data collected during the study and interprets the findings in relation to the research questions or objectives in alignment with the theoretical framework and research methodology.

Chapter 5

The final chapter provides conclusions and recommendations based on the research findings presented in Chapter Four. It summarizes the key points of the study and provides insights for future research and practical applications.

1.12 Conclusion

This chapter provides an overview of the study topic, including the historical context of migration in South Africa and its effect on housing. It also described the research issue, which is the growth of informal settlements in Cape Town due to the housing crisis and the failure of government efforts to address the crisis. The chapter also outlines the goals of the study, research questions, importance of the study, research methods used, and the structure of the thesis. The following chapter delves into the existing literature on affordable housing:

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW, CONCEPTUAL AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 Introduction

This chapter provides an overview of the historical context of internal migration in South Africa and Cape Town, focusing specifically on housing shortages. It examines this issue from global, regional, and local perspectives, and relates it to relevant theories. The literature reviewed primarily covers the legislation and policies implemented by the South African government and the City of Cape Town to address housing shortages, as well as the difficulties encountered in their implementation.

2.2 Theoretical Framework

The examination and explanation of how people view and assess their living environment have been conducted using a variety of ideas and conceptual frameworks. The Mehrabian and Russell (1974) (M-R) model is one of the theories considered in this study. The M-R paradigm contends that environmental stimuli, emotional states (pleasure, arousal, and dominance), and behavioral reactions (approach or avoidance) are the three components of human response to the physical world (Mehrabian & Russell, 1974). The M-R model posits that environmental stimuli have an impact on people's emotional states (transient bodily conditions that can change significantly and quickly throughout the course of a day), which in turn drives behavioral responses. Although behavioural responses can be categorised as approach or avoidance, feeling states can be classified as the individual's emotional state is determined by feelings such as happiness, contentment, and satisfaction (pleasure), their level of alertness or readiness to act (arousal), and their sense of control or dominance over their environment.(Mehrabian & Russell, 1974). Avoidance refers to actions that are the opposite of the approach, whereas approach reaction entails the desire to remain, look about, examine the surroundings, and interact with individuals in the area (Mehrabian & Russell, 1974). This implies that a person's assessment of the quality or sufficiency of a physical environment or service is affected by the traits of the various elements of the environment or services, and the person's emotional state (Kim & Moon, 2009). Research from Russell and Pratt (1980) indicates that affective meaning and perceptual-cognitive meaning are two types of

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attributes that people assign to their surroundings. The affective meaning of physical space refers to the emotional significance that people attach to it through language. Additionally, affective reaction is the emotional expression conveyed through speech. Oliver (1993), another proponent of the perceptual-cognitive paradigm recognised emotions as a mediator between cognitive assessments, which include consumer perceptions of the performance of goods or services.

The cognitive domain incorporates thinking and reaches a person's consciousness, whereas the affective domain deals with feelings (Oliver 2014; Wirtz and Bateson 1999). Additionally, Kaitilla (1993) connected emotive and cognitive domains to subjective and objective methodologies in a study on residents' contentment with public housing in Papua New Guinea. According to Mohit et al. (2010), people's psychological feelings regarding their housing situations are related to how subjectively they rate their surroundings. They clarified that, because this form of evaluation involves perception, it is directly tied to a person's psychological characteristics. On the other hand, the ability of the person to conduct comparative evaluations of what is accessible in relation to what was expected is the foundation of the objective approach to analyzing housing environments. The objective approach posits that individuals assess the physical attributes of housing and services based on their present requirements and desires, as well as criteria and standards set by governments, professionals, and experts.(Mohit et al., 2010).

According to income inequality theory, only those near the top of the distribution have seen real income gains, and the income distributions of most developed countries and their metropolitan areas are becoming increasingly unequal (Piketty, 2014; Wetzstein, 2017). The cost of constructing houses and government regulations contribute to making housing less affordable for households whose incomes have not risen at the same rate as housing prices, even if housing prices do not rise faster than other goods and services (Abelson, 2009). The widening income gap can be characterized by a growing need for affordable housing and an increasing demand for luxury housing due to higher income levels among the wealthy, while the number of households with decreasing real income is on the rise (Galster & Lee, 2021).

Conceptual techniques have also been explored to describe how people perceive and assess their environment. One such idea considered here is that proposed by Rapoport (1977). Rapoport (1977) asserts that people assess their surroundings by considering an idealized vision of how they would like them to be. This suggests that people typically evaluate their environment by first

visualizing what they want it to look like in their heads and then contrasting it with their idealized version (aspirations). On the one hand, this form of appraisal is typically affected by cultural values and life experiences (Kantrowitz & Nordhaus, 1980). However, Filfil (1999) believed that the main determinants of this type of evaluation by dwelling occupants were a person's socioeconomic position and role in their family or society. Actual-aspirational gap and purposive approaches to appraise the home environment have been introduced. According to the actual aspirational gap method, people appraise their surroundings by considering their own wants and goals. According to Galster (1987), people evaluate their surroundings by contrasting their objective features with standards to which they think they could legitimately strive. Therefore, the degree of incongruence between a person's aspirations and their real environment (which they have) determines whether their housing is adequate or satisfactory. Galster (1987) suggested that the purposive evaluation technique is based on an individual's perception of how his or her environment assists in accomplishing his or her life goals. This means that people frequently assess the environment in which they live depending on the function they anticipate it will serve, such as how much their housing will help them achieve their personal and/or social goals.

According to a review of various theoretical and conceptual approaches to evaluating the housing environment, people's perceptions and assessments of their living conditions are influenced by their emotional states and capacity to assess how well the environment meets their needs, aspirations, and expectations. As a result, the direct effects of housing environment on residents cannot be isolated from their impressions of adequate housing. This is determined by two important criteria. The first is the qualities that people connect with the physical and spatial dimensions of housing units and the calibre of ancillary services. Individual needs, desires, and expectations are discussed in the second section. These are frequently the result of individual characteristics, knowledge, and the capacity to recall and learn from prior consuming experiences, roles in families or societies, and values—economic, familial, personal, and social—that people attach to their living conditions (Ibem & Alagbe, 2015). This theory corroborates this research on the factors that influence a person's need to migrate to an urban region. This could be influenced by the person's need to experience urban culture, aspirations, and expectations of earning a higher income to accommodate their consumption experiences because of the roles they occupy in their families or societies.

According to agglomeration theory, migration to larger cities increases (at least some) the productivity of the labor force for a variety of reasons (Behrens et al., 2014; Chen et al., 2019; Rosenthal, S. et al., 2014). The government's restrictions and increased demand for housing in metropolitan areas caused by increased productivity and higher incomes can lead to higher housing prices. The growth in population in urban areas, regardless of the cause, can also contribute to rising housing prices if housing supply cannot keep up. However, this theory does not explain why the rate of increase in wages may not keep up with the rate of increase in housing prices (Galster & Lee, 2021).

Migration is defined in sociology and human geography as "the movement of a person (migrant) between two places for a specific period of time" (Jackson, 1986). The Push and Pull Migration Model (PPM) proposes that migrants' decisions to relocate are influenced by a combination of push, pull, and mooring factors (Bansal et al., 2005; Fu, 2011). Push factors include poverty, unemployment, low social status, political repression, rapid population growth, poor marriage prospects, lack of opportunities for personal growth, natural disasters, and landlessness. Pull factors are origin-based factors that give people a reason to stay (Bansal et al., 2005; King, 2012). Higher pay, career prospects, better education, a welfare system, pleasant living conditions, and political freedom are additive pull factors (King, 2012). Typically, pull influences are considered positive elements at the destination, whereas push factors are considered negative factors at the origin (Bansal et al., 2005). The mooring variables stand for individual, societal, or cultural aspects that influence or restrict the decision to move and it considers the intricacy of migration choices that can prevent potential migrants from moving forward or help them get to their intended destination such as cost, cultural differences, political hurdles, one's stage of life, and personality (Fu, 2011; King, 2012; Moon, 1995).

Finally, two variants of induced migration theory exist. Roback (1982) hypothesized that, in line with agglomeration, metropolitan centers with more amenities would draw more households from elsewhere (rural areas, cities with fewer amenities, and other countries). As a result, more labor will be available, which will drive wages down. At the same time, the sheer force of the increase in households will drive housing prices up and improve the housing price/income ratios. Gyourko et al. (2013) indicated that high-income households from various regions, possibly including foreign countries, will relocate to major cities that are considered desirable due to their high productivity and amenities. Because of their large size and financial resources, these households

will drive up housing costs, causing lower-income households to be priced out of the area over time. This process transforms the population distribution of the metropolitan area, as seen by the increasing cost of housing, income inequality, and migration patterns. If the national economy continues to produce more high-earners who choose to live in the most attractive geographic areas, these areas will see constant housing appreciation and escalating affordability issues for their (relatively) lower-income people.

2.3 Background on Internal Migration in South Africa

Over recent decades, Africa has experienced a notable increase in its population, with an annual growth rate of 2.53 percent between 1950 and 2015. This trend has been projected to continue over the upcoming four decades. Projections indicate that Africa's population, which stood at 1.18 billion in 2015, will soar to 2.44 billion by 2050. Even though most of Africa's population currently resides in rural areas (60%), there is a notable trend of people migrating from rural to urban areas. Between 2000 and 2015, the urbanization rate averaged 3.5 percent, which is the highest globally. It is projected that, by 2037, more than 50% of Africa's population will live in urban areas (Bah et al. 2018). There are few comparable statistics on internal migration in Africa; however, Zambia and South Africa have higher rates of internal migration (Bell et al., 2015).

Khobai and Roux (2017) stated that South Africa has both the largest and most industrialized economy in Africa, as well as being the 28th-largest economy in the world. Historically, urbanization in South Africa was significantly influenced by policies that regulated the movement and settlement patterns of black individuals. These policies aimed to restrict Africans' access to urban centers while encouraging them to reside in rural areas, which often have limited economic opportunities. However, in the early 1980s, these policies began to erode. The initial census conducted after the end of apartheid in 1996 revealed that 55.1% of South Africa's population lived in urban areas, a figure that increased to 57.5% in 2001. Approximately 64% of the population, equivalent to approximately 52 million people, now resides in urban areas, and this proportion is projected to increase to 70% by 2030 (Khobai & Roux, 2017). In the 20th century, both urban and national populations grew rapidly, and the number of urban areas increased more than tenfold. International migration is currently the primary cause of population growth at the national level (Aleshkovski, 2013).

Geographic mobility is common in South Africa where individuals migrate sporadically and permanently. Many South Africans were affected by insecure land rights and lack of housing due to the discriminatory laws implemented during the apartheid era (SERI, 2018). Segregation policies in South Africa initially stripped Black Africans of their land ownership rights. These policies later prohibited Black, Colored, and Indian/Asian South Africans from residing in areas designated exclusively for White South Africans. Consequently, workers, mainly men, had to move between rural areas and cities for employment (Wilson & Ramphele, 1989). A large portion of South Africa's population resided in townships designated for black individuals on the outskirts of cities. Owing to the apartheid government's hesitation to allocate resources to housing and municipal services, there was a severe lack of housing, overcrowding, and the emergence of squatter settlements in these townships (Marutlulle, 2021b). As a result, "informal settlements are being formed as a result of the shortage of affordable and suitable housing, and the practice of forcible eviction from such settlements prevails' (UNHCR, 2016). The traditional link between the apartheid system's movement control measures, which restricted black South Africans employed in mines and urban centers from permanently residing there, and circular migration cannot be overstated (Wentzel & Tlabela, 2015). Labor mobility, both within and across a country's borders, has historically been the backbone of the economies of South and Southern Africa. The income sent by migrant workers to their families and communities of origin plays a crucial role in supporting households and communities (Wilson, 1972). Following the failure of many apartheid-era regulations, the rate of urbanization accelerated in the 1980s. During this time, the rural-urban transition in the nation resumed, with an increasing percentage of people residing in cities and towns. From 1986 to 1987, the population of urban areas surpassed that of rural areas, and since then, the share has increased (Turok & Borel-Saladin, 2013). These connections between urban and rural communities persisted after apartheid. The apartheid-era design and policies of the country, which resulted in inefficient urban management and high operating costs, had a detrimental influence on the nation's physical form, social makeup, and economic structure. The housing challenges in South Africa are further complicated by the presence of extended households and circulatory migration. (National Department of Human Settlement, 2023)

More than 60% of South Africa's population is currently situated in urban areas, and this figure is projected to increase to 71.3% by 2030, making urban centers in the nation even more vital to its development trajectory (Department of Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs, 2017).

In modern South Africa, internal migration, primarily related to employment, is more common than cross-border migration. According to the recent population census, Gauteng and Western Cape recorded the highest number of incoming migrants, with approximately 795,330 and 406,549 individuals, respectively (Stats SA, 2022).

2.4 Reasons for Migration in South Africa

Owing to its influence on demographic, economic, and social development, internal migration is essential for a country's well-being. This may play a significant role in the rise and decline in employment and population patterns within nations. It has been recognized as essential to the effective operation of economies and housing markets, as well as enabling people and families to fulfil their objectives (Engler et al., 2020). The migration of individuals poses a challenge to the planning of health and social systems, which typically rely on a stable population. Additionally, interregional migration and urbanization are often linked to the socioeconomic progress of individuals and communities. However, the transitory and circulatory nature of modern internal movements makes it even more difficult to address this problem. Therefore, it is essential to gain a deeper understanding of a country's internal mobility patterns, trends, and impact on well-being, health, and productivity. Internal and external migrations in Africa theoretically support (occur in addition to) and potentially supplement (occur as a continuum of) each other. Both internal and international migration are the outcomes of many economic and social elements, but the primary motivation is migrants' quest for better economic prosperity (Bernard & Perales, 2022). People generally migrate when they are unable to fulfil their objectives within existing opportunity frameworks in their locations, regions, or nations. Particularly, when advancements in communication, transportation, and money raise people's expectations and strengthen their desire and capacity to travel, economic development can and does at first drive both internal and international migration (Franco Gavonel et al., 2021).

South Africa's primary reason for rural-urban migration is unequal economic opportunities, similar to many other countries. Additionally, cities have shown higher economic employment growth than the rest of the country. This is because they frequently produce things and services more effectively and at higher values than in other areas (Gondo, 2022). The concept of agglomeration economies, which arises from the concentration of economic activity, is evident in the benefits that result from sharing infrastructure, services, and information, as well as the mutual learning that

occurs between businesses and other organizations (Duranton & Puga, 2004; Storper, 2010; World Bank, 2009). South African cities have multiple important functions, such as serving as headquarters for major corporations, providing manufacturing and financial services, and offering high-quality public services such as government agencies, universities, and hospitals. Furthermore, these cities have received the majority of the country's recent foreign investment, including call centers and motor vehicle production (Turok & Borel-Saladin, 2013).

South Africa's 2022 population census illustrates that five provinces have experienced net population gains because of internal migration. These provinces include Gauteng, KwaZulu-Natal, Western Cape, Northern Cape, and Mpumalanga. Western Cape has seen a notable shift in its population rankings. In 1996, it held the position of the fifth largest province in terms of population size. As of 2022, it has ascended to the third largest province (Stats SA, 2022). These movements are frequently fueled by employment and the search for work, with out-migration being disproportionately high in towns with high unemployment rates. Young adults are most likely to migrate within their own country, and while males still make up most internal migration streams, more women are moving within those countries (Collinson et al., 2016; Statistics South Africa, 2015). Although a net shift toward more urban settlement types accounts for the majority of migrations occurring inside South Africa, there are still strong ongoing links between the nation's rural and urban areas (Ginsburg et al., 2016).

2.5 Global Housing Shortage and Affordability

As assessed by Quigley and Raphael (2004), housing affordability refers to a complex issue that encompasses various factors such as income distribution, borrowing capacity, government policies, housing supply, and consumer choices regarding housing consumption. The affordability of housing for a particular household depends on the costs of housing and non-housing goods, the financial resources available to pay for these goods, and normative standards that determine the minimal quantities of housing and non-housing goods that should be consumed (Bramley, 1990; Maclennan et al., 1990; Monk & Whitehead, 2000). A general guideline for affordable housing is that low-income households should not allocate more than 30% of their incomes to housing. For such housing to be sustainable, it must be of good quality and location for a lower- or middle-income household, without being so expensive that meeting other basic living costs becomes unsustainable (Adabre et al., 2020; Friedman & Rosen, 2018).

Severe housing shortages occur in many cities worldwide. The demand for housing in the most economically productive places far exceeds the supply as people move there in search of employment, education, and economic prospects. Unaffordable housing also fuels the homeless. A general guideline for affordable housing is that low-income households should not allocate more than 30% of their incomes to housing. For such housing to be sustainable, it must be of good quality and location for a lower- or middle-income household, without being so expensive that meeting other basic living costs becomes unsustainable (UN-Habitat 2020). The United States is currently experiencing a shortage of 1.5 million homes. The country has fewer housing options available for sale or rent than at any point in the past 30 years, and approximately 11 million Americans pay more than half of their income towards rent (Parrott & Zandi, 2021). In the first three months of 2022, rental prices for all types of homes in Europe increased by 14.5% (HousingAnywhere, 2022). In the first three months of 2022, rental prices for all types of homes in Europe increased by 14.5% (OECD, 2022).

A new global crisis, the Global Urban Housing Affordability Crisis, is developing as the world becomes accustomed to the far-reaching and devastating effects of the Global Financial Crisis (GFC). This phrase captures the growing trend in many urban centers throughout the world, where housing-related household expenses increase more quickly than pay (Perry, 2015; Pittini, 2012). Many people are forced to reside in congested or dilapidated housing. For some, the cost of housing may consume a substantial share of their income, which greatly restricts their ability to afford healthy food, medical care, educational opportunities, and sustainable transportation options (Wetzstein, 2017b). In extreme situations, individuals may be evicted or forced to relocate, become unable to afford housing in urban areas, or be forced to join the ranks of the homeless. The riots in Athens, Milan, London, and Dublin serve as evidence of the potential of such circumstances to give rise to new urban conflicts (Berry, 2014).

According to a 2019 survey conducted by the Lincoln Institute of Land Policy (LILP), 90 percent of the 200 cities surveyed were found to be expensive to live in based on the relationship between the average housing price and median income. Housing problems have become even more severe due to the COVID-19 pandemic, and government stimulus plans that aim to prevent economic disasters are not practical in the long term (Keffler, 2021). Economists have noted that the Covid-19 crisis shared several similarities with the Global Financial Crisis (GFC), including uncertainty, decline, and reactions focused on dampening shocks and implementing monetary and fiscal

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policies (Strauss-Kahn, 2020). Although Covid-19 is initially a health emergency that poses a threat to people's lives, it poses ramifications for social, economic, and housing issues (Khurami et al., 2022). The Covid-19 pandemic has had a significantly negative impact on households, housing markets, and the Turkish economy. After the economic crisis of 2018–19, there was insufficient time for recovery. The pandemic and its responses have made the social, economic, and geographical disparities even more pronounced. Many small- and medium-sized businesses, including construction companies, have closed as a result of lockdowns and restrictions imposed during the pandemic, which has reduced economic output and increased unemployment (Khurami et al., 2022).

Keffler (2021) stated that the global housing market experienced a notable upswing in the second half of 2020 and first half of 2021, with prices rising significantly. In the United States, prices increased by 11% during this period, a rate that had not been observed in 15 years. Meanwhile, in New Zealand, housing prices surged by 22%. An increasing population and demographic change are blamed for the growth in housing demand, which also occurs while home prices are rising. Because there are excellent transportation options and an abundance of public services in city centers, there is a particularly high demand for housing (Keffler, 2021).

In developing cities worldwide, urbanization and the booming pseudo-urban economy are causing widespread poverty among rapidly expanding urban populations (Kuddus et al., 2020). There is severe housing scarcity and a lack of quality housing because of the rapid internal migration and urbanization rates in many developing nations. Overcrowding, excessive rent, and slum and squatter settlements—all realistic elements of the urban landscape in emerging countries—have resulted from the urban boom connected with the rapid pace of socioeconomic development (Okeyinka, 2014). In the third world, the lack of housing is a persistent issue that affects the process of internal migration. The global housing market experienced a notable upswing in the second half of 2020 and first half of 2021, with prices rising significantly. In the United States, prices increased by 11% during this period, a rate that had not been observed in 15 years. Meanwhile, in New Zealand, housing prices surged by 22%. Additionally, as described in the literature, urbanization processes in developing countries are breeding widespread poverty, which has caused severe housing shortages and qualitative deficits. African cities are home to most of the world's impoverished, and their urban environment and services reflect this (Ewhrudjakpor, 2008).

A report by the National Department of Human Settlement (2023) showed that the number of households compelled to reside in backyard shacks, informal settlements, and overcrowded conditions in existing formal housing has surged because of South Africa's limited formal housing stock and falling rates of delivery for both formal and informal housing. There are approximately 1.5 million informal dwelling units in the urban areas of South Africa. These units consist of approximately 100,000 unused serviced sites and around 620,000 serviced sites that were previously provided by former Provincial Authorities and the Independent Development Trust's Capital subsidy program. In the last three years, over 120,000 serviced sites have been delivered through the IDT's Capital Subsidy Scheme and by the four former Provincial Authorities. However, this number has decreased in the recent years. It is also predicted that in 1995, there will be a backlog of approximately 1.5 million urban dwelling units. Physical manifestations of the backlog include overcrowding, squatter colonies, land invasions in metropolitan areas, and poor access. These issues not only have a negative impact on the quality of life in South African communities but also contribute to high crime rates and instability by perpetuating feelings of insecurity and discontent among individuals and communities (National Department of Human Settlement, 2023).

Households facing affordability challenges may be forced to reside in substandard or overcrowded housing, or in areas with high crime rates and poor schools. Furthermore, even if they can secure decent housing, they may be compelled to allocate a disproportionate amount of resources to housing costs, leading to a reduction in spending on other essential non-housing goods and services, ultimately resulting in adverse outcomes in terms of overall well-being (Gollust et al., 2019). Moreover, households may choose to move away from work hubs, which could lead to longer commutes. Chambers et al. (2015) found that a higher frequency of childhood asthma is related to moisture and mold in the home. The relationship between home quality and affordability may also affect the health conditions of adults. Parents may experience stress, despair, and resentment owing to dampness, mold, vermin, inadequate maintenance, and overcrowding (Chambers et al., 2015; Coley et al., 2013). The distance between residential areas and employment centers is partly fuelled by housing affordability issues. This workplace-residence spatial mismatch inside a metropolitan area places strain on the area's transportation infrastructure, imposes more out-of-pocket time and psychological expenses on commuters, increases congestion and pollution, and wastes a large amount of natural resources (Maclennan et al., 2018). Thus,

further macroeconomic effects may exist. Potential inter-urban migrants may be discouraged if housing is particularly pricey in rich, expanding metropolitan labor markets. Similarly, residents of a given metropolitan area may experience a spatial mismatch between their homes and places of employment if cheap housing is available only on the outskirts of the area (Galster & Lee, 2021).

According to Hsieh and Moretti (2019), high-productivity cities such as New York, San Francisco, and San Jose have strict zoning rules that limit housing availability, which leads to spatial misallocation of labor across U.S. cities. Mismanagement has a substantial negative impact. Relaxing land-use regulations in cities to match the median level of the United States would have resulted in an increase in employment and contributed to the overall growth of the nation by 36% (Hsieh & Moretti, 2019). The selective mobility resulting from housing affordability issues will widen the income gap between in-migrants and out-migrants in certain metropolitan regions. This will lead to positive or negative income sorting in cities with varying levels of housing affordability and may also create a new class divide between current homeowners and young incoming renters in unaffordable towns (Romem, 2018). Recent Chinese research provides evidence in favor of the claim that the affordability of housing in supercities, such as Beijing and Shanghai, has made lower-tier Chinese cities more appealing to elites (Chen et al., 2019).

2.6 Poverty and Inequality as a Problem of Housing in South Africa

According to Makgetla (2020a), South Africa has one of the highest levels of economic inequality in the world, with only 10% of its population living in luxury goods, while 35% are considered middle class, and over 50% live in poverty.. South Africa has the highest Gini coefficient worldwide, making it the most unequal society (Davids, 2021). The income distribution is still significantly skewed as a result of prior racial-based policies, which has led to strong arguments in favor of economic redistribution (National Department of Human Settlement, 2023). People were forced into remote, barren areas that served as labor reserves for the urban economy due to colonial and apartheid laws. The demise of commercial agriculture and small-scale farming in many rural areas contributed to the historic urban-rural split. People are drawn to move to economic centers because of the consequent gap in life possibilities. They are confined to congested squatter settlements that do not adhere to typical urban standards such as backyard shacks. Owing to their inadequate skill sets, newcomers struggle to reach formal metropolitan labor markets (Turok & Borel-Saladin, 2013). The rapid expansion of informal settlements,

commonly referred to as "slums," has placed significant strain on public services, leading to overcrowding and unsanitary conditions that exacerbate social issues such as crime, disenchantment, and other anti-social behaviors. Because it is primarily to blame for urbanization, the difference between urban and rural areas is more important for policy reasons than the difference between (formerly white) suburbs and (formerly black) townships. Due to over-urbanization caused by rural poverty, poor urban areas are growing rapidly. In contrast to production and efficiency, equity and distribution are considered the primary concerns in terms of spatial differences. Geographical issues are not considered important for economic development and growth. Places operate as passive containers for economic activity as businesses can choose their locations at will. Few people are aware that physical circumstances might affect business efficiency and performance (Turok & Borel-Saladin, 2013).

Additionally, the IMF (2020) highlighted that the income disparity in South Africa, where the top 20% of the population holds almost 68% of the nation's revenue, is higher than the median of 47% for comparable emerging economies. Meanwhile, only 7% of the income is held by the bottom 40% of the population, compared with 16% for other emerging markets. Economic incentives cannot justify this unequal distribution of wealth and income. The impact of economic inequality can be assessed in terms of how economic gains are shared across the population or based on social indicators, such as gender, race, or religion. The consequences of economic inequality include poverty and housing problems.

The housing shortage in South Africa continues to disproportionately affect the urban poor, who are often forced to live in substandard and unsanitary conditions such as under flyover bridges, informal settlements or slums, or ramshackle structures. Many cities in South Africa have a significant number of informal settlements or slums, which are often characterized by poor living conditions, inadequate infrastructure, and limited access to basic services. Many people in South Africa aspired to own their own homes, but their aspirations have been greatly hindered by poverty. The prevalence of poverty in South Africa makes it difficult, if not impossible, for people to obtain decent housing, improve the quality of their living conditions, participate in decision-making processes, and have access to property rights and prestige, leading to the perpetuation of poverty (Makgetla, 2020b).

Rapid urbanization, along with housing and land shortages, is one of the main issues facing the South African government. The government's capacity to deliver housing has surpassed as more people relocate to urban regions, driving increasing demand. The number of individuals in need of housing has increased exponentially as the population in metropolitan areas has grown (Jenkins et al., 2007). This is because the majority of South Africa's urban population is either unemployed or from low-income backgrounds. Because of their financial situation, most are unable to purchase apartments. Additionally, figures show that in Cape Town, "approximately 320 000 households are either living in overcrowded or informal conditions." This indicates that there is currently a serious low-income housing issue in Cape Town, manifesting in the government's failure to offer low-income housing to citizens (Stats SA, 2019; Tyhotyholo, 2021). The construction of informal settlements, rather than the effective distribution of low-income homes, has increased. The number of shacks is axiomatically growing in Cape Town, especially in neighborhoods such as the DS community (Tyhotyholo, 2021).

South Africa's formal economy is characterized by widespread unemployment. Given the rising growth rate of the economically active population and the declining or flat GDP growth rate, unemployment is likely to continue to rise. Housing demand and investment are negatively impacted by the high unemployment rate and dropping levels of per capita GDP, which also reduces the government's capacity to help the poor and the unemployed (National Department of Human Settlement, 2023). The cities were not shown to be more resilient than those in the other locations. Although other areas may have similar urban circumstances, the situation in metro areas remains significantly better. According to the 2010 General Household Survey, 53% of people between the ages of 15 and 64 had jobs in metro areas compared to only 29% in the former Bantustans. Additionally, only 11% of those employed in metro areas made less than R1000 (about US$125) per month, whereas 28% of those in the former Bantustans made the same amount. Due to the economic crisis, in 2010 only 66% of households in urban areas derived their primary income from wages and salaries, compared to 71% in 2002.Only slightly more than two-fifths (42%) of the people lived in rural regions in 2010, decreasing from 46% in 2002. Even more alarming is the high percentage of rural households that depend on transfers (pensions/grants and remittances). A large difference in average wages between urban and rural areas, which is reflected in a huge disparity in employment, contributes to the explanation of why there are such strong forces for rural-urban migration. According to estimates, nearly two-thirds of households in the

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former Bantustans live on less than US$2 per day, which is well below the global poverty line of US$2 per day. In comparison, only 40% of households in metropolises survive in such a low-income environment (Makgetla, 2020b; Turok & Borel-Saladin, 2013). Simultaneously, the housing industry could play a significant role in reviving the South African economy. The extremely large direct and indirect economic multiplier effects of house production emphasize this fact. By transforming latent housing demand into effective demand, an increase in the income of lower-income people can have a significant effect on the housing industry. Realizing that housing must compete with other governmental priorities, such as health, water, and education, helps moderate this limitation. The crushing poverty experienced by this sizable section of the South African population is alarming. This imposes the housing program's most significant restriction (National Department of Human Settlement 2023).

2.7 Urbanization, Housing Inadequacy and Economic Growth in South Africa

During the late 19th and early 20th centuries, urbanization was closely tied to industrialization and involved the exploitation of both people and natural resources, such as minerals, by rural migrants. This trend was initiated by the discovery of diamonds in the country's interior in 1867, and the discovery of gold in 1884, which had a more significant impact (Turok & Borel-Saladin, 2013). The resulting 'Mineral Revolution' Yudelman (1984) fostered fast industrialization and widespread migration on a national and even international scale, especially to Witwatersrand (now known as Gauteng and home to the largest city in the country, Johannesburg). Because of the mining boom, a massive workforce must be assembled quickly. South Africa transformed from a disjointed collection of independent farming states to a unified industrial powerhouse with a strong political core, due to the need to assemble a larger workforce through immigration. Prior to this, the nation was divided into the British Empire territories, states established by Afrikaner settlers, and various African kingdoms. In the 19th century, many of the areas were dedicated to cattle-raising or cultivating cash crops, such as sugar, coffee, and wine. Only a few minor urban centers existed at the time (Turok & Borel-Saladin, 2013).

Today's cities account for less than 3% of the world's land, yet they produce 70% of the global economy's gross domestic product (GDP), consume more than 60% of the world's energy, and emit more than 70% of the planet's greenhouse gases (UN Conference on Housing and Sustainable Urban Development, 2016). By 2030, approximately 60% of the world's population, which

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currently makes up more than 50% of the total population, will reside in urban areas. Approximately 95 percent of the urban growth in the ensuing decades will occur in developing nations, primarily in Asia and Africa. Numerous cities in developing nations struggle to meet the demand for housing and services because of the high rates of urbanization. Consequently, Goal 11 ("Making cities and human settlements inclusive, safe, resilient and sustainable") of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) established by the United Nations (UN) in January 2016 included an urban goal. Additionally, the New Urban Agenda was introduced at UN Habitat III in October 2016 and acknowledges the importance of cities in ensuring sustainable development (City of Cape Town, 2017a). Historically, cities have played a crucial role in international politics, economics, and social systems, and this role has only been growing in the twenty-first century. The concentration of people allows for a quicker supply of services and infrastructure as well as economic activity and social contact (City of Cape Town, 2017a).

According to O'Neil (2022), in 2021, over 67.85% of South Africans live in cities and urban areas, with the nation's population density reaching 46 residents per square kilometer. This increase in urbanization has resulted in more people being concentrated in smaller areas, offering numerous opportunities for both employment and leisure in urban areas. As a result, each of the five major municipalities in South Africa now has a population of over three million. Grant (2012) claimed that urbanization can contribute to economic growth by creating job opportunities and satisfying the infrastructure and service needs of large populations. The benefits of market proximity and economics of agglomeration facilitate the sharing of knowledge, resources, and innovation among urban firms, which can connect to international markets through trade.

The International Covenant on Economic, Social, and Cultural Rights, which states that "everyone has a right to an adequate standard of living for himself and his family, including adequate food, clothing, and housing, and to the continuous improvement of living conditions," clearly recognizes the right to adequate housing (United Nations, 2012). The concept of housing has been presented in various ways in literature. Housing as a shelter has been recognized as a crucial social necessity for humans after food on a global scale. Thus, it is considered a fundamental requirement that plays a crucial role in development strategies because of its socioeconomic implications (Okpala, 1994). According to Ademiluyi (2010), the current situation in the world is that it is facing a housing crisis, although the right to adequate housing is recognized as a universal right in more than 100 national constitutions globally, including Section 26 of Chapter 2 of the South African constitution.

Despite this, a growing number of people experience homelessness or live in inadequate housing (Kissick et al., 2006). Ademiluyi (2010) stated that over a billion people have insufficient housing and approximately 100 million people are homeless. To meet the demand, 35.1 million housing units will need to be built annually, which equates to 96 150 per day or 4000 per hour. It is projected by the UN-Habitat that within the next 25 years, approximately 3 billion people will require access to housing and essential infrastructure facilities globally (Masilela, 2012). In the developing world, more than a million people are born or relocate to cities every week, increasing the demand for new and improved housing (Kissick et al., 2006). According to Marutlulle (2021), almost 200 million people live in African slums, accounting for approximately 20% of all slum inhabitants worldwide. As Musewe (2012) pointed out, Africa is the second most populous continent and has a high rate of population growth, requiring its urban areas to accommodate over 300 million people by 2030. This population is expected to increase from 1 billion in 2015 to between 3.5 billion and 5 billion in 2100 (Carrington, 2014; Marutlulle, 2021b) and according to UN predictions, 3 billion people will live in slums by the year 2050 (Ademiluyi, 2010). As a result, it is reasonable to assume that planners and decision-makers in various countries are working to find solutions to the issues surrounding housing and related matters, particularly the shortages that have recently become a pressing global concern (Zanganeh et al., 2013). Inadequate housing can create significant obstacles to both social and economic progress and can place a heavy burden on health and educational systems that are already stretched to their limits. According to Marutlulle (2021), inadequate housing exerts considerable pressure on the environment and causes security and social unity issues. Neglecting housing issues in Africa has led to the creation of slums and poorly developed informal settlements along the fringes of urban areas.

According to the UN Conference on Housing and Sustainable Urban Development (2016), several factors, including population growth, rural-to-urban migration, lack of affordable housing for the urban poor, weak governance in policy, planning, land, and urban management, leading to land speculation and grabbing, economic vulnerability, underpaid work, discrimination, marginalization, and displacement, contribute to housing inadequacy. Innes et al. (1992) argued that administrative ambiguity, institutional restructuring, and the absence of clear policies have led to the proliferation of informal residents and the rapid growth of shanty towns. This environment enabled these communities to flourish.

The legacy of inadequate housing in South Africa has persisted for more than 20 years since the democratically elected government took office (Phago, 2010). Despite the construction of 3.3 million affordable homes since then, shanty settlements have proliferated around cities due to the state program's inability to keep up with the rapid population expansion. According to government data, the population has grown to 53 million since 1994, and only 15% of South Africa's 14.45 million households earn enough money to qualify for a mortgage, while 60% earn less than R3500.00 per month and are eligible for state housing, according to the Fuller Housing Centre Report (2014). The 25% of the applicants, who were primarily teachers, nurses, police officers, and soldiers, did not have access to the remaining 75%. This was reported by the Ministry of Human Settlements, which stated that there were 2.1 million pending housing applications (Phago, 2010). The high demand for affordable housing, together with the large number of individuals residing in slums and other forms of informal housing, indicates the magnitude of the housing crisis and the inadequate supply in the country (Gilbert, 2004). The connections between housing and various aspects, such as crime, education, health, social isolation, and poverty are undeniable, and these connections have a direct impact on the country's political, cultural, and socioeconomic growth. Inadequate housing in South Africa has a wide range of negative consequences for the nation (Marutlulle, 2021b).

The growth of towns reflects a larger national urbanization process (Brinton & Fujiki, 2006). Urbanization is the shift in the percentage of the population that lives in urban regions or a significant social transformation that has an impact on all facets of society (Brutus, 2002). According to Jiboye (2011), urbanization is the process by which people congregate in sizable multipurpose communities. During this phase, a certain society changes from being bound by the city to being bound by the country. Napier (2007) viewed in-migration to cities as a spontaneous process that requires creative management. It is impossible to stop the process once it has begun. Urbanization is growing exponentially in emerging nations and is currently the modern trend in the globalized world, which is advancing extremely quickly with the help of routinely inventive technologies (Malik & Wahid, 2014). The goals of urban change and social advancement have always been closely related to the arguments for social housing in South Africa (Visagie, 2020). One of the most significant challenges of urbanization is the unchecked expansion of slums and informal settlements, as well as the persistent shortage of adequate housing. Telltale signs of poverty include slums, informal settlements, and substandard housing. Although the impact of

inadequate housing is more pronounced in rural areas, it also has a substantial effect on individuals living in urban areas (Raymond et al. 2011). Research indicates that over 64% of South Africans reside in urban areas, accounting for more than 50% of the country's population. Despite being recognized as one of the most unequal nations globally, this urbanization rate is higher than that of China (54 %), India (32 %), and Nigeria (47 %) (Stats SA, 2018). Alesina and Perotti (1996) found that cultures with political instability tend to be more polarized, and social unrest resulting from income inequality can increase sociopolitical instability. Additionally, there may be threatened property rights and an increase in coups and revolutions that are detrimental to economic progress. According to Eeckhout et al. (2014), larger cities have a disproportionate number of households in both lower and top income quartiles.

One of the most urgent urban challenges is the housing affordability dilemma, which is particularly acute in peripheral economies that strongly rely on tourism as a source of growth (Mikulić et al., 2021). According to the City of Cape Town Department of Enterprise and Investment (2019), tourism generates significant economic value for Cape Town and is a sector with a high employment rate. Over the past decade, the sector has indirectly contributed to the creation of 3-5% of all jobs in the city, with annual economic contributions ranging from 2-3.5%. Through several strategies, including emphasizing Cape Flats and townships to draw a more diverse range of tourists and ensure that both domestic and international visitors extend their stays to nine and eight days, respectively, the city and its partners hope to establish Cape Town as the Most Beautiful City in the World. Housing shortage in Cape Town is a problem that arises because of this. The housing market in popular tourist destinations is an area where tourism has an effect. It is well known that booming tourist activities raise housing prices, which is crucial because the widening gap between housing costs and income undermines the tourism-led growth hypothesis, widens inequalities, drives residents away from tourist destinations, and causes a general tourism-driven decline in cities and municipalities, making housing unaffordable (Dimelli, 2016; Lord et al., 2021; Meleddu, 2013; Wetzstein, 2017a). According to Mikulić et al. (2021), the increasing mobility of the population and the growing needs of visitors can lead to a higher demand for land use, which may result in more rental properties, lifestyle migration, or increased investment in tourism-related real estate.

2.8 Legislative Framework, Programs, and the Roles of South African Government in Addressing Housing Shortage

Post-apartheid South Africa continues to grapple with the legacy of injustices and inequalities caused by the previous apartheid system. One of the pressing issues that the first democratically elected government had to address was the unequal distribution of the land. The South African government has shown a dedication to amending past injustices by implementing a thorough land reform program, which is grounded in the country's constitution and includes three crucial components: restitution, land redistribution, and tenure security (Kloppers & Pienaar, 2014). The Constitution of South Africa stipulates that the government is obligated to ensure the provision of progressive housing to its citizens as the country's highest law (Tyhotyholo, 2021).

The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (1996) states in Section 26 that every individual has the right to access adequate housing. The state is responsible for implementing reasonable measures within its available resources to achieve progressive realization of this right. The South African Parliament recognizes that housing satisfies basic human needs, is a process and product, and is essential for positive social and economic development. (South African Government, 2023). The legislation and policies related to housing in South Africa are presented in chronological order.

2.8.1 National Housing Forum – 1992 to 1994

Between 1992 and 1994, the National Housing Platform (NHP), a multi-party non-governmental negotiation forum, included organizations from the commercial, political, development, and civic sectors. Notably, in 1994, the NHF paved the way for the first democratic national housing policy. The objective of the NHF was to establish a new non-racial housing policy, and the process was marked by two contentious debates: the first centered on whether housing should be provided by the government or the private sector, and the second revolved around whether the benchmark should be a completed four-room house or an "incremental" (progressive) house (Tissington, 2010). According to Tomlinson (1999), the government provision of mass rental housing was supported by "left-leaning" constituencies and the commercial building industry. The "left" claimed that this would immediately imply a high standard (a four-room house). The private sector adhered to a similar requirement but with the qualification that contractors, rather than developers, should be used to reduce financial risk. This point of view was opposed, because it was believed that the strategy would place an undue financial and administrative load on young governments.

Critics claimed that local authorities were seeking to abdicate their duties to managing rental housing due to challenges in collecting rent, maintaining stock, and evaluating tenants' eligibility. The left was requested to clarify how the government would finance and supervise a broad rental program, but they were unable to do so and the rental program was ultimately discontinued. The government formulated a policy that outlined provisions for housing and construction, and the National Housing Fund (NHF) made the final decision. The private sector constructs buildings, identifies and maintains land, and applies for subsidies on behalf of the community. This approach has been criticized by many people, who believe that it does not address the systemic issues of the "racist capitalist housing market'' (Tissington, 2010).

2.8.2 The White Paper on Housing - 1994

Following the democratic elections of 1994, the incoming ANC government embraced the 1994 White Paper on Housing with the objective of producing functional, integrated settlements that granted households access to opportunities, infrastructure and services. These settlements were intended to provide all South Africans with progressive access to permanent residential structures with secure tenure, privacy, and protection against elements as well as potable water, adequate sanitation, and safety (Tissington, 2010). The policy asserts that every possible attempt will be made to achieve this vision for all South Africans, taking into consideration the need for economic growth and employment, the importance of individual efforts and contributions, and the role of housing credit providers in its realization (Department of Housing, 1994). The government aimed to achieve its goal of build one million homes in five years by increasing the budget allocation for housing to five percent and increasing the number of housing units delivered sustainably to a peak of 338,000 units per year. To achieve this, the government utilized individualized income-linked state subsidies to ensure rapid delivery and widespread access to housing. Private developers were eligible for subsidies to construct serviced homes on freehold plots of land, with a "site-and-services" approach where a house is built on top (as agreed upon by the National Housing Fund (NHF)). Low-income households were able to receive one-time capital subsidies under the National Housing Subsidy Scheme (NHSS), which was based on a sliding scale according to household income levels (Tissington, 2010).

The White Paper on Housing offers precise instructions on how different stakeholders should interact and perform their duties regarding housing delivery. In white-paper housing, the

importance of regular citizens in housing delivery is emphasized (Tyhotyholo, 2021). The government frequently points out that the backlog of housing is growing because of increased urbanization, among other causes. While the backlog was estimated to be two million units, there have been issues with both the number and quality of homes provided, despite the NHSS's best attempts to provide accommodation for everyone. In the General Household Survey report for 2017, some residents expressed reservations regarding the quality of subsidized houses, with 10.2% expressing concerns about the structural integrity of the walls and describing them as weak or very weak. Additionally, 9.9% of respondents deemed the roofs of their residences to be weak or very weak. (Stats SA, 2019; Tissington and Kate, 2010). A BBC (2019) further alluded to the backlog and indicated a total of 3.2 million homes were constructed between 1994 and 2018. Presently, the government estimates a national housing deficit of 2.1 million homes, which is meant to accommodate approximately 12.5 million people. The government has set targets to address this shortfall by 2030. Notably, the provinces of the Northwest, followed by Gauteng (which encompasses major cities like Johannesburg and Pretoria) and the Western Cape, exhibit the highest concentration of informal dwellings, comprising approximately one-fifth of the total.

Tissington (2010) concluded that the provision of housing to alleviate poverty has had limited success, largely because of issues such as corruption in the allocation of subsidies and substandard construction practices due to inadequate oversight. Furthermore, factors such as the financial burden of homeownership due to property taxes and service charges, as well as elevated unemployment rates, have limited the effectiveness of housing initiatives in reducing poverty. One critic claimed that the White Paper plan made no attempt to develop a social housing policy and that important issues, such as defining the precise function of social housing, creating an institutional and regulatory framework, figuring out how to manage the housing stock, and coming up with appropriate funding instruments, were not addressed. Additionally, no plan was put in place to develop social housing initiatives (Tissington, 2010). To meet the requests of housing experts for rental assistance, the government introduced an institutional subsidy without initially establishing a comprehensive institutional and policy framework for the social housing sector (Scheba et al., 2021).

2.8.3. Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) - 1994

The democratically elected government in 1994 took over a country riddled with poverty, unemployment, and large income disparities. To tackle these issues, the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) was introduced, which is a comprehensive socio-economic policy aimed at correcting past injustices, reducing inequalities, and fostering a strong and democratic South Africa (Turok, 1995). The motivation behind the introduction of the RDP was partly because South Africa has one of the largest income distribution disparities, resulting in a high prevalence of poverty, particularly affecting millions of people, especially those in rural areas, and serving as the largest burden on the nation (ANC, 1994; South African Government, 1994). The initiative identified multiple problems that needed to be tackled to combat extreme poverty. These problems encompassed issues such as the lack of proper housing and sanitation, as well as the lack of access to clean water.(South African Government, 1994).

Despite the RDP's efforts, low-income housing in South Africa has not shown significant improvement. This is evident in the growing number of informal settlements in peripheral urban areas, such as Cape Flats in Cape Town. Additionally, demonstrations calling for low-income housing delivery in urban townships, including the DS community, indicated that the RDP was insufficient to address low-income housing demands. This prompted researchers to investigate the challenges faced by low-income housing (Tyhoytolo, 2021). According to Ajayi (2012), the inadequacy and ineffective implementation of the RDP in South Africa stems from the absence of clear guidelines on how various stakeholders in low-income housing will collaborate to ensure the effective distribution of low-income housing.

More than 1.5 million housing units were built between 1994 and 2003 (Tissington, 2010). The RDP project, instead of creating sustainable communities, resulted in monolithic dormitory towns on the outskirts, which further entrenched the dysfunctional shape of South African cities and aggravated spatial inequalities (SACN, 2016; Tissington, 2010; Turok, 2016). Few individuals were able to secure mortgage financing to invest in property improvements (Marais & Cloete, 2017). People were also prevented from gradually improving and consolidating their homes because of unfavorable locations and high transportation costs. As a result, many people sold or rented their homes, which led to the emergence of an unofficial secondary market, where sale

prices were frequently significantly lower than the cost of construction (Charlton & Kihato, 2016; Huchzermeyer & Karam, 2006; Jones & Datta, 2000).

2.8.4 The Housing Act - 1997

The Housing Act 107 of 1997 in South Africa strives to promote a sustainable housing development process and outlines general principles for housing across all government sectors. This act specifies the responsibilities of national, provincial, and local governments in relation to housing development and establishes the South African Housing Development Board as well as continuing the existence of provincial housing development boards. Additionally, the Act provides for the financing of national housing programs, revokes certain laws, and contains other related provisions (South African Government, 2023). The Constitutional Court in the Government of the Republic of South Africa and Others v. Grootboom and Others 2001 (1) SA 46 (CC) recognized that access to physical structures is not the only right related to housing. Sufficient housing is closely linked to other rights. The rights protected under this umbrella include the right to information, equality, and dignity of all people. The right to a decent place of residence is intertwined with other rights, as outlined in Section 26 of the Constitution, which mandates that the State must take reasonable steps, within its resources, to realize the progressive realization of this right (South African Human Rights Commission, 2016)

The Housing Act obligates the national government to create and maintain a national housing data bank and information system as well as develop housing policies and supervise their implementation by adopting the National Housing Code. Municipalities receive housing subsidies from the provincial government through Provincial Housing Development Boards, which are established in accordance with Section 8 of the Housing Act. The Housing Act empowers municipalities to enforce policies, plan settlements, and initiate housing projects, as per Section 9, resulting in the greater involvement of local governments in housing construction. (Tissington, 2010). The Act aims to promote racial integration in housing and living arrangements, with the primary objective of rectifying the discriminatory housing policies implemented by the apartheid government before 1994 (Newton & Schuermans, 2013). Additionally, it emphasizes how progressive housing policies serve as the cornerstone of neighborhood development. The Housing Act and its revisions currently serve South Africa's supreme housing law by superseding all the earlier housing laws (Tyhotyholo, 2021).

In 1998, the Department of Health (DoH) aimed to modify the procurement process, allowing local governments with adequate resources to initiate low-income housing projects in April 2002 (Charlton & Kihato, 2016). A strong, development-focused local state would be made possible by this change to the state management of housing delivery, according to some. This limits the private sector's interest in the housing market. Others, however, countered that the shift occurred because of the difficulty private developers had in turning a profit on low-cost housing developments and their desire to be exempt from such requirements. It is possible that the capacity of the already overworked and underequipped local government sector to assume this position has not been fully explored or acknowledged. Some critics have argued that this change could foster clientelism and patronage, potentially eroding the principle of housing allocation based on actual needs. They also highlight that the motivation behind this transition partly stems from local politicians aiming to gain control over housing initiatives (COHRE, 2008).

The subsequent obsession with quantity had a significant impact on how housing policies were implemented. The Housing Act acknowledged various aspects of the right to housing and the significance of creating enduring neighborhoods; however, the political pressure to construct a large number of housing units at a low cost prompted the proliferation of uniform units on affordable outlying land, resulting in the marginalization of other housing tenures and a devaluation of the importance of location. Urban inequality's entrenchment and the emergence of new pockets of poverty have had significant negative effects (Charlton & Kihato, 2016; Huchzermeyer & Karam, 2006; Turok & Scheba, 2019)

2.8.5 Breaking New Ground (BNG) - 2004

The Department of Housing evaluated its housing program between 2002 and 2003, following the identification of unforeseen effects resulting from previous initiatives such as suburban residential development, inadequate living standards, scarcity of community involvement, limited access to affordable housing, corruption, mismanagement, delayed execution, reduced public sector participation, and an increasing housing deficit (Tissington, 2010). The review process sought to set a fresh policy course and establish a research agenda to guide decision making within the housing program. This was especially crucial in counteracting the dispersion of knowledge and intellectual resources that have transpired over the past decade. The newly introduced strategy, known as "Breaking New Grounds (BNG)," aimed to "realign and strengthen current mechanisms

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for more responsive and efficient delivery" and to "foster the realization of a non-racial, integrated society by creating sustainable housing communities and quality housing'' (Newton & Schuermans, 2013).

According to Tissington (2010), BNG focuses on the quality and variety of housing products, such as size, craftsmanship, and alternative technology, rather than just the number of dwellings provided, such as tenure type and location. By implementing various innovative and consumer-driven housing projects and programs, BNG aims to increase the supply of well-located housing that meets an acceptable level of quality. To achieve this, BNG built upon the concepts outlined in the 1994 Housing White Paper and enhanced the existing methods and tools. Additionally, it strives to enhance the planning, participation, and long-term sustainability of the housing milieu during the housing delivery process. The shortage of suitable land for affordable housing has led to urban expansion on the outskirts of existing metropolitan centers, resulting in limited integration.(Tissington, 2010). Although the BNG plan was found to be lacking in terms of quality and adequacy, as demonstrated in a study conducted by Mkuzo, et al. (2019), the plan resulted in the construction of low-quality houses that were potentially hazardous to occupants. These dwellings, built between 2010 and 2014, lacked durability and exhibited poor workmanship. The study found that some houses had structural flaws, such as cracks, which threatened their structural stability, potentially causing them to collapse during extreme weather events, such as heavy rainfall or severe storms. These houses were also found to be lacking in terms of aesthetics, durability, space design, and utilization, as well as being unsuitable for residential use in their current locations. In conclusion, this study determined that houses were deficient in multiple areas.

Low-income housing appears to remain a significant challenge in South Africa, despite the advancements made since the implementation of the BNG policy in 2004, as evidenced by most regular citizens who continue to live in informal settlements with poor sanitation and a high crime rate. The problem of affordable housing has led to protests in South Africa, where residents have destroyed public buildings in outlying urban areas (Tyhotyholo, 2021). BNG was criticized for not addressing the critical flaws found in the department's research methods from the previous policy and for failing to provide a clear course of action on the complex political issues surrounding land ownership, the land market, and property values (Tissington, 2010).

Charlton and Kihato (2016) state that despite the program's efforts to achieve more comprehensive results, major performance indicators still seem to be essentially quantitative, centered on the quantity of dwellings built and the amount of money spent. Furthermore, BNG acknowledged that the "useful assets"' policies envisioned for subsidized homes had not materialized. Municipalities viewed such housing projects as liabilities and were not receptive to the national department's more progressive aims for housing because of the inability of recipients to pay for municipal services and taxes. There are also concerns about the misalignment between the government's current emphasis on the housing's contribution to poverty alleviation and the capacity of housing policies to achieve these goals. Currently, some weaknesses of housing policies fall outside the jurisdiction of the government agencies responsible for housing (Tissington, 2010). According to Pithouse (2009), the implementation of the substantive content of BNG, which creates budgetary provisions for participatory and collective in situ renovations at all levels of government and in all regions of the nation, has failed systemically. Shack dwellers in South African cities are exposed to life-threatening conditions, with fire and diarrhea (due to the lack of ablution and latrine facilities) being the two major dangers.

2.9 The Role of South African Government Spheres in Addressing Housing Challenges

The decentralization of authority is regarded as a crucial component of the development process in South Africa (Tyhotyholo, 2021). The Constitution in South Africa grants the national government the authority to create low-income housing policies and strategies, but provincial and municipal governments are also granted this authority because of the decentralization of power. This has the potential to lead to effective development and execution of policies in all areas across the nation. Its goal is to promote government accountability (Lemanski, 2011). The provincial government oversees administering housing, health, and other important services in accordance with national housing policies, laws, and strategies, while local governments play a significant role in ensuring the progressive provision of essential services such as electricity, water, and reticulation in their respective areas of jurisdiction. This was carried out as a component of the Integrated Development Plan (IDP) to guarantee the promotion of the general welfare of underprivileged citizens (Tyhotyholo, 2021; Wilkinson, 2014).

For instance, in Cape Town, the IDP document lists housing policies that will be implemented to resolve the housing crisis in the city (City of Cape Town, 2017). Some of these programs include the following.

- Densification project: The location and engineering services necessary for densification are determined in Cape Town's target areas. Site owners in certain locations are strongly urged to build additional homes on their lots through the construction of backyard apartments or the subdivision and sale of a piece of their land. The City promotes this through an educational communication programme that explains the advantages and procedures of densification. In addition, the city offers planning assistance, such as access to plans, quick approval procedures, and waiting for development costs. The construction of low-cost high-density rental housing along transportation corridors and priority nodes is encouraged. This includes social housing organizations and private sector developers. A faster application process for planning authorization is one of the incentives, along with altered zoning and planning regulations that offer higher profits. The intervention aims to assist households that are starting new families, have cramped living spaces, and are within a specific income range, as determined by the National Department of Housing.

- New housing development project: Urbanisation will be aided by this project In practice, this means that all housing units must be made flexible, expandable, and able to become denser over time; that unused land owned by other state departments must be released; mixed-use retail and residential development should be encouraged along important development nodes and transportation corridors; and that land must be banked for future use, where the appropriate type of development is possible. For the next five years, renovations were planned for current hostels and rental properties. Housing development should focus on transportation corridors, so that inhabitants can easily access employment, social amenities, and public transportation. The Voortrekker Road corridor integration zone (VRCIZ), which connects the Bellville and Cape Town central business areas, is an effort for home development aimed at achieving this goal. This includes an effective, multimodal public transportation system (including roads, rail, taxis, and buses), the highest concentration of tertiary institutions compared to the rest of Cape Town, a wealth of social amenities, a variety of land uses, and opportunities for claiming latent land-use rights.

- Public-private housing demand project: The project aims to involve both the private sector and the government to address housing needs by identifying new areas for development. It will include initiatives, such as partnering with private developers to build affordable housing and offering a support package from the city, which includes ensuring that the necessary infrastructure is in place, simplifying the planning and approval process, speeding up clearance certificate issuance, offering reduced development fees, and providing access to affordable land with services. The northeastern corridor is a five-year public-private partnership initiative that covers diverse land uses and socioeconomic levels. Many housing options will be provided through innovative public-private collaboration, and housing units will be constructed using cutting-edge technology.

- Housing financing options project: The City aims to reduce its reliance on housing finance by advocating a wider range of financing options through subsidies and grants. To achieve this, the city will engage with financial institutions and the government to create custom financing solutions for incremental housing development and address the backlog of title deeds for owners of subsidized houses. The City also encourages employers to help lower-income households improve their creditworthiness for homeownership and promote access to suitable financial products for low-income households. To accomplish these goals, a task team with financial, credit, and housing expertise will be established, and alternative strategies, such as title deeds for owners of subsidy houses, homeownership-linked savings and debt rehabilitation programs, partnerships with mortgage lenders, partnerships with employers and pension funds operating in Cape Town, and a communication initiative, will be explored.

- Basic service delivery program: This was conducted to promote and aid projects, including backyard homes. In Cape Town, backyard rents and unofficial colonies are crucial components of the housing supply process. Most informal settlements in Cape Town have been around for a while, and the households that live there have made considerable investments in the neighborhood both financially and socially. Backyard homes are becoming more prevalent in places such as Dunoon, Doornbach, Khayelitsha, state-subsidized housing projects, and the public rental stock. The city will expand its present backyard service program, enhancing access to fundamental municipal services to accommodate the growing number of people residing in the backyards of rental units inside

the city. The precast building is equipped with a flush toilet, a tap with an attached washing trough, electricity connections for up to three buildings, and a 240-liter trash bin for each backyard.. The number of backyarder homes with access to essential services is used to gauge how well this initiative is expanding. The City will also assist site owners with planning (such as helping with designs and approvals) and provide provisions for extra service connections to the backyard unit to encourage them to formalize current backyard residences or construct new units. The standards for backyard homes, including the number of residences permitted per stand and space as well as the requirements for residences, are being established by regulations. The City will set aside funds to inspect backyard units to verify their adherence to these rules. Households may also be helped with compliance by contracting with the private sector or non-governmental service providers.

- Informal settlement formalization project: Informal settlements will expand because of projected population growth in Cape Town, among other things. Therefore, over the course of five years, from 2017 to 2022, the city will concentrate on formalizing and accelerating the administrative integration of informal settlements. To achieve this, a framework for investment and upgrading is being developed, under which the city aims to offer residents informal settlement services and, ultimately, security of tenure, allowing for a variety of post-upgrade alternatives such as the people's Housing Process, individual ownership, contractor-built homes, rental housing, and medium-density options. The neighborhood will be encouraged to create housing options that meet individual and group requirements, financial constraints, and goals. opening new regions for home development in and around Cape Town's already developed neighborhoods. The focus is on building high-density housing and starter units that can be expanded over time, including the creation of larger developments called 'super-blocks' in cases where smaller sites cannot be upgraded. This approach will lead to the formalization of informal settlements with an equal ratio of services to residential sites. The development of temporary relocation and incremental development areas will continue to provide emergency housing and offer one-on-one services as much as possible.

2.10 Housing Policy Implementation Challenges

Accelerating the delivery of housing units, particularly in areas with high demand, is one of the biggest challenges. A total of 13,958 units were delivered for the MTSF term (including 2018 and

2019), which was substantially less than the objective of 27,000 units (SHRA, 2019). The target of delivering 50,000 units within the first five years of the program was not met as the actual number of units delivered fell short of this goal. Experts have stated that a significant impact would require 100,000–150,000 units to be delivered by 2020 (NASHO and AFD, 2012). Although the government has made significant legal modifications and sector reforms to improve services (such as increasing subsidy amounts, adjusting income bands, and reorganizing SHRA), these steps do not appear to have been adequate to foster long-term sustainability in the sector. Although the subsidy was increased to R 155,000 in 2017, it did not prevent inflationary increases from occurring, and more significantly, it is not linked to future inflation. The existing benefits will have lessened in a few years because of construction expenses rising beyond inflation, which is likely to suspend delivery. However, the budget is insufficient to pay 27,000 units anticipated for this MTSF period (SHRA, 2019). The target of the MTSF to provide 27,000 social housing units was relatively low, accounting for only 3.6% of the overall goal of creating 745,000 housing opportunities during this period. Furthermore, social housing receives only 2% of the total budget for human settlements, which is constrained by a smaller human settlement budget and stricter financial restrictions. These factors pose a significant threat to the sustainability and growth of the housing sector. (SHRA 2019).

Local governments support the development of social housing. According to the Social Housing Act, municipalities should create an enabling environment, assist with setting up SHIs, give incentives, and help SHIs have access to bridging finance according to the Social Housing Act (SHRA, 2017). To expedite project execution, local governments can provide land, simplify administrative procedures, and accelerate approval processes. Cape Town is currently working on an inclusive housing policy, while Johannesburg has recently enacted its own policy. Unfortunately, there are significant regional differences in the commitments and capacities of local governments. Some towns lack the resources and knowledge necessary to aid SHIs in the creation of new initiatives. One of the biggest challenges is land provision. Municipalities, along with other public organizations, are facing increasing financial constraints and are forced to decide whether to sell any excess property they own at a discount for social housing or to use it to maximize their sales revenue, which can be used to subsidize their service delivery (Scheba et al., 2021).

As history has shown, neither traditional private nor traditional public sector programs have been successful in providing housing in sufficient quantities at the costs that the poor can afford. A

sustainable housing delivery program in the Western Cape should be placed within the support paradigm. Consequently, housing policy is constructed around the enabling approach scheme, where the government offers capital subsidies to households within a specified income range rather than providing houses. Many impoverished people would then take control of the housing process and gradually construct homes to create permanent residences. Therefore, subsidies have been implemented to promote the engagement of low-income groups in housing. In essence, this establishes a role for private consumers to contribute in some way so that the government can speed up delivery. However, this situation presents a contradiction. The contribution made by each household to the housing process is still essential to Western Cape's ability to supply housing sustainably. However, a shortage of funding makes it difficult to achieve this objective. For many Western Cape residents, the term "affordable housing" refers to homes that cost no more than R16 000 in total (the subsidy amount), which is insufficient to construct quality dwelling (Burman, 2005 in (Bidandi, 2007)).

Western Cape still faces significant challenges in housing delivery on a broad scale. Most starter homes in housing development have remained in their current condition for more than five years (Adebayo, 2005). Therefore, the dream of a permanent finished abode remains elusive for those who cannot afford to add to their starter home because there is no chance of an increase in the subsidy amount. Many impoverished individuals who have received capital subsidies are unable to afford ongoing payments for water, energy, and rent, making it difficult for them to turn their starting homes into complete residences. The primary concern for these individuals is affordability, as the current policy's market-oriented approach to low-income housing conflicts with the high rates of unemployment and poverty in the Western Cape (Adebayo, 2005; Bidandi, 2007). The South African Housing Policy places significant emphasis on ensuring that low-cost housing is situated near areas of economic opportunity. This is predicated on the universally recognized importance of accessibility to employment and services. It is acknowledged that individuals residing in outlying areas, where land is inexpensive and readily available, have limited job opportunities and may face difficulties in accessing employment. Similarly, formal workers in such areas may also be impeded by their ability to secure work opportunities, particularly in instances where their schedules do not align with the traditional working hours (Burns & Ferguson, 2022).

Corruption is another factor that affects housing policy implementation. According to discussions in focus groups in Gauteng and Western Cape, members from communities and Community-Based Organizations (CBOs) identified housing allocation at both provincial and municipal levels as a significant area of corruption in South Africa. Corruption Watch report highlighted that 5 percent of all complaints to the organization in the past year were related to housing, including issues such as manipulation of RDP housing allocation lists and the allocation of houses to individuals based on loyalty to councilors or through bribery (Corruption Watch, 2013). Perceptions of corruption are fueled by the lack of public disclosure of waiting lists, opaque allocation processes, and the extended duration—sometimes spanning years or even decades—that many individuals have remained on these lists. The widely recognized concept of a housing waiting list, both among the public and many politicians and government officials, does not align with the official version. Instead, various projects and programs are designed to address the intricate and multi-dimensional nature of housing demand. Moreover, additional unofficial and frequently illegal practices further exacerbate the situation. Firstly, there's widespread corruption in housing allocation, with numerous public servants securing state-subsidized houses, sometimes obtaining more than one each, despite presumably being intended for those in greater need. Secondly, individuals who would otherwise be eligible for state-subsidized housing often occupy houses without official allocation (SERI, 2013). In 2005, an Auditor-General's report was submitted to the Minister of Housing, following a performance audit that scrutinized the approval and allocation of housing subsidies across provincial housing departments. In 2007, media outlets reported allegations against Ekurhuleni municipal councilors, who were accused of selectively allocating housing to acquaintances and supporters. The extent of clientelism was so pronounced in this instance that municipal allocation procedures had to be revised. Additionally, in 2008, media exposés revealed a senior Gauteng housing official's arrest for allegedly "selling" stands designated for beneficiaries of the government's housing program at a price of R100,000 each. Furthermore, it was reported in 2008 that there were 7,363 documented cases, predominantly in Gauteng, of government officials fraudulently acquiring RDP housing units, either by residing in them, selling them, or renting them out (Auditor General South Africa, 2006; Rubin, 2011; SERI, 2013). The the former President Thabo Mbeki issued a proclamation authorising Special Investigating Unit (SIU) to investigate "any instances of fraud, corruption, and maladministration related to the development and delivery of low-cost housing in South Africa." This investigation encompasses the national Department of

Housing, provincial housing departments, former housing development boards and corporations, local authorities, and their appointed agents. In 2008, a total of 31,000 civil servants were being investigated by the SIU for potential fraud and corruption linked to their acquisition of low-income houses. A study conducted by Maluleke, et al. (2019) revealed that corruption remains prevalent in the allocation of low-income houses in South Africa. During a 10-month period with the National Department of Human Settlements, numerous cases of corruption related to the provision of low-cost housing were reported, particularly during the 2014/2015 period. These cases were indicative of the pervasive levels of corruption within the department and the human settlements sector. They included instances of incomplete housing projects, substandard workmanship or defective houses, payments made without corresponding construction, inflated costs, fronting, fraudulent claims and invoices, and misallocation of low-income houses. These illicit activities have a detrimental impact on service delivery and undermine the government's commitment to providing equitable access to sustainable human settlements and an enhanced quality of life (Maluleke, et al., 2019).

The growth of restructuring zones (RZ), which expanded from 127 to 265 in 2017 without a corresponding rise in budget, appears to have been influenced by the requirement for rapid delivery. Restructuring zones currently encompass many smaller towns and cities and span the entire country. This reflected the political goal of distributing government funds nationwide. However, this comes at the expense of reducing the amount of money that can be invested in regions with the highest economic opportunities. It also makes it more challenging to focus on housing investment in a way that will have the greatest impact on the ground in each municipal region and has the best possibility of leveraging other (private) resources. Although RZs are meant to encourage social, economic, and spatial reorganization, their demarcation and application have greatly minimized this crucial goal (DPME, 2016; SHRA, 2019).

It becomes more challenging to install social housing in better-located places because of rising building and property costs unless public land is made available at a drastically reduced cost. The capacity of SHIs to acquire well-located property is hampered by the social housing finance mechanism since it anticipates a land price of about R 30,000 per unit when the actual price of well-located land is far more than this (NASHO and AFD, 2012; SHRA, 2019)

In a news report by Human (2022), housing activists claim that the City of Cape Town drags its feet to deliver affordable housing in the inner city. The organization Ndifuna Ukwazi asserts that the City of Cape Town does not address the housing crisis with sufficient urgency, as only one of the 11 planned affordable housing projects announced five years ago has been completed. According to Robyn Park-Ross, a researcher at Ndifuna Ukwazi, the city acknowledged in its latest Municipal Spatial Development Framework that it will take more than 70 years to eliminate the current housing backlog in Cape Town. Of the 11 affordable housing projects announced in 2017 in Woodstock, the Salt River, and the city center, only one, the Pickwick Transitional Housing project, has been completed and is now occupied (Human, 2022; Marvin, 2022).

2.11 Conclusion

Africa has seen a rapid increase in urbanization and internal migration, with South Africa experiencing a significant increase due to its apartheid past. The literature review discussed the reasons for rural-urban migration in South Africa, including economic opportunities, employment benefits, and job security. It also provides the historical background of rural-urban migration in South Africa from the apartheid era to the present day and compares it to the global housing crisis. This chapter also highlights the various legislations and policies implemented by the South African government and the City of Cape Town to address housing shortages, which have had limited success.

This chapter establishes that poverty and inequality contributed to the housing crisis in South Africa. It also emphasizes the link between increased urbanization, inadequate housing, and economic growth. This chapter discusses the relevant theories related to this study.

<center>**CHAPTER THREE**</center>

<center>**RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**</center>

3.1 Introduction

The preceding chapter examined the literature review and the legislative framework for internal migration. The chapter also discusses the theoretical framework grounded in the M-R paradigm, income inequality theory, agglomeration theory, and the push and pull migration model (PPM). The legislative framework upon which the study was based includes various legislations and policies, such as the Housing Act, White Paper Act, RDP, and BNG, which have been implemented by the South African government and the City of Cape Town to address housing shortages, which has had limited success.

This chapter examines this study's methodology, focusing on the methods used to gather data on the effect of internal migration on housing shortages in Cape Town. This chapter then explains the measures taken to enhance the validity and reliability of the research instruments. Finally, the chapter discusses the ethical principles that were followed during this research.

3.2 Research Design

According to Rajasekar et al. (2013), research is a methodical and thorough exploration of new valuable information on a specific subject. It involves an inquiry into finding remedies for scientific and social issues through an impartial and systematic examination. This is a pursuit of knowledge, that is, the uncovering of concealed truths. The research design is intended to provide a suitable structure for this investigation. A crucial decision in the research design process is selecting the research approach, which determines how to gather relevant information for the study. Nevertheless, the research design process involves various interconnected decisions (Sileyew, 2019). Silverman (2004) described the research design as a detailed plan that outlines how the researcher collects and analyzes data for a specific study. It involves the implementation of logical procedures that help ensure the accuracy and relevance of the data for a particular research question.(Neuman, 2009). This study aims to address the issue of housing shortages by identifying and proposing solutions. The research design employed a descriptive and interpretive

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analysis of secondary quantitative methods to investigate the impact of internal migration on housing in Cape Town.

3.3. Research Methodology

The research methodology is a structured approach to address this issue. This discipline is concerned with investigating the principles and practices involved in conducting research. Fundamentally, the research methodology encompasses the techniques and protocols employed by researchers to observe, explain, and forecast phenomena. It can also be defined as an examination of the methods whereby knowledge is acquired. The objective is to provide a research blueprint (Rajasekar et al., 2013).

To ensure clarity, it is essential to explain the nature of secondary data and its significance in the context of this research, as the study relied on secondary data. Hox and Boeije (2005) stated that secondary data were previously collected by researchers for purposes other than research to investigate the impact and relationship between internal migration and urbanization on housing inadequacy in Cape Town. The research problem and objectives of this study require the use of secondary quantitative data.

3.3.1 Qualitative method

Qualitative research utilizes various empirical materials, such as case studies, personal experiences, introspects, life stories, interviews, observational studies, historical accounts, interactional data, and visual texts to explore routine and challenging situations and their associated meanings in people's lives (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005). The use of qualitative methods allows researchers to gain a thorough understanding of the historical development of a phenomenon being studied. This type of research provides more insight into the background and context of the phenomenon than just its predictive power (Gill et al., 2008). The characteristics of qualitative research include being non-numerical and descriptive, and using reasoning to understand why and how to make decisions. The aim is to gain insight into the meanings, feelings, and descriptions of situations. Unlike quantitative research, qualitative research uses words, rather than numbers, to gather information (Rajasekar et al., 2013). Quantitative research focuses on numbers and statistics, while qualitative research is concerned with gathering non-standardized data and examining the subjective significance or social creation of topics, events, or practices through the analysis of texts and images (Flick, 2014).

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This study employed a qualitative research method to provide in-depth views on the impact of increased urbanization and housing shortages in Cape Town. Qualitative research is well suited to study complex problems, such as urbanization and housing shortages in Cape Town. This allows researchers to consider the unique social, economic, and cultural factors that contribute to these problems. One type of qualitative research is content analysis, which allows researchers to delve deeply into the subject matter and gain a better understanding of how urbanization and housing shortages impact people's lives. It also allows researchers to explore these problems more deeply and gain a more nuanced understanding. Additionally, it can uncover insights valuable for developing policies and interventions to address these problems. Qualitative research can also generate hypotheses or research questions for future studies, which can help to ensure that the findings of these studies are culturally and contextually relevant. Thus, it is more likely that any proposed solution will be effective.

3.3.2 Quantitative Method

The quantitative method involves gathering and evaluating structured information that can be presented in a numerical form. One of the primary objectives is to establish precise and dependable measurements that enable statistical analyses (Goertzen, 2017). According to ACAPS (2016), quantitative research involves gathering information that can be analyzed numerically, leading to the presentation of results in forms such as graphs, bar charts, and statistics. Because this type of research focuses on data that can be measured, it is highly effective at answering questions related to the "what" or "how" of a particular situation. Direct, quantifiable questions often include phrases such as "what percentage?", "what proportion?", "to what extent?", "how many?", and "how much?" (Goertzen, 2017).

Quantitative data were obtained from books, journals, newspaper articles, census reports, StatsSA reports, and government publications. The data were critically examined to obtain a well-informed report. The researcher performed a more detailed and fine-grained analysis of the collected secondary data, together with secondary figures, writing, and charts.

3.4 Data Collection Methods

The data collection process refers to the systematic and structured procedure for gathering information or data for research, analysis, or evaluation. It involves the identification of sources, selection of appropriate methods, instruments, and tools, planning and design of data collection

activities, data gathering, storage, organization, and processing, and ultimately, the interpretation and reporting of findings. It is important to emphasize that this study relied solely on secondary data, which entailed the utilization of information primarily obtained from source books, journals, articles, the Internet, archived documents from government gazettes, census reports, and StatsSA reports.

3.4.1 Books, Journals and Articles

Data collected from books, journals, and articles were used to provide valuable insights into the impact of urbanization on internal migration in Cape Town, inform policy decisions, and advance knowledge about this complex issue. These tools were used to collect qualitative data through content analysis of sources, such as newspaper articles or government reports, which can provide insights into the experiences and perspectives of individuals and communities affected by urbanization and internal migration in Cape Town. In addition, they have been used to collect quantitative data through citation analysis or meta-analysis of existing studies. These helped to identify common themes and trends in research on urbanization and internal migration in Cape Town, as well as gaps and inconsistencies in the literature.

The benefit of utilizing documentary sources is that they can be retrieved more quickly and at a lower cost than primary data, which involves collecting information directly from respondents through standardized categories (Sangqu, 2022)

3.4.2 The Internet

The Internet has become a more common tool for research in recent years, with some studies suggesting that it could revolutionize many fields through the use of online surveys and electronic data collection, resulting in larger sample sizes and more representative data (Benfield, 2006). The Internet is a valuable source of information on internal migration and housing shortages. A Google search can provide access to a wealth of research studies, reports, and articles on this study, although the researcher requires a more critical outlook to sieve facts from false information on the Internet.

3.4.3 Government Documents

Government documents such as policy documents, research reports, and statistical reports can also provide valuable information on the impact of internal migration on housing shortages. For

example, the South African Department of Human Settlements publishes annual reports on housing delivery, which were used to provide insights into the scale of housing shortages and the government's efforts to address the issue.

3.4.4 Census Reports

Census data provides a rich source of information on internal migration patterns and housing trends. The South African Census is conducted every ten years by StatsSA and provides a detailed picture of population trends, housing conditions, and migration patterns. By analyzing census data, researchers identified the trends and patterns of internal migration and housing shortages, and developed insights into the factors that contribute to these issues.

3.4.5 StatsSA

StatsSA is a key source of statistical information on internal migration and housing in South Africa. The agency collects and publishes data on population trends, migration patterns, and housing conditions. By analyzing the StatsSA data, the researcher identified trends in internal migration and housing shortages and developed insights into the factors that contribute to these issues.

The knowledge and comprehensive review of the existing literature on housing shortages and urbanization facilitated the researcher's contextual and conceptual understanding of the phenomenon under scrutiny and was crucial in influencing the researchers' viewpoint.

3.4.6 Centre for Affordable Housing Finance in Africa (CAHFA)

The CAHFA is a think tank that aims to promote affordable housing in Africa by fostering the growth of housing markets. CAHFA was founded in 2013 by a group of experts in the field of housing finance with the support of the Rockefeller Foundation. The CAHFA's work is focused on three key areas: research and analysis on affordable housing, capacity-building support for housing finance institutions in Africa, and advocates for policies and reforms that will promote affordable housing in Africa. This study employed data from different publications of CAHFA in South Africa and Cape Town.

3.4.7 The National Income Dynamics Study (NIDS)

The NIDS is a comprehensive survey of 28,255 individuals from 7,305 households in South Africa. These individuals were interviewed at two-year intervals following the base wave in 2008. This study aimed to capture the dynamics of income in the country. The South African NIDS was the

http://etd.uwc.ac.za

first national panel study on individuals of all ages. The NIDS survey was conducted over multiple waves between 2008 and 2017, including factors such as household characteristics, migration patterns, employment status, income levels, and housing conditions. The panel sheds light on the complex dynamics of households in South Africa and how they affect the quality of life and well-being of their members. It also offers insight into the migration trend from less-developed to more-developed provinces.

3.5 Data Analysis Techniques

According to Hatch (2002), data analysis involves a systematic search for meaning and the processing of quantitative data is used to communicate the insights learned. It also involves bringing order, structure, and meaning to the collected data by carefully labeling and organizing the pieces in a manner that facilitates ongoing analysis. The process of critical inquiry involves rigorous examination and organization of information to uncover trends, recognize connections, formulate hypotheses, develop explanations, offer evaluations, and construct theoretical frameworks (Creswell, 2009). The data for this study were collected from multiple secondary sources, reviewed, and analyzed to arrive at a specific conclusion. The accuracy of the data analysis depended on the quality of the data collected.

Secondary data that are archived or made available can serve as a source of primary data. This underscores the significance of secondary data analysis, as it can provide additional insight into existing research on related topics. By reanalyzing the data, secondary data analysis can help address the research problem. In this study, secondary data were utilized to address the research questions and the problem. The data were thoroughly examined and re-evaluated to yield the necessary insights regarding the causes of issues related to housing shortages and internal migration in Cape Town.

The figures and charts were examined and analyzed in the form of descriptive statistics, such as graphs and charts, to obtain reliable results. The data analysis method is briefly described as follows:

3.5.1 Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics are techniques employed to calculate, describe, and summarize the collected research data in a systematic, meaningful, and effective manner. These statistics are presented

numerically in the manuscript text and/or in tables or graphically in figures (Vetter, 2017). The statistics under consideration pertain to the examination, categorization, and presentation of information gathered from a sample or a complete population. Descriptive statistics were employed to arrange data in an orderly fashion by illustrating the connections between variables within a sample or population. The set of measures includes types of variables, such as nominal, ordinal, interval, and ratio, as well as frequency, central tendency, dispersion/variation, and position (CFI Team, 2022; Yellapu, 2018).

The primary objective of this study is to provide a summary of the samples and measures employed, which is a crucial aspect of all quantitative data analyses. Descriptive statistics play a vital role in this process and are often used alongside the analysis of various graphics. Unlike inferential statistics, descriptive statistics primarily focus on depicting data, rather than making inferences about a population. Descriptive statistics were utilized primarily to depict the behavior of the sample data. It is an analytical tool used to quantitatively analyze a dataset. In a single study, numerous variables may require measurement, leading researchers to employ descriptive statistics to simplify the vast amount of data (Sharma, 2019). This study presents a quantitative analysis of data from a household survey to evaluate the impact of internal migration on the housing situation in Cape Town.

According to Sharma (2019), measures of central tendency and variability are used to quantify descriptive statistics, which can be better understood using tables, graphs, or general discussions to convey the meaning of the analyzed data. The CFI Team (2022) stated that the three main categories of descriptive statistics are Frequency Distribution, Measures of Central Tendency, and Measures of Variability. The frequency distribution method was used, and a brief description of this method is provided below.

3.5.2 Frequency Distribution

The frequency distribution reveals the number of diverse outcomes within a dataset or sample and is illustrated in tables or graphs. Each row or bar in the table or graph represents the number of times a particular value or range of values occurs within a specific interval or group (CFI Team, 2022). To improve the researchers' comprehension of the connection between urbanization or internal migration and housing shortages in Cape Town, line charts were utilized as graphical and pictorial tools. This approach enables a more systematic and organized way to display the data.

This constituted a part of the quantitative technique used in this study. This method helped the researcher arrive at a reliable conclusion on how internal migration impacts housing shortages and affordability in Cape Town.

Descriptive statistics are useful for making sense of the data and presenting them in a meaningful way, making it easier to interpret the dataset. By providing a foundation for comparing variables, descriptive statistics play a crucial role in data analysis and are an important part of good research practice. To minimize the risk of misleading results, reporting the most appropriate descriptive statistics using a systematic approach is recommended (CFI Team, 2022; Yellapu, 2018).

3.6 Reliability and Validity

Patton (2014) suggested that qualitative researchers should be mindful of the validity and reliability when designing a study, analyzing results, and evaluating the quality of the research. Accordingly, Gill et al. (2008) concurred that, although numerous research efforts with poorly articulated questions may appear sound, they are neither valid nor reliable. Therefore, the accuracy of the measuring instrument not only impacts the accuracy of the results but also the conclusions drawn and the generalizations made from the study.

Joppe (2000) defined reliability as the degree to which a study's results are consistent over time, and accurately reflect the population being studied. When the results of a study can be replicated using a similar methodology, the research instrument is considered reliable. The consistency and reproducibility of the data analysis methods, as well as the similarity of results obtained by different analysis teams using the same methods and data, are important factors to consider (Aven & Heide, 2009).

The researcher used reliable sources of information to conduct this desktop research. Reliability refers to the consistency and accuracy of information in the sources. To assess the reliability of the study's sources, the researcher ensured that factors such as the author's credentials, publisher, date of publication, and whether the information was supported by other sources were adequately and sufficiently consistent and accurate.

Joppe (2000) explained that validity is a crucial element that determines whether the research accurately measures what it was intended to measure or the truthfulness of the research results. In simpler terms, it is like hitting the bull's eye on the research object. Researchers typically assess

the validity of their research by posing a series of questions and often referring to others' research. Creswell (2009) emphasized the importance of validity in conducting research that aims to gain a deep understanding of the way of life of individuals, groups, or institutions. Validity refers to the accuracy of the research outcomes in reflecting the situation or phenomenon being investigated. In this study, the researcher verified the validity of their sources by verifying that the information was supported by evidence and that the sources used to support the information were reliable.

After conducting this desktop research, the researcher evaluated the reliability and validity of the research findings through factors such as the consistency of the findings across multiple sources, the strength of the evidence supporting the findings, and whether the findings were supported by other research studies. By using reliability and validity, the researcher ensured that the information gathered was credible and of high quality, which improved the overall quality of this study.

3.7 Limitation of the Study

Limitations include uncontrollable factors and events that can hinder the scope of research and potentially impact the results and conclusions that can be drawn. Regardless of how carefully a study is conducted and defined, every study has limitations (Simon & Goes, 2013). As part of this secondary research, data were collected and analyzed from existing sources, such as books, journals, websites, and databases. Although it was a useful and cost-effective method for conducting research, some limitations were encountered. The study had limited access to information, and some were outdated, inaccurate, or biased. The study could not afford the researcher the opportunity to gather qualitative data such as opinions, attitudes, and experiences, which could have been valuable for understanding the factors behind internal migration and housing shortages in greater depth. Additionally, the potential for information overload from secondary data was overwhelming, and the researcher struggled to sift through the data to identify the most relevant and useful information.

3.8 Ethical Statement

The researcher obtained approval from the University of Western Cape prior to initiating this research. This study was approved by the Ethics Committee of the University of Western Cape. In terms of literary interpretation, significant efforts were made to ensure meticulous and comprehensive translation of the texts.

3.9 Conclusion

This chapter investigated the methodology utilized in gathering data on the influence of internal migration on housing shortages in Cape Town. The researcher implemented a descriptive statistics analysis and a qualitative and quantitative research design and employed interpretation methods, such as frequency distribution, to collect data for this study. Additionally, it is important to consider the reliability and validity of the study, its limitations, and its ethical considerations. The following section presents and discusses the primary research findings.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH FINDINGS AND ANALYSIS

4.1 Introduction

The previous chapter detailed the methods used to gather data on the influence of internal migration on housing shortages and affordability in Cape Town, South Africa. This chapter presents the research results and interprets the data in relation to the central research question and objectives regarding the impact of internal migration on housing shortages and affordability. The collected data aimed to address the three research objectives of the study, which were connected to the primary research objective. Data analysis was performed using desktop research and quantitative data from secondary sources, including textbooks, articles, journals, magazines, government gazettes, and dependable electronic sources, as outlined in Chapter Three.

4.2 The State of Residential Housing Price in Cape Town

4.2.1. Residential Property Price Index (RPPI)

The South African Reserve Bank (SARB), Statistics South Africa (Stats SA), the South African Deeds Office, and the International Monetary Fund (IMF) collaborated to develop the Residential Property Price Index (RPPI) in South Africa, with the RPPI being constructed in accordance with the methods outlined in the Handbook on Residential Property Price Indices, which are internationally recognized (Eurostat, 2013) and the Residential Property Price Index Practical Compilation Guide (IMF, 2020a). RPPI is intended to track changes in the prices of residential properties, including houses, townhouses, and flats purchased by households, regardless of whether they are new or existing dwellings, their final use, or previous owners. Only market prices are considered, such as the price of the land on which residential buildings are situated (OECD, 2023). Since the 2008 global financial crisis, RPPIs have been used as macroeconomic indicators of economic growth, a factor in estimating the value of housing as a component of wealth, and a consideration in an individual's decision-making regarding buying (or selling) residential property (IMF, 2020a). Two levels of detail are used by Stats SA to publish RPPIs: first, the RPPIs for each province are aggregated to the national RPPI, and second, the RPPIs for each of the eight

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metropolitan municipalities are aggregated to all metropolitan areas. This report presents significant findings from the RPPI for November 2022, with the aim of providing insights into the state of housing affordability and pricing in Cape Town. To provide context, key findings are presented on how housing prices have increased since 2010 across eight metropolitan municipalities from January 2010 to November 2022. The data in Figure 4.1 indicate that residential property prices in Cape Town have risen by 141% since 2010, which is higher than in any other metropolitan municipality. Additionally, property prices in Cape Town have consistently increased since August 2014, growing at a faster rate than in other major South African cities. Although prices remained flat in 2018 and 2019, they surged further. By contrast, residential property prices in Johannesburg increased at a slower pace, with an average growth rate of 71%.

Figure 4.1 also shows that as of November 2022, Cape Town had the highest RPPI of 241, which is 18% higher than the average RPPI of all other metropolitan municipalities in South Africa. This finding implies that property prices in Cape Town are significantly higher than those in other major South African cities, and that property prices in Cape Town are 18% more expensive than those in other major South African cities. Several factors could contribute to the high property prices in Cape Town. These factors may include the city's strong economy, which makes it an attractive place to live and work, and in turn, increases demand for property. Other factors that can contribute to high property prices in Cape Town may be the high rate of internal migration to the city and the high rate of tourists to the city. Cape Town International Airport saw a significant increase in international passenger traffic in the first two quarters of 2022 and April 2023 compared to the same period in 2019. In April 2023, 218,325 international passengers arrived and departed from the airport, representing a 39% year-on-year increase and full recovery to pre-pandemic levels. This is still below the 2.6 million international passengers that arrived and departed from the airport in 2019, but it is a significant improvement from the early days of the pandemic (Raine, Claire, 2023; Statista, 2023). The tourism sector is driving the growing prominence of Airbnb, leading to an upsurge in demand for apartments in Cape Town. This surge translated into a 16% increase in sales within the Central Business District (CBD). Additionally, the number of active rentals in Cape Town surged significantly, escalating from fewer than 700 in 2013 to surpassing 15,000 in 2017. Airbnb is now generating more than R120 million annually from its 21,000 listings, marking a staggering 190% growth from 2015 to 2016. Notably, the majority of Airbnb guests, accounting for 72%, are international travelers (SA Property Insider, 2016). The influx of tourists can

significantly impact the housing market, leading to increased property prices and rents. This is because of the transfer of properties from the residential housing market to the short-term rental market, holiday housing, or second homes. As a result of the reduction in the available supply of long-term rental units, homeowners and landlords find it more profitable to rent their properties in the short term. Consequently, long-term renters may find it more difficult and expensive to find housing (Cró & Martins, 2023; Weddell & Bigart, 2023).
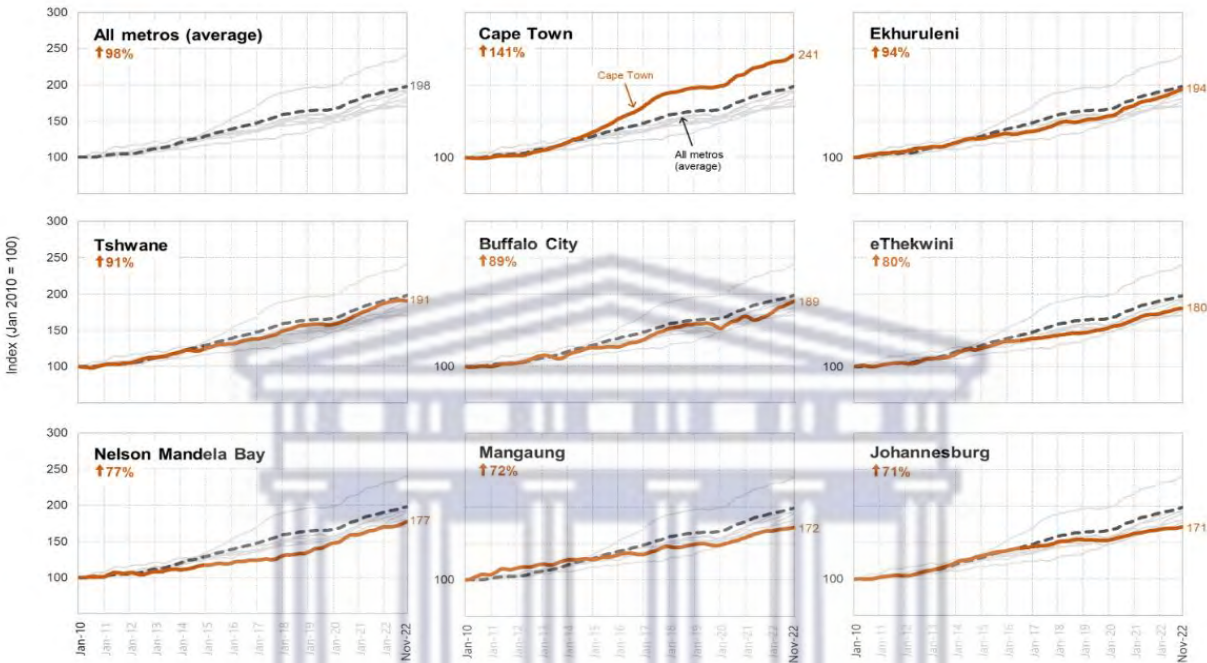
Figure 4.1: Residential property prices of major South African Cities

Source: Residential property prices Index as of November 2022

The results of the RPPI metropolitan area indices and annual percentage changes between January 2023 and January 2022 are presented in Table 4.1. The sales value for each year was obtained from South African Deeds Office data and utilized to create the indices. The indices for each year were then weighted based on the total sales value of the two preceding years. For instance, the results for 2022 are based on the sales value of 2020, the results for 2021 are based on the sales value of 2019, and so on. The weights were revised annually, with the influence of January RPPI each year. Table 4.1 displays the weights of all RPPIs in the metropolitan areas. According to the results in Table 4.1, Cape Town has the highest weight of 30.56, which signifies that it accounted for the largest proportion of sales during the period, followed by Johannesburg and City of Tshwane.

Additionally, the RPPI for all metros increased by 0.5% from the previous month in January 2023, whereas the RPPI for Cape Town grew by 5.7% from January 2022 to January 2023.

Table 4.1: Metropolitan areas indices and annual percentage changes

Metropolitan area	Weight	Index (Dec 2020=100)			% change	
		Jan 2022	Dec 2022	Jan 2023	Jan 2023 vs. Dec 2022	Jan 2023 vs. Jan 2022
All metropolitan areas	100.00	106.4	110.0	110.6	0.5	3.9
City of Cape Town	30.56	107.4	112.7	113.5	0.7	5.7
Buffalo City	1.83	102.6	112.6	113.6	0.9	10.7
Nelson Mandela Bay	4.23	107.0	110.3	111.2	0.8	3.9
Mangaung	2.63	106.0	108.5	108.6	0.1	2.5
eThekwini	10.11	105.5	108.6	108.9	0.3	3.2
Ekurhuleni	12.39	106.5	112.4	112.7	0.3	5.8
City of Johannesburg	22.82	103.4	105.9	106.3	0.4	2.8
City of Tshwane	15.43	109.1	109.0	109.4	0.4	0.3

4.3 Cape Town's Residential Property Market

In this section, we discuss Cape Town's residential property market, population, and average monthly household income from 2015 to 2021 based on information from publications by the Centre for Affordable Housing Finance in Africa (CAHF) and other government publications. This provides an analysis of Cape Town's residential property market in terms of its size, value, and affordability. The results in table 4.2 shows that while the population of Cape Town increased by 21% between 2015 and 2021, the total number of residential properties only increased from 703,801 to 780,263 (by 11%) within the same period. There were 780,263 residential properties in Cape Town, accounting for 66% of the total residential properties in Western Cape, as of June 30, 2021 (CAHF 2021). These data were derived from the national deeds registry property records and, by definition, do not include unregistered informal settlements or unregistered backyard dwelling units. Table 4.2 also shows that the average property value in the city increased by 22% from ZAR 1,292,000 in 2015 to 1,575,214 in 2021, whereas the total value of the residential properties increased by 52%.

Table 4.2 further shows that the average monthly household income in Cape Town was ZAR 17,382 in 2015, of which 82% was spent on household expenditure in most urban areas in South Africa (Statistics SA, 2017). Average income increased to ZAR 21,424 in 2018 and ZAR 24,342 in 2021. This accounts for a 14% increase in nominal terms between the two periods. However, it is important to note that most household expenditures in South Africa are spent on housing, followed by other necessities such as water, sanitation, energy, transport, and healthcare. Overall, Table 4.2 shows that based on the 2016 estimate, about 18% of households in Cape Town rent their houses.

Table 4.2: Cape Town Residential property market

Variable	2015	2018	2020	2021
Cape Town Population	3,928,148	4,430,000	4,602,248	4 758 433
Total number of households	1,177,955	1,264,949	1,264,949	1 303 988
Total number of residential properties	703 801	747,537	767 275	780 263
Total value of residential properties (ZAR Billion)	807.5	1009.6	1,161.1	1,229.1
Average property value (ZAR)	1,292,000	1 350 620	1,513,254	1,575,214
Percent of households renting (2016 estimate)	18.2%	18.2%	18.2%	18.2%
Average monthly household income (ZAR)	17,382	21,424	23 306	24,342

Most households in South Africa (83% in 2021) reside in formal dwellings in urban areas, while 15% live in informal dwellings. Homeownership was prevalent, with 69.7% of households owning their homes and 18.7% renting. Renting backyards is a common informal housing strategy in urban areas. There has been an increased focus on programs to develop land and infrastructure for service sites using site-and-service models. In figure 4.2, this study reveals that as of June 2021, Cape Town's residential property market is the largest of South Africa's eight major metros and has the highest average residential property value at R1.575 million. This high value indicates affordable housing in cities. The following section examines the trend in housing affordability in Cape Town.
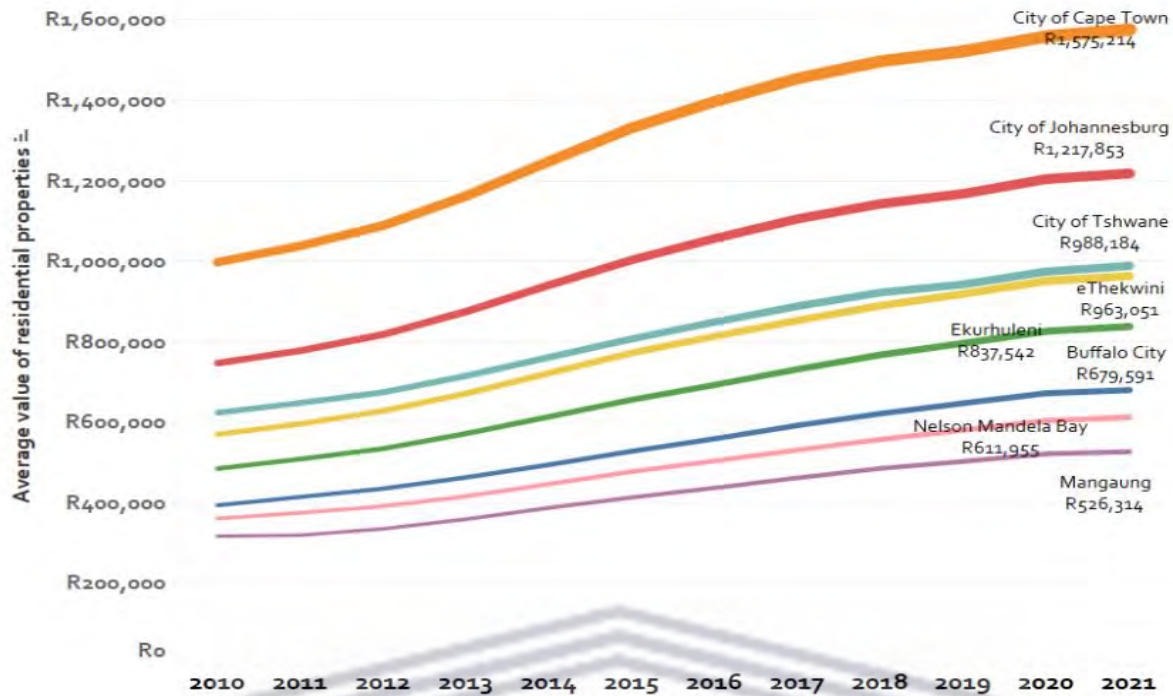
Figure 4.2: Average value of residential properties

4.4 Housing Affordability

South Africa is experiencing rapid urbanization, with the urban population growing at an annual rate of 2% over the past decade. By 2030, 71% of the country's population is expected to live in cities. Despite the government's efforts to provide low-income households with state-sponsored homes (approximately three million since 1994), the number of people living in slums has continued to increase. In 2018, 26% of the urban residents lived in slums. In South Africa, a property is considered affordable if it is valued below ZAR 500,000 and can be acquired by a family or household earning less than ZAR 15,000 annually. A neighborhood with a definite name and delineated limits, where the typical value of the residential properties within it is less than or equal to R 500 000, is considered an affordable suburb. (CAHF, 2013; Steedley, 2014).

The significance of a cost-effective housing market in South Africa cannot be overemphasized. As reported by CAHFA in 2015, of the six million residential properties in the South African Deeds Registry, more than half (3,4 million or 58%) are valued at less than R500 000. However, the housing market in Cape Town is still dominated by high-value properties, which results in limited

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affordable housing options. By utilizing data from the CAHFA, this study separates the total residential property market in Cape Town into five segments according to value.

a. The entry market—properties worth ZAR300 000 or less
b. The affordable market—properties worth ZAR300 000 - ZAR600 000
c. The conventional market —properties worth ZAR600 000 - ZAR900 000
d. The high-end market—properties worth ZAR900 000 - ZAR1.2 million
e. The luxury market—properties worth over ZAR1.2 million

The CAHFA data reveal that Cape Town has the largest proportion of properties in the luxury market segment, worth over ZAR1.2 million, and the smallest percentage of entry-level properties. Table 4.3 presents the trend of the total number of residential properties in Cape Town based on their value, which shows that only 20% of residential properties in Cape Town were valued at ZAR300,000 or less and were classified as entry-level in 2018. In 2018, the luxury market (properties worth over ZAR1.2m) dominated the property market in Cape Town, accounting for 36% of all the properties. In 2020, the number of residential properties in Cape Town with a market value of ZAR300,000 or less, which is the entry-level market, dropped to 18%. Additionally, 21% of the properties were in the affordable market segment, while 14% fell in the conventional market range between ZAR600,000 and ZAR900,000. In Cape Town, the high-end market accounted for 10%, whereas luxury properties accounted for 41% of all properties. Table 4.3 shows a decline in the number of entry-level properties, with 16% available, and 18% in the affordable market segment, and 13% in the conventional market range, valued between ZAR600,000 and ZAR900,000. The high-end market comprised 10% of the properties, while the luxury market further increased and accounted for 43% of all the properties in Cape Town.

Overall, Table 4.3 shows that the number of properties in the highest value bracket (over R1.2 million) has increased significantly in recent years. In 2018, this bracket accounted for 36% of all the properties in Cape Town. By 2021, this had increased to 43%. This suggests that the Cape Town property market is becoming increasingly polarized, with a growing number of expensive properties and a shrinking number of affordable properties. The number of properties in the lowest-value bracket (less than R300,000) has decreased in recent years. In 2018, this bracket accounted for 20% of all the properties in Cape Town. By 2021, this had decreased to 16%. This suggests that it is becoming increasingly difficult for people to afford to buy home in Cape Town,

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particularly at the lower end of the market. The trends observed in the table are concerning because they suggest that Cape Town is becoming increasingly unaffordable to many people. This is likely to have a negative impact on a city's economy and society as it will make it more difficult for people to get ahead.

Table 4.3: Total number of residential properties in Cape Town based on value.

	2018		2020		2021	
Market segment	**Number of properties**	**% of total**	**Number of properties**	**% of total**	**Number of properties**	**% of total**
Under R300,000	155,405	20%	142,759	18%	128,349	16%
R300,000 – R600,000	154,974	21%	139,306	18%	138,075	18%
R600 000 - R900 000	101,389	14%	98,786	13%	102,961	13%
R900 000 - R1.2 million	67,593	9%	72,939	10%	79,026	10%
over R1.2 million	268,176	36%	313,485	41%	331,875	43%
Total	**747,537**	**100%**	**767,275**	**100%**	**780,263**	**100%**

4.5 Internal Migration Trend: Insights from the National Income Dynamics Study (NIDS)

This study used five waves of a South African NIDS survey to track migration trends in South Africa. The survey provides an avenue for examining internal migration patterns using a nationally representative sample of over 28,000 individuals living in 7,300 households across South Africa. The survey, which began in 2008, followed the same household members every two years. The first, second, third, fourth, and fifth waves were conducted in 2008, 2010/11, 2012, 2014/15, and 2017, respectively. The NIDS examines household characteristics, migration trends, changes in location between provinces, employment status, income levels, and housing conditions over time.

Table 4.4 shows the change in the location of respondents between 2008 and 2017 based on NIDS panel data. The table shows the number of respondents who lived in each province in 2008, and those who moved to other provinces between 2008 and 2017. The data showed that Western Cape was the most popular destination for respondents who moved between 2008 and 2017. There were 3,978 people who lived in the Western Cape in 2008, and 2,724 respondents who moved to the Western Cape between 2008 and 2017. This means that there was a net inflow of 2,724 respondents to Western Cape between 2008 and 2017, with the majority ending in Cape Town. The other popular destination for respondents who moved between 2008 and 2017 was Gauteng Province, which had a net inflow of 1,351 respondents. The provinces that lost the most South Africans

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between 2008 and 2017 were Eastern Cape and Limpopo, with net outflows of 25% and 24% respectively between 2008 and 2017. This suggests that people are moving away from these provinces in search of better economic opportunities.

Overall, Table 4.4 shows that there is a clear trend of migration from the less developed provinces of South Africa to the more developed provinces. This trend is likely to continue in the future as people continue to seek better economic opportunities. With the Western Cape province having a net inflow of 69% in 2017 compared to 2008, this strongly explains the high rate of migration to Cape Town, as most respondents moving to Western Cape go to Cape Town (Myroniuk et al., 2022). The city has experienced rapid population growth in recent years, with most new arrivals coming from the other provinces. This has put strain on the city's infrastructure and services and has led to increased competition for jobs and limited affordable housing. The impact of internal migration on Cape Town is a complex issue with no easy solution. The government needs to find ways to balance the needs of the city's existing residents with those of new residents. This will require careful planning and coordination and will likely involve a combination of short- and long-term measures.

Table 4.4: Change in location of South Africans between 2008 and 2017 based on NIDS panel data

Province	2008	2010/11	2012	2014/15	2017	% change from 2008 - 2017
Western Cape	3,978	4,279	5,073	5,698	6,702	+69%
Eastern Cape	3,531	3,264	3,052	2,834	2,644	-25%
Northern Cape	2,224	2,132	2,018	1,926	1,839	-17%
Free State	1,644	1,509	1,468	1,410	1,348	-18%
KwaZulu-Natal	8,011	7,565	7,278	6,941	6,598	-18%
North West	1,875	1,791	1,697	1,654	1,563	-17%
Gauteng	2,778	3,741	3,837	4,108	4,129	+49%
Mpumalanga	2,060	1,965	1,881	1,782	1,691	-18%
Limpopo	2,477	2,251	2,155	2,046	1,891	-24%
Outside of South Africa	-	81	119	179	173	-
Total	**28,578**	**28,578**	**28,578**	**28,578**	**28,578**	

The 2022 South African Census also reports the inter-provincial migration rate and supports the findings of the NIDS survey. Table 4.5 shows that between 2011 and 2022, Western Cape had a net migration of 294,029, which is approximately 72% of the total migration into the province. This suggests that a significant majority of the migration flow in Western Cape is inbound, contributing to the province's population growth. Compared with other provinces, the 2022 census shows that the Western Cape has the highest net migration on average. This indicates a positive net migration into the Western Cape, meaning that more people are moving into the province than leaving.

Table 4.5: **Interprovincial migration census 2011 to 2022**

Province	In-migration	Out-migration	Net	Percentage
Western Cape	406,549	112,520	294,029	72%
Eastern Cape	184,213	246,842	-62,629	-34%
Northern Cape	44,376	32,282	12,094	27%
Free State	73,649	83,521	-9,872	-13%
KwaZulu-Natal	169,183	179,250	-10,067	-6%
North-West	146,262	98,987	47,275	32%
Gauteng	795,330	395,977	399,353	50%
Mpumalanga	132,459	119,809	12,65	10%
Limpopo	100,946	215,274	-114,328	-113%

Source: Census 2022 Statistical Release, (Stats SA, 2022)

Table 4.6 shows the number of formal and informal housing units in the Western Cape province of South Africa between 2008 and 2017 based on NIDS panel data. The table shows a significant increase in the number of respondents living in both formal and informal housing units in the province during this period. Specifically, the number of respondents living in formal housing units increased by 101.2% between 2008 and 2017. This growth was driven by several factors, including the influx of people from other provinces seeking better economic opportunities. However, the number of respondents living in informal housing units increased 49% between 2008 and 2017. This growth could be driven by several factors, including the high cost of formal housing in the province and lack of affordable housing options for low-income earners. This result is in line with Amin and Cirolia (2018) and Cinnamon and Noth (2023), who show that growth in the rate of informal housing in Western Cape Province over the years is reflective of the current state of Cape Town, where the rate of growth of informal settlements is a major challenge to the city. Over time,

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the increase in the number of informal settlements in Cape Town has had several negative consequences, including poor living conditions for residents of informal settlements, increased crime and violence in informal settlements, and environmental degradation in the areas surrounding informal settlements (Matzopoulos et al., 2020).

Table 4.6: Housing type of Respondents in the Western Cape between 2008 and 2017

Western Cape	2008	2010	2012	2014	2017	% change from 2008 - 2017
Formal Housing Unit	3,399	3,688	4,413	4,982	5,837	+101%
Informal Housing	579	591	660	716	865	+49%
Total	3,978	4,279	5,073	5,698	6,702	

4.6 Migration Patterns, Housing Demand, and the Affordable Housing Dilemma

4.6.1 Migration Trends and Their Impact on Social Services/Housing

The Cape Town is one of the most popular destinations for internal migration in South Africa. The city has a strong economy, beautiful climate, and a world-class reputation. However, the influx of new residents has placed strain on the city's housing market, leading to a shortage of affordable housing. The data above show that there is a clear trend of increasing cost of affordable housing in Cape Town compared to many other metros and migration from the less developed provinces of South Africa to the more developed provinces. This trend is likely to continue in the future as people continue to seek better economic opportunities. In the Western Cape province, the NIDS survey indicated a net inflow of about 69% in 2017 compared to 2008, which strongly explains the high rate of migration to Cape Town, as most respondents moving to Western Cape go to Cape Town.

The city has experienced rapid population growth in recent years, with most new arrivals coming from the other provinces. This has put strain on the city's infrastructure and services and has led to increased competition for jobs and limited affordable housing, resulting in informal economic activities to ensure survival (Mthiyane et al., 2022). Furthermore, the significant migration influx into Cape Town, as emphasized in the NIDS survey, is expected to have an unintended consequence of exacerbating urban poverty, placing additional strain on urban authorities. Many new migrants lack skills and education, making it challenging to secure employment or find jobs

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with sufficient income. Consequently, they face difficulties accessing affordable housing services, leading to the proliferation of informal settlements on the outskirts of urban areas (Chokoe & Meso, 2017; Meso et al., 2016; Mthiyane et al., 2022).

Moreover, the World Bank (2018) suggested that the rapid pace and magnitude of urbanization present a range of challenges. These challenges encompass the need to satisfy heightened demand for cost-effective housing, efficient transportation networks, and essential infrastructure. They also include the provision of fundamental services and employment opportunities. Consequently, services such as solid waste management and healthcare services face significant strain owing to the increased number of individuals requiring these services. This strain occurs without corresponding increases in budget allocation (KwaDukuza Integrated Development Plan, 2021).

The internal migration trend is further corroborated by the Mehrabian-Russell (M-R) paradigm, which contends that environmental stimuli, emotional states (pleasure, arousal, and dominance), and behavioral reactions (approach or avoidance) are the three components of the human response to the physical world (Mehrabian & Russell, 1974). The environmental stimuli, in this case the economic opportunities and quality of life in Cape Town, influence the emotional states of migrants. The city's strong economy and reputation likely evoke positive emotions, such as hope and ambition, which drive individuals from less developed provinces to migrate in search of better opportunities.

However, as these migrants settle in Cape Town, the rising cost of affordable housing has become a significant environmental stimulus that affects their emotional states. Increasing housing prices can trigger negative emotions such as financial stress and insecurity, which can, in turn, lead to specific behavioral reactions. A potential consequence of low income is that people may be compelled to engage in informal economic activities to sustain themselves. Formal urban housing has become unaffordable for them, which has led to the proliferation of slums on the outskirts of cities. Additionally, the incidence of crime and social issues such as drug trafficking is increasing in urban areas (Ntakirutimana, 2018).

Furthermore, the M-R paradigm aligns with the World Bank's observations regarding urbanization challenges. The rapid influx of migrants contributes to the city's population growth, placing immense strain on infrastructure, services, and employment opportunities. This strain creates an

environmental stimulus that influences the emotional state of both migrants and existing residents, potentially leading to feelings of competition, limited resources, and frustration.

In essence, the M-R paradigm underscores the interconnectedness of environmental stimuli, emotional states, and behavioral responses, shedding light on how internal migration can impact housing affordability and urban challenges in Cape Town.

In alignment with this study's first objective of investigating the context of internal migration and its repercussions on Cape Town, the comprehensive analysis presented here delves deeply into the multifaceted impact of this phenomenon. This narrative not only outlines the factors contributing to internal migration, but also explores the consequences, including the challenge of housing affordability, the strains imposed on urban infrastructure and services, and the resulting behavioral shifts among migrants.

4.6.2 Increasing Demand in Housing

The population of Cape Town was 4,758,433 in 2021, and it is projected to increase to 5,133,369 by 2025, with an estimated average annual growth rate of 1.6 percent (Western Cape Government, 2021). This underscores the pressing need to address the challenge of providing affordable and sustainable housing, particularly for those in low- and middle-income brackets, both in developed and developing nations. Research has revealed that, in developing countries, over a billion people currently reside in substandard housing conditions, including slums and shanty towns (Gan et al., 2017). According to the NIDS panel data covering the period from 2008 to 2017, there was a remarkable 101.2% increase in the number of respondents residing in formal housing units. This substantial growth can be attributed to the significant influx of migrants into Cape Town, which has led to a continuous upsurge in housing demand. Internal migration, like international migration, is predominantly driven by the allure of higher wages, improved working conditions, and pursuit of enhanced economic opportunities in the destination area. It also stems from the desire for personal and economic growth, and access to urban amenities (Chokoe & Meso, 2017; Mthiyane et al., 2022).

The global housing market faces a formidable challenge, as the supply of housing has struggled to keep pace with surging demand. Projections indicate a substantial increase in the world's urban population, soaring from 4.3 billion in 2020 to an estimated 6.7 billion by 2050 (Leridon, 2020). This demographic shift underscores the urgent need to expand housing provisions. In the case of

Cape Town, CAHFA (2018) has highlighted a significant impediment to meeting this demand, which is affordability. Housing supply often exceeds what potential residents can afford. This issue leads to the expansion and diversification of the housing market, covering both formal and informal housing options.

Moghayedi et al. (2021) acknowledged that The provision of sustainable and affordable housing faces significant challenges primarily stemming from the limited interest of potential investors in many regions. Such housing projects are often viewed as social endeavors with minimal profit potential that deter private sector involvement. Consequently, the duty to create sustainable and affordable housing has mainly been shouldered by the public sector, non-profit organizations, and low-profit entities, with only limited participation from the private sector. The findings from the CAHFA further emphasize the substantial investments directed toward affordable housing solutions for low-income individuals in Cape Town. Data from 2021 reveal a pronounced trend in housing demand, with a notable 43% demand for properties in the highest value bracket, exceeding R1.2 million. This trend underscores a growing polarization within the housing market, characterized by a rising number of high-end, expensive properties, and a diminishing supply of affordable options. Conversely, the percentage of properties within the lowest-value bracket, valued under R300,000, dwindled to a mere 16%. This shift accentuates the mounting challenge of accessing affordable housing in Cape Town, particularly for individuals in the lower-income segment of the market.

While the national government endeavors to address the affordability gap and aid impoverished households in accessing formal housing through a state-subsidized housing program, CAHFA (2018) highlighted that this initiative falls short of meeting housing demands across the country, resulting in inadequate housing conditions. Specifically, in Western Cape, Tyhotyholo (2021) confirmed that the state-subsidized housing program struggled to effectively allocate low-income housing to urban residents in need. The research highlights several factors that hinder the efficient distribution of affordable housing in South Africa, particularly in the Western Cape, such as the restricted technical and financial resources of both provincial and local administrations to cater to the needs of the urban poor. As suggested by Makinde (2014), it is worth noting that addressing the challenge of ever-increasing housing demand extends beyond simply increasing the supply of affordable housing. It involves developing housing projects in a manner that guarantees the quality assurance of housing.

The increased demand for housing confirms the push-pull model (PPM) highlighted in this study's literature review. The push-and-pull migration model (PPM) contends that a combination of push, pull, and mooring influences migrants' decisions to relocate. The push factors include poverty, unemployment, and rapid population growth (Bansal et al. 2005; Fu 2011). Push factors include poverty, unemployment, low social status, political repression and pull factors are higher pay, career prospects, better education, a welfare system, pleasant living conditions, and political freedom are additional pull factors (King, 2012). Substandard housing conditions, including slums and shanty towns, in migrants' places of origin (push factors) act as a significant driver for individuals to leave their current locations and seek better housing opportunities. The PPM suggests that unfavorable conditions in their places of origin "push" individuals away from these areas. On the other hand, Cape Town's appeal, driven by factors such as a strong economy and better employment prospects, acts as a "pull" factor attracting migrants to the city. The PPM posits that attractive attributes in the destination area "pull" individuals toward it. As more people are drawn to Cape Town because of its pull factors, the city experiences a continuous influx of migrants. This aligns with the observed increase in respondents residing in formal housing units, signifying a 101.2% growth over the years due to substantial migration into Cape Town.

In this context, PPM underlines the complex interplay of push and pull factors that contribute to internal migration, consequently escalating housing demand. This illustrates how individuals, motivated by the promise of better economic opportunities and improved living conditions, gravitate toward Cape Town, resulting in a persistent and growing need for affordable housing solutions.

Moreover, PPM indirectly relates to the broader global urbanization challenge mentioned in the subheading. As urban populations continue to swell worldwide, the PPM's principles of push and pull factors can be applied universally to explain migration trends and housing demand in various urban centers, emphasizing the pressing need for expanded housing provisions and affordability solutions on a global scale.

4.6.3 Affordability Impacted by Different Factors

The affordability of housing is a multifaceted issue influenced by a myriad of factors, each playing a critical role in shaping the housing landscape of Cape Town and its similar urban centers. This includes a complex web of elements that impact housing affordability and transcend economic

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considerations alone. From economic factors to government policies on market dynamics and social demographics.

Internal migrants searching for prosperity face a complex dilemma: the expense of living compared with the availability of affordable housing and social services. Similarly, the KwaDukuza Integrated Development Plan (2021) reported that the rapid growth of the urban population has led to a significant increase in the number of backlogs in fundamental social services due to rural-urban migration. This has placed the municipality under severe financial constraints, causing overcrowding and straining of existing water and sanitation facilities, energy supplies, and infrastructure. Consequently, service delivery is severely compromised, resulting in inadequate waste removal, a substantial housing backlog, delays in providing water and sanitation infrastructure, and a lack of updates to existing infrastructure.

While the allure of Cape Town is undeniable, the tension between the booming economy and accessible housing options is palpable. The RPPI and data from the CAHF and NIDS revealed a growing internal migration pattern and reduced housing affordability in Cape Town, suggesting that increasing housing costs reflect the affordable housing challenge in the city. Accessibility of multiple loan and mortgage options is a crucial factor for most individuals when purchasing a home. People struggling to navigate complex administrative systems and access funding, information, and formal transaction channels are often unable to afford housing. In South Africa, despite the well-established mortgage market relative to the country's economy, it primarily serves a small portion of households. This is not unexpected, given South Africa's widespread income inequality. In South Africa's current policy context, a household living in an informal settlement may be eligible for government-sponsored housing if there is a sufficient supply. They may also have the option to purchase an existing RDP house on the resale market or to move into entry-level or starter housing that costs under R300,000, depending on their income and the availability of financing. As their income increases or their circumstances change, they may be able to upgrade their housing by moving into something larger to accommodate a growing family or to a more desirable neighborhood. The nature of housing requirements is dynamic; it is essential to modify the housing situation to adapt to the evolving needs of the household.(CAHFA, 2018).

Similarly, Kleshcheva (2021) attributed income or employment to afford a house. When unemployment is high, housing affordability suffers, and the inflation rate has a significant impact

on the real income of households. As the inflation rate increases, housing becomes less affordable. Additionally, a decline in employment is accompanied by a decrease in the number of unemployed persons from 7.8 million to 7.6 million, resulting in a reduction in the labor force and an increase in the official unemployment rate. In the third quarter of 2021, South Africa's unemployment rate increased from 0.5 percentage points to 34.9% (Stats SA, 2021).

CAHFA (2018) suggests that public amenities and locations contribute to housing affordability. Investments in road infrastructure, services, and transportation amenities can increase property prices, especially in areas with high demand for housing. This can lead to bidding wars between homebuyers, who are willing to pay more for properties located in desirable areas with good amenities. Land value can also contribute to the overall value of a property, making it more expensive in areas with high demand and limited supply. The value of houses is influenced by buyers' decisions regarding where and how they want to live, and, as a result, the success of housing markets depends heavily on location. Furthermore, housing is usually the largest expenditure for most households and often represents the most significant asset a family will own.

Government policies and regulations have also played an important role in this area. The township application process According to Musvoto and Mooya (2018), the process of surveying, approving the general plan, concluding the services agreement, and receiving council consideration took 157 months, which was 69 months longer than the 88 months recommended in guideline documents. The prolonged duration from inception to the completion of a housing project results in increased delivery costs, reduced developer profits, and unaffordable house prices, ultimately reducing the availability of affordable housing options. This was confirmed in a study by Tyhotyholo (2021), indicating a 500,000 housing backlog in 2014/2015 in comparison with 310,000 housing backlog in year 2000/2001.

The affordable housing market is defined by its agents, the guidelines that govern their actions, the resources and concepts they use, and how these elements are influenced by the interests, roles, and strategies of the agents. The structure of the affordable housing market affects how its agents act, either by allowing or restricting their actions. The outcomes of the affordable housing market are determined by its structure, and the interactions between its actors ultimately determine the location, density, integration, and affordability of housing in this market (Musvoto & Mooya, 2018).

Income inequality theory posits that income disparities are a significant determinant of housing affordability (Piketty, 2014; Wetzstein, 2017). Income levels can vary drastically among residents in urban centers such as Cape Town. Those with higher incomes have a more favorable position to afford housing at market rates, while those with lower incomes struggle to keep pace with the rising housing costs. This income divide creates a housing market, in which affordability is a critical issue for many households. As income inequality persists and housing costs continue to rise, lower and middle-income households are disproportionately affected. Income inequality leads to varying housing demands among different income groups. Wealthier individuals with higher real incomes may seek higher-quality housing, whereas those with stagnant or declining incomes may be limited to modest-quality options. This variation in demand can further strain the housing market, affecting affordability for specific segments of the population. Income inequality theory complements housing affordability as a multifaceted issue influenced by economic factors, government policies, markets, and demographic factors.

Similarly, agglomeration theory suggests that migration to larger cities, often driven by increased productivity and better economic opportunities, can lead to higher housing demand. It also touches on spatial competition within cities. People and firms compete for spaces in well-located areas that offer proximity to economic opportunities and amenities. This competition can drive property values and housing prices in certain parts of a city, making housing less affordable for specific income groups. It also acknowledges the importance of public amenities and locations in urban areas, suggesting that public investment in infrastructure, transportation, and services can contribute to property price appreciation. This resonates with the emphasis on public amenities and locations as factors influencing housing affordability, particularly in well-located and well-serviced areas.

This section contributes significantly to addressing the second objective of this thesis: to assess the impact of internal migration on housing shortages and affordability in Cape Town. It comprehensively explores the multifaceted nature of housing affordability issues influenced by a range of factors such as economic conditions, government policies, market dynamics, and social demographics. It highlights the challenges faced by internal migrants as they seek prosperity, emphasizing the tension between the booming economy and accessibility of housing options. Furthermore, it discusses how the influx of internal migrants has placed strain on municipal services, leading to issues such as overcrowding and housing backlogs. The data presented from

various sources, such as RPPI, CAHF, and NIDS, reveal a growing internal migration pattern and reduced housing affordability in Cape Town. This demonstrates that increasing housing costs are indicative of affordable housing challenges in the city.

Moreover, it addresses the impact of income inequality on housing affordability, aligning with the thesis objective of highlighting how income disparities can significantly affect the ability of lower- and middle-income households to afford housing. Agglomeration theory reinforces the connection between internal migration and housing demand, emphasizing that migration to larger cities can lead to higher housing demand and spatial competition, contributing to housing price appreciation in specific areas.

While offering shelter, informal settlements often lack basic amenities, security, and living conditions. This underscores the critical need for a holistic approach to urban planning and housing policies that address affordable housing crises. Balancing the demands of internal migration, housing availability, and affordability requires strategic and collaborative effort. Policymakers, urban planners, and community stakeholders must join forces to create more inclusive landscapes. In the next section, we present recommendations for this study.

4.7 Conclusion

This chapter reveals key insights that clarify the complex relationship between internal migration, housing scarcity, and affordability in Cape Town, South Africa. The findings highlight how urbanization significantly shapes a city's housing situation. Data from the Residential Property Price Index (RPPI), the Centre for Affordable Housing Finance (CAHF), and the National Income Dynamics Study (NIDS), show how the rising costs of housing in Cape Town are closely linked to the challenge of providing affordable homes, thereby providing more answers and correlation to the first and second objective of the thesis. This complex interplay among migration, housing demand, and affordability requires a comprehensive approach that aligns urban planning and housing policies to ensure a balanced and inclusive growth trajectory. The next chapter provides conclusions and recommendations for the study.

CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

The previous chapter thoroughly examined the research findings concerning the complex relationship between internal migration patterns and their impact on housing availability and affordability in Cape Town, South Africa's urban context. It is essential to emphasize that the core objective of this study was to gain a deep and nuanced understanding of these multifaceted connections. Data from respected sources such as the Residential Property Price Index (RPPI), the Centre for Affordable Housing Finance (CAHF), and the National Income Dynamics Study (NIDS) were utilized to highlight the critical role of urbanization in shaping Cape Town's housing landscape. The results showed a clear link between rising housing costs in the city and the challenge of providing affordable housing options.

This chapter provides conclusions and recommendations based on the findings of this study. In addition, there are suggestions for potential areas for future research.

5.2 Conclusion

Internal migration spurred by better economic prospects and the promise of an improved life has led to a significant population surge in Cape Town. The move from rural to urban areas has strained the city's resources and infrastructure, creating a pressing housing shortage, particularly for those with lower incomes. In the context of internal migration, housing shortages, and affordability in Cape Town, South Africa, it is crucial to acknowledge the broader historical and legislative background that frames this complex issue. South Africa inherited a legacy of inequalities and injustices, including unequal land distribution, from the apartheid era. In response, the government introduced various legislations and policies to address housing shortages and availability, recognizing housing as a fundamental human right under the 1996 South African Constitution. Despite these efforts, providing affordable housing, particularly for low-income citizens, remains a persistent challenge.

With the United Nations projecting that by 2030 71.3% of South Africa's population will reside in urban areas, this study examined the complex relationship between internal migration, housing

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shortages, and affordability in Cape Town. Using data from RPPI, CAHFTA, and NIDS, the findings reveal the significant impact of internal migration on urbanization, housing demand, and social inequalities in the city. Several factors, including a strong economy, internal migration trends, and thriving tourism sector, have contributed to this phenomenon. Property values have surged, making Cape Town's housing market the largest and most expensive of South Africa's major cities.

Additionally, this study highlights that Cape Town attracts many internal migrants, creating challenges for infrastructure, services, job markets, and affordable housing. The rise of short-term rentals such as Airbnb further inflated property prices and influenced the housing market. These findings emphasize the importance of understanding housing affordability and pricing in the unique context of Cape Town. They also revealed that while the city's population has grown significantly, the number of residential properties has not kept pace. Rental households are common and housing affordability is a significant concern.

Addressing these challenges requires a comprehensive approach, including policy reforms, infrastructure development, and commitment to ensuring housing for all residents. By implementing these strategies, Cape Town can create a more equitable and inclusive urban environment for both the current and new residents.

In the following section, we present recommendations and propose areas for future research, drawing from the key findings, suggestions, and conclusions of this study.

5.3 Recommendations

In response to the pressing challenges posed by internal migration and its impact on housing affordability in Cape Town, a series of targeted recommendations are proposed. These recommendations encompass a holistic approach, aiming to address housing shortages and related issues while fostering a more inclusive and sustainable urban environment. By implementing these measures, Cape Town can take significant steps towards mitigating the effects of internal migration and enhancing the overall quality of life of its residents.

5.3.1. Encourage Private Sector Engagement and Collaboration

This study revealed that the responsibility for developing sustainable affordable housing has predominantly fallen on the public sector, non-governmental organizations, and low-profit entities,

with minimal engagement from the private sector. The City of Cape Town and the South African government in general should encourage the development of affordable housing by providing incentives as a strategy to attract private sector investors and developers to participate in affordable housing projects. These strategies could include creating incentives, tax breaks, or partnerships that make affordable housing projects more financially viable for private companies for private sector involvement. Collaboration between the public and private sectors can lead to more affordable housing projects and a diversified housing market, which will influence the expansion of various housing options, including affordable housing units within the city. Promoting mixed-income neighborhoods will also ensure that residents from various income groups have access to decent housing. While promoting public-private partnerships, it is essential to uphold stringent quality assurance standards. Consequently, the government should establish and enforce rigorous quality regulations for all housing initiatives. This ensures that affordable housing units adhere to international standards of adequacy, offering secure and comfortable living environments.

Considering the duration, it takes for a township application process and housing project to pass from inception to completion. The government should spur private sector participation through a review and optimize government-subsidized housing programs to make them more efficient in allocating housing to citizens. The reduction of administrative bottlenecks and delays in the application and allocation process will improve access to affordable housing, help expedite housing development, lower delivery costs, and expand the pool of affordable housing options. One potential reform is to decentralize the land approval processes for housing purposes in South Africa, shifting responsibility from the central government to local authorities. This would empower local governments with greater authority and autonomy to accelerate land administration procedures, particularly for low-income housing initiatives.

5.3.2 Infrastructural Investment and Development

The rapid influx of migrants and population growth in Cape Town can be attributed to its abundant economic opportunities and high quality of life. Rural areas often lack essential infrastructure, hindering residents' ability to prosper and prompt their migration to urban centers equipped with modernized amenities, including education, healthcare, communication, and transportation systems. To address this issue, the South African government should augment public investment and prioritize rural infrastructure development to counter rural-to-urban migration. Likewise, in

response to the expanding population, the government should devise urban planning strategies that combine affordable housing with upgraded public transportation and vital amenities, such as sanitation facilities and healthcare services. By doing so, it can alleviate pressure on infrastructure, improve the overall quality of life, and enhance accessibility to opportunities. This approach aims to enhance the overall appeal of specific regions, while simultaneously expanding housing affordability.

5.3.3 Data Collection, Monitoring and Evaluation of Trends

Data plays a pivotal role in comprehending the scale and characteristics of internal migration and housing shortages in Cape Town. To effectively address these issues, the government should focus on gathering migration and demographic information, including income levels, family size, and special needs, for the population affected by housing shortages. These data aid in quantifying both the quantity and quality of housing deficits in specific areas, allowing for precise understanding of the most acute shortages. Establishing a robust monitoring system is essential for tracking trends such as migration and inadequate services over time. This system can illuminate whether housing shortages are worsening or improving and whether specific demographic groups bear a disproportionate burden. Additionally, it sheds light on the influence of government policies and economic factors. Armed with this data and trend analysis, the government can make informed, evidence-based policy decisions. It also facilitates the efficient allocation of resources, enabling the prioritization of new housing developments or interventions in areas where they are most needed. Furthermore, data provides a mechanism for assessing the effectiveness of implemented housing solutions through ongoing monitoring and evaluation.

5.4 Suggestions for Future Research

The primary goal of this study is to gain a comprehensive understanding of how internal migration impacts housing shortages and affordability in Cape Town. Throughout the study, it was evident that there were areas warranting further investigation.

First, there is a pressing need for a study that delves into the effects of short-term rental platforms such as Airbnb on the housing market, affordability, and local communities of Cape Town. Such research is crucial to ensure that the city's housing market maintains equity, affordability, and sustainability, while effectively managing the economic opportunities presented by tourism and

the sharing economy. Given Cape Town's substantial dependence on its tourism sector, it is imperative to strike a balance between economic gain and housing considerations.

Conducting comparative studies with other South African cities and international urban centers grappling with similar challenges is essential. This comparative analysis enables Cape Town to draw lessons and best practices from the experiences of other cities, gather valuable insights into successful strategies, and foster collaboration in the pursuit of sustainable solutions to housing, affordability, and urban development issues.

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