

1: Concentrated poverty - Wikipedia

The Causes and Consequences of Concentrated Urban Poverty that an increase in the spatial concentration of attention to changes in its spatial organization.

History[edit] The Invention of the Measure[edit] There have long been areas of concentrated poverty, and the distinct social problems of concentrated poverty, which exacerbate individual impoverishment have been the grounds of reform movements and studies since the mid-19th Century. However, the measure of concentrated poverty and the coalescence around an analytical conception of concentrated poverty occurred only in the 1960s. In most cases, these poor inner city locations were populated predominantly by minorities, and many featured large public housing developments. The definition for "low-income areas" first developed by the Bureau of the Census as part of its work for the newly established Office of Economic Opportunity, a new bureaucracy designed to administer most of the War on Poverty Programs created as a part of Lyndon B. Johnson's Great Society. The original definition was formed through an attribute-based criterion. The lowest quartile from the rankings were then designated "low income. Another measure of concentrated poverty used for larger geographical areas was later developed by Paul Jargowsky. His rate expresses the proportion of all poor individuals in a certain area. In this work, Wilson utilizes concentrated poverty as an analytic measure to gauge the changing spatial organization and intensification of poverty, as a territorial category to designate an object of analysis, and also as a causal factor in and of itself, effecting life chances among the poor. All three of these conceptualizations have since served as the basis for a wide range of social science research as well as policy interventions and prescriptions. The measure is used to compare degree of poverty concentration between areas and the growth or decline in the number of tracts that fit this qualification in a given city, region, or country. In both cases, the overall discussion has questioned the use of a bureaucratic category designed to facilitate the routine collection of statistics and the determination of eligibility of public assistance, geared to managerial concerns of the state as being unfit for capturing urban social structures and strategies. Criticisms of the poverty threshold are legion, [7] the most salient being the inability to fully consider the needs of different family types. At the same time, the 40 percent benchmark used by the census and scholars to define concentrated poverty does not refer to any adequately specified objective or subjective criteria. Here we see that the use of the threshold is justified on the basis of a general personal impressions and impressions of city officials rather than any rigorous objective criteria. For instance, Massey and Eggers contend that a relative indicator based on segregation is more rigorous and meaningful, claiming that ". They also argue that the term has become conflated with "areas of social problems" and argue that the concept should be unhooked from behavioral definitions and stigma. Territorial Category[edit] As a territorial category, areas of concentrated poverty have become both key targets of place specific policy interventions as well as the object of analysis for comparative studies in policy research and the social sciences. Several critiques have been raised against this territorial category of "concentrated poverty. A Systematic field observations in various inner-city areas reveals that census tracts are poor proxies of what residents construe and construct as neighborhoods in their daily routines. This reference was first made by Bane and Jargowsky and William Julius Wilson see above, and scholars increasingly conflate the two, which Wacquant claims camouflages the constitutive role of ethnoracial domination in the ghetto and hyperghetto. Wacquant claims that this income-based notion of the ghetto is "ostensibly deracialized" and largely a product of policy-gearred research fearful of the "strict taboo that weighs on segregation in the political sphere". Causal Factor[edit] As explored more fully in the section on effects, concentrated poverty has increasingly been recognized as a "causal factor" in compounding the effects of poverty by isolating residents in these neighborhoods from networks and resources useful to realize human potential. This isolation makes it much more difficult for those who are looking for jobs to be tied into the job network and also generates behavior not conducive to good work histories. This goes against the theory of a "culture of poverty," which implies that basic values and attitudes of the ghetto subculture have been internalized and places a strong emphasis on the autonomous character of the cultural traits once they come into existence. For Wilson, concentrated poverty was a link between structural factors and social

behaviors produced through "concentration effects", however, much subsequent policy and scholarly research have ignored these deeper causes of concentrated poverty itself. According to Agnew, "One can start out using spatial concepts as shorthand for complex sociological processes but slip easily into substituting the spatial concepts for the more complex argument. Racial Discrimination and Segregation: Blacks were discriminated against far more severely in the early twentieth century than were the new white immigrants. Through restrictive covenants, municipal policies, and federal housing programs, blacks, unlike other immigrant groups, were forced into particular areas inner cities. At the same time blacks were discriminated far more severely than other groups in the labor market making them disproportionately poor and concentrated in low-paying jobs, particularly in the industrial sector. Collectively these forms of racial and spatial discrimination laid the basis for most areas of contemporary concentrated poverty. As mentioned above, because blacks were concentrated in the low-wage sector of the economy due to discrimination and prejudice, they are more adversely affected by impersonal economic shifts in advanced industrial society. Their heavy concentration in the automobile, rubber, steel, and other smokestack industries meant that they were particularly hit hard by deindustrialization occurring in US cities from the 70s onward. In other words, minorities, particularly poor and working-class minorities, are not only adversely affected by periodic recessions, they are also vulnerable to the structural economic changes in the past two decades because of economic cutbacks, plant closings, and relocation of firms to cheaper labor sites in the suburbs. Increasing Gap between Skilled and Unskilled Workers: Many of the new jobs that emerged in the posts economy have been disproportionately in the service and knowledge sectors. These sectors are marked by large inequalities in wages, and has lowered the average income of households compared to those that had held better paying industrial jobs in the past see Working Poor Spatial Mismatch: With the expansion of the suburbs, economic growth shifted from the inner cities to the suburbs. The inner city poor were largely cut off from taking advantage of these new opportunities due to their spatial distance. A large scale migration of wealthier whites from the inner city occurred with the construction of the federal highway system and expansion of federal mortgage programs. These patterns were also driven by increased fears and anxieties of minority populations. This increased the proportion of both poor and black people in urban populations while eroding municipal tax bases, leading toward a downward spiral in the provision of public services as well as job opportunities and economic development. Flight of the Black Middle Class: As the civil rights movement ended racial restrictions on federal housing loans and programs, and opened up limited opportunities for black mobility, many of the better-off blacks in inner cities moved to mixed neighborhoods or satellite suburbs. This increased the proportion of poor within the ghetto and also weakened civic institutions and investment in the local economy. Changes in the Age Structure: In the years concentrated poverty was increasing so was the proportion of African American youth in central cities. This younger demographic balance in minority neighborhoods contributes to rises in crime, out-of-wedlock birth, unemployment, and other factors associated with poverty. Changes in Family Structure: Furthermore, several studies have shown that women, particularly, single-mothers are disproportionately poor to a number of factors see Feminization of Poverty Effects[edit] Several recent studies have pointed to the role of "neighborhood effects" caused by concentrated poverty. These studies have illustrated that crime and delinquency, education, psychological distress, and various health problems, among many other issues, are affected by neighborhood characteristics, particularly the concentration of poverty. Thresholds, or tipping points , also prove important. Using data from the largest U. The study also found negative effects on the better-off children raised in such areas, as well. While initial research failed to isolate the direct effects of "concentrated poverty" in and of itself, more recent work has shifted to identifying the mechanisms that matter. Rather than focusing solely on the socio-economic characteristics of neighborhoods, this scholarship to examining the social-interactive and institutional aspects produced through concentrated poverty. Below is an overview of these effects and mechanisms. Relevant discussion may be found on the talk page. Please help improve this article by introducing citations to additional sources. May From George C. Galster, "The Mechanism s of Neighborhood Effects: Theory, Evidence, and Policy Implications. Social Interactive Effects[edit] This set of mechanisms refers to social processes endogenous to neighborhoods. Behaviors, aspirations, and attitudes may be changed by contact with

peers who are neighbors. Individuals may be encouraged to conform to local social norms conveyed by neighborhood role models and other social pressures. This socialization effect is characterized by a minimum threshold or critical mass being achieved before a norm can produce noticeable consequences for others in the neighborhood. Individuals may be influenced by the interpersonal communication of information and resources of various kinds transmitted through neighbors. This mechanism suggests that residents who have achieved some socioeconomic success will be a source of disamenities for their less-well off neighbors. All of these, in turn, may affect the home environment in which children are raised. As in the case of social-interactive mechanism, the environmental category can also assume distinct forms: If people sense that their property or person is in danger they may suffer psychological and physical responses that may impair their functioning or sensed well-being. These consequences are likely to be even more pronounced if the person has been victimized. Decayed physical conditions of the built environment e. Certain neighborhoods may have little accessibility in either spatial proximity or as mediated by transportation networks to job opportunities appropriate to the skills of their residents, thereby restricting their employment opportunities. Some neighborhoods may be located within local political jurisdictions that offer inferior public services and facilities because of their limited tax base resources, incompetence, corruption, or other operational challenges. These, in turn, may adversely affect the personal development and educational opportunities of residents. Neighborhoods may be stigmatized on the basis of public stereotypes held by powerful institutional or private actors about its current residents. Such stigma may reduce the opportunities and perceptions of residents of stigmatized areas in a variety of ways, such as job opportunities and self-esteem. The lack of same may adversely affect the personal development opportunities of residents. There may be substantial spatial variations in the prevalence of certain private market actors that may encourage or discourage certain behaviors by neighborhood residents, such as liquor stores, fresh food markets, fast food restaurants, and illegal drug markets. Because the measure was not used in the US census until , the first time trends of poverty concentration were studied systematically was after the release of the census. Sociologist William Julius Wilson found that during the s, 1 poverty increased dramatically throughout metropolitan areas of the United States; 2 at the same time, the number of poor people residing within these areas increased; and 3 this exacerbation of poverty conditions occurred primarily within African American neighborhoods. Several scholars would go on to affirm that in the s America saw a dramatic increase in the number of neighborhoods that classified as areas of concentrated poverty [26] This trend extended to a lesser extent in the s, as the number of neighborhoods qualifying as areas of "extreme poverty" continued to increase, but at a slower rate than it had throughout the s. In both decades between "1970-1980", the differential between the poverty rates of central cities and their suburbs increased, reflecting an increasing spatial concentration of MSA poverty within central cities. Although concentrated poverty increased among blacks, Hispanics , and whites throughout s, increases were far more dramatic among blacks, followed by Hispanics, and then to a much lesser extent whites. The steepest declines in high-poverty neighborhoods occurred in metropolitan areas in the Midwest and South. The share of the poor living in high-poverty neighborhoods declined among all racial and ethnic groups. This was especially the case for African Americans , wherein the share of poor black individuals living in high-poverty neighborhoods declined from 30 percent in to 19 percent in This decline of high-poverty neighborhoods occurred in rural areas and central cities, but suburbs experienced almost no change. Between and "1980-1990", the population in extremely poor neighborhoods climbed by more than one-third, from 6. The share of poor people living in these sorts of neighborhoods, and thus confronting the "double burden" of their own poverty and the poverty of those around them, grew from 9. This poverty not only affected inner cities, but continued to spread into the suburbs, extending the suburbanization trend of concentrated poverty first noted in the s. Furthermore, the study found that the concentrated poverty rate of was approaching its all-time high, estimating that the concentrated poverty rate in U. This has been done in three ways. Because federal housing policy was a compounding factor of concentrated between "1970-1980", through the construction of large public housing complexes the new policies aim at reversing these earlier trends. Mobility Programs[edit] The Moving To Opportunity MTO program, authorized in , was a pilot program that provided Section 8 vouchers to residents of public housing so that they could move out of public housing and into lower-poverty

neighborhoods. The program was modeled on the Gautreaux program in Chicago, which provided vouchers to black public housing residents so that they could move into more integrated neighborhoods. The Gautreaux program had clearer and stronger results than MTO.

2: Urbanization and its implications for food and farming

In the context of changing socio-spatial structure in urban China, we examine the spatial features of poverty concentration in neighbourhoods and especially analyse its creation mechanism from the perspective of urban development policy and housing provision.

While the Government Office for Science commissioned this review, the views are those of the author s , are independent of Government, and do not constitute Government policy. This article has been cited by other articles in PMC. Abstract This paper discusses the influences on food and farming of an increasingly urbanized world and a declining ratio of food producers to food consumers. Urbanization has been underpinned by the rapid growth in the world economy and in the proportion of gross world product and of workers in industrial and service enterprises. Globally, agriculture has met the demands from this rapidly growing urban population, including food that is more energy-, land-, water- and greenhouse gas emission-intensive. But hundreds of millions of urban dwellers suffer under-nutrition. So the key issues with regard to agriculture and urbanization are whether the growing and changing demands for agricultural products from growing urban populations can be sustained while at the same time underpinning agricultural prosperity and reducing rural and urban poverty. To this are added the need to reduce greenhouse gas emissions and to build resilience in agriculture and urban development to climate change impacts.

Introduction a Key global changes In , worldwide, there were 6. This has been underpinned by the rapid growth in the world economy and in the proportion of gross world product and of the economically active population working in industry and services since most industrial and service enterprises are in urban areas. Globally, agricultural production has managed to meet the demands from a rapid growth in the proportion of the workforce not producing food and rapid changes in food demands towards more energy- and greenhouse gas emission-intensive food. However, hundreds of millions of urban dwellers face under-nutrition today, although this is far more related to their lack of income than to a lack of capacity to produce food. Less attention has been given to two other transitions: In addition, the figure might be higher if the value of food produced by rural and urban dwellers for their own consumption is taken into account. It is likely that the proportion of the global population not producing food will continue to grow, as will the number of middle and upper income consumers whose dietary choices are more energy- and greenhouse gas emission-intensive and often more land-intensive and where such changes in demand also bring major changes in agriculture and in the supply chain. Two key demographic changes currently under way and likely to continue in the next few decades are the decline in population growth rates and the ageing of the population. Most urbanization is the result of net rural to urban migration. The level of urbanization is the share itself, and the rate of urbanization is the rate at which that share is changing. This definition makes the implications of urbanization distinct from those of urban population growth or those of the physical expansion of urban areas, both of which are often treated as synonymous with urbanization. Nations with rapid economic growth and relatively low rates of natural increase such as China over the past few decades have most of their urban population growth from urbanization; nations with little or no economic growth and high rates of natural increase including many sub-Saharan African nations during the s have most of their urban population growth from natural increase see Potts Differences in rural and urban rates of natural increase influenced by differences in fertility and mortality rates also influence urbanization, although generally these act to reduce urbanization. The term urbanization is also used for the expansion of urban land uses. The conventional definition for urbanization used in this paper entails a shift in settlement patterns from dispersed to more dense settlement. By way of contrast, much of the expansion of urban land use is the result of a shift from dense to more dispersed settlement. In effect, the term urbanization is being used to refer to two opposing spatial shifts in settlement patterns, likely to have opposing effects on, for example, the land available for agriculture. Yet, no nation has prospered without urbanization and there is no prosperous nation that is not predominantly urban. Urban areas provide many potential advantages for improving living conditions through the economies of scale and proximity they provide for most forms of infrastructure and services. This can be seen in the high life

expectancies evident in the best governed European, Asian and North and South American cities. Urbanization over the past two centuries has also been associated with pro-poor social reforms in which collective organization by the urban poor has had important roles Mitlin But there are still very serious development problems in many urban areas, including high levels of urban poverty and serious problems of food security and of high infant and child mortality. But it is not urbanization that is the cause of such problems but the inadequacies in the response by governments and international agencies. In most nations, the pace of economic and urban change has outstripped the pace of needed social and political reform, especially at local government level. The consequences of this are evident in most cities in Asia and Africa and many in Latin America and the Caribbean—the high proportion of the population living in very poor and overcrowded conditions in informal settlements or tenements lacking adequate provision for water, sanitation, drainage, healthcare, schools and the rule of law. This is evident even in cities where there has been very rapid economic growth. Here too there were problems of under-nutrition, lack of education and serious problems with exploitation, as well as deeply entrenched discrimination against women in almost all aspects of life. It was social and political reforms that dramatically reduced these. And social and political reforms are addressing these in many middle-income nations today—as in Thailand, Brazil and Tunisia where housing and living conditions, basic service provision and nutritional standards have improved considerably for large sections of the low-income urban population. But these urban statistics tell us nothing about the large economic, social, political and demographic changes that underpinned them. Although rapid urbanization is seen as a problem, generally, the more urbanized a nation, the higher the average life expectancy and the literacy rate and the stronger the democracy, especially at local level. Of course, beyond all these quantitative measures, cities are also centres of culture, of heritage, of social, cultural and political innovation. It is also important not to overstate the speed of urban change. Rates of urbanization and of urban population growth slowed in most sub-regions of the world during the s. Mexico City had 18 million people in , not the 31 million predicted 25 years previously. Kolkata formerly Calcutta , Sao Paulo, Rio de Janeiro, Seoul, Chennai formerly Madras and Cairo are among the many other large cities that, by , had several million fewer inhabitants than had been predicted. Derived from statistics in United Nations

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Concentrated poverty refers to a spatial density of socio-economic deprivation. In the US, it is commonly used in fields of policy and scholarship in reference to areas of "extreme" or "high-poverty" defined by the US census as areas with "40 percent of the tract population living below the federal poverty threshold."

Economics and Urban Areas. Introduction to Urban Economics. Schools of Thought in Urban Economics. The Economic Functions of Cities. Location Patterns in Urban Areas. Introduction to Urban Location Patterns: Using the Monocentric City Model. Empirical Testing of the Monocentric City Model. Urban Housing and Real Estate. Housing in Urban Areas. Housing Policy in the United States. Real Estate Law and Institutions. Real Estate Development and Investment. Government in Urban Areas. The Public Sector in Urban Areas. An Overview of Urban Social Problems. Urban Poverty and Its Spatial Concentration. Crime in Urban Areas. Education, Labor Markets, and Migration. Models of Metropolitan Economic Growth. Economic Development Policies for Urban Areas. Answers to Selected Exercises. Extensive international examples from Europe and Asia interspersed throughout the text. New chapter on An Urbanizing World and Its Great Cities New chapter on Urban Infrastructure Provides a comprehensive approach to the economic factors that both define and affect modern urban areas, considering the economics of cities as a whole, rather than separating them into isolated topics Analyzes topics such as urban housing, real estate markets, growth, and social and policy issues, and how these affect the economic functioning of a city Includes in-depth discussions of real estate markets and policy issues Considers the changing role of the city in economic life, and the effects of social problems, such as crime, poverty, and education that often accompany these changes Offers a dedicated author-hosted website containing supplemental material at <http://>

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