

DOWNLOAD PDF RESIDENTIAL CIRCUMSTANCES OF THE URBAN POOR IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

Chapter 1 : - NLM Catalog Result

The Residential Circumstances Of The Urban Poor In Developing Countries Smart growth wikipedia, smart growth is an urban planning and transportation.

Recent census data used whenever possible; if none available, an estimate by the city government or a local research group has been used. Rural and City Populations the Assessment. Other data from Jorge E. Hardoy and David Satterthwaite, Shelter: Need and Response Chichester, UK: The Crisis in Third World Cities 9. Few city governments in the developing world have the power, resources, and trained staff to provide their rapidly growing populations with the land, services, and facilities needed for an adequate human life: The result is mushrooming illegal settlements with primitive facilities, increased overcrowding, and rampant disease linked to an unhealthy environment. Box Dominating Cities Nairobi, Kenya: In , Nairobi contained around 5 per cent of the national population. In , it contained around 13 per cent of the national population. The metropolitan area of Lima accounts for 43 per cent of gross domestic product, for four-fifths of bank credit and consumer goods production, and for more than nine-tenths of capital goods production in Peru. In , it was home to around 21 per cent of Peruvians. It contains only some 5 per cent of the national population. In , with some 24 per cent of Mexicans living there, the capital contained 30 per cent of the manufacturing jobs, 28 per cent of employment in commerce, 38 per cent of jobs in services, 69 per cent of employment in national government, 62 per cent of national investment in higher education, and 80 per cent of research activities. In , it contained 44 per cent of national bank deposits and 61 per cent of national credits. In most Third World cities, the enormous pressure for shelter and services has frayed the urban fabric. Much of the housing used by the poor is decrepit. Civic buildings are frequently in a state of disrepair and advanced decay. So too is the essential infrastructure of the city; public transport is overcrowded and overused, as are roads, buses and trains, transport stations, public latrines, and washing points. Water supply systems leak, and the resulting low water pressure allows sewage to seep into drinking water. Third World cities are and they will increasingly become centres of competition for a plot to be invaded where you can build a shelter, for a room to rent, for a bed in a hospital, for a seat in a school or in a bus, essentially for the fewer stable adequately paid jobs, even for the space in a square or on a sidewalk where you can display and sell your merchandise, on which so many households depend. The people themselves organize and help construct most new housing units in Third World cities and they do so without the assistance from architects, planners, and engineers, nor from local or national governments. Furthermore, in many cases, national and local governments are frequently harassing these groups. The people themselves are becoming increasingly the true builders and designers of Third World cities and quite often the managers of their own districts. A growing number of the urban poor suffer from a high incidence of diseases; most are environmentally based and could be prevented or dramatically reduced through relatively small investments. Acute respiratory diseases, tuberculosis, intestinal parasites, and diseases linked to poor sanitation and contaminated drinking water diarrhoea, dysentery, hepatitis, and typhoid are usually endemic; they are one of the major causes of illness and death, especially among children. In parts of many cities, poor people can expect to see one in four of their children die of serious malnutrition before the age of five, or one adult in two suffering intestinal worms or serious respiratory infections. Air and water pollution might be assumed to be less pressing in Third World cities because of lower levels of industrial development. But in fact hundreds of such cities have high concentrations of industry. Air, water, noise, and solid waste pollution problems have increased rapidly and can have dramatic impacts on the life and health of city inhabitants, on their economy, and on jobs. Many slums and shanties crowd close to hazardous industries, as this is land no one else wants. This proximity has magnified the risks for the poor, a fact demonstrated by great loss of life and human suffering in various recent industrial accidents. On the river Ganges, cities each with 50, or more inhabitants dump untreated sewage into the river every day. DDT factories, tanneries, paper and pulp mills, petrochemical and fertilizer complexes, rubber

DOWNLOAD PDF RESIDENTIAL CIRCUMSTANCES OF THE URBAN POOR IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

factories, and a host of others use the river to get rid of their wastes. The Hoogly estuary near Calcutta is choked with untreated industrial wastes from more than major factories around Calcutta. Chinese industries, most of which use coal in outdated furnaces and boilers, are concentrated around 20 cities and ensure a high level of air pollution. Lung cancer mortality in Chinese cities is four to seven times higher than in the nation as a whole, and the difference is largely attributable to heavy air pollution. In Malaysia, the highly urbanized Klang Valley which includes the capital, Kuala Lumpur has two to three times the pollution levels of major cities in the United States, and the Klang river system is heavily contaminated with agricultural and industrial effluents and sewage. Environmental Degradation in China London: The uncontrolled physical expansion of cities has also had serious implications for the urban environment and economy. Uncontrolled development makes provision of housing, roads, water supply, sewers, and public services prohibitively expensive. Cities are often built on the most productive agricultural land, and unguided growth results in the unnecessary loss of this land. Such losses are most serious in nations with limited arable land, such as Egypt. Haphazard development also consumes land and natural landscapes needed for urban parks and recreation areas. Once an area is built up, it is both difficult and expensive to re-create open space. In general, urban growth has often preceded the establishment of a solid, diversified economic base to support the build-up of housing, infrastructure, and employment. In many places, the problems are linked to inappropriate patterns of industrial development and the lack of coherence between strategies for agricultural and urban development. The link between national economies and international economic factors has been discussed in Part I of this report. The world economic crisis of the s has not only reduced incomes, increased unemployment, and eliminated many social programmes, it has also exacerbated the already low priority given to urban problems, increasing the chronic shortfall in resources needed to build, maintain, and manage urban areas. The Situation in Industrial World Cities Many have a global reach and draw their resources and energy from distant lands, with enormous aggregate impacts on the ecosystems of those lands. Nor is the emphasis on Third World cities meant to imply that problems within the cities of industrialized countries are not serious. Many face problems of deteriorating infrastructure, environmental degradation, inner-city decay, and neighbourhood collapse. The unemployed, the elderly, and racial and ethnic minorities can remain trapped in a downward spiral of degradation and poverty, as job opportunities and the younger and better-educated individuals leave declining neighbourhoods. City or municipal governments often face a legacy of poorly designed and maintained public housing estates, mounting costs, and declining tax bases. But most industrial countries have the means and resources to tackle inner-city decay and linked economic decline. Indeed, many have succeeded in reversing these trends through enlightened policies, cooperation between the public and private sectors, and significant investments in personnel, institutions, and technological innovation. This gives them a capacity to manage, control, experiment, and lead urban development. In centrally planned economies, the ability to plan and implement plans for urban development has been significant. The priority given to collective goods over private consumption may also have increased the resources available for urban development. The physical environment in many cities of the industrial world has improved substantially over the decades. According to the historical records of many major centres - like London, Paris, Chicago, Moscow, and Melbourne - it was not too long ago that a major part of their population lived in desperate circumstances amid gross pollution. Conditions have improved steadily during the past century, and this trend continues, although the pace varies between and within cities. Large cities by definition are centralized, manmade environments that depend mainly on food, water, energy, and other goods from outside. Smaller cities, by contrast, can be the heart of community-based development and provide services to the surrounding countryside. Given the importance of cities, special efforts, and safeguards are needed to ensure that the resources they demand are produced sustainably and that urban dwellers participate in decisions affecting their lives. Residential areas are likely to be more habitable if they are governed as individual neighbourhoods with direct local participation. To the extent that energy and other needs can be met on a local basis, both the city and surrounding areas will be better off. In most urban areas, almost everyone is served by refuse collection today. Air quality has generally

DOWNLOAD PDF RESIDENTIAL CIRCUMSTANCES OF THE URBAN POOR IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

improved, with a decline in the emission of particles and sulphur oxides. Efforts to restore water quality have met with a mixed record of success because of pollution from outside of cities, notably nitrates and other fertilizers and pesticides. Many coastal areas, however, close to major sewage outlets, show considerable deterioration. There is rising concern about chemical pollutants in drinking water and about the impacts of toxic wastes on groundwater quality. And noise pollution has tended to increase. Motor vehicles greatly influence environmental conditions in the cities of the industrial world. A recent slowdown in the growth rate of vehicle numbers, stricter emission standards for new vehicles, the distribution of lead-free gasoline, improvements in fuel efficiency, improved traffic management policies, and landscaping have all helped reduce the impacts of urban traffic. Public opinion has played a critical role in the drive to improve urban conditions. In some cities, public pressure has triggered the abandonment of massive urban development projects, fostered residential schemes on a more human scale, countered indiscriminate demolition of existing buildings and historic districts, modified proposed urban highway construction, and led to transformation of derelict plots into playgrounds. The problems that remain are serious but they affect relatively limited areas, which makes them much more tractable than those of Cairo or Mexico City, for example. Certain aspects of urban decline even provide opportunities for environmental enhancement. The exodus of population and economic activities, while creating severe economic and social difficulties, reduces urban congestion, allows new uses for abandoned buildings, protects historic urban districts from the threat of speculative demolition and reconstruction, and contributes to urban renewal. The de-industrialization of these cities is often counterbalanced by the growth of the services sector, which brings its own problems. But this trend creates opportunities to remove heavy industrial pollution sources from residential and commercial areas. The combination of advanced technology, stronger national economies, and a developed institutional infrastructure give resilience and the potential for continuing recovery to cities in the industrial world. With flexibility, space for manoeuvre, and innovation by local leadership, the issue for industrial countries is ultimately one of political and social choice. Developing countries are not in the same situation. They have a major urban crisis on their hands. *The Urban Challenge in Developing Countries* Internationally, the major cities of the world constitute a network for the allocation of investment and for the production and sale of most goods and services. These centres are the first to be plugged into this network, through air- and seaports and telecommunications. New technologies usually arrive and are first put into practice in large and then smaller cities. Only if centres are firmly connected to this network can they hope to attract investment in technologies and manufacturing goods for world markets. Nationally, cities are veritable incubators of economic activities. Some enterprises are large-scale but the vast majority are small, doing everything from selling snack foods to mending shoes and building houses. The growth of these activities is the foundation of the domestic economy. *National Urban Strategies* The natural evolution of this network of settlements, however, has caused apprehension in most developing countries. Of particular concern has been the phenomenal growth of often one or two major cities.

DOWNLOAD PDF RESIDENTIAL CIRCUMSTANCES OF THE URBAN POOR IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

Chapter 2 : Rental Housing:

*Residential Circumstances of the Urban Poor in Developing Countries [United Nations: Centre for Human Settlements] on blog.quintoapp.com *FREE* shipping on qualifying offers.*

Socio-economic problems facing cities in sub-saharan Africa: Employment is particularly hard to find for unskilled rural migrants. Large numbers of school leavers of both rural and urban origin remain unemployed for many years after graduation. Some of these unemployed people find shelter with and depend on relatives. Others survive through engagement in the informal economy Obeng-Odoom This growing group becomes part of the urban poor. Urban poverty has many dimensions and causes. Its main characteristics are deprivation and exclusion. In the anonymous and impersonal setting of cities, poverty has dimensions of both material and psychological deprivation. The growing numbers of the urban poor find insecure shelter in overcrowded slums where lack of water and sanitation, electricity, employment, security and social inclusion are the norm Berger Other features of urban poverty include hunger, poor health due to nutritional deficiencies and unhealthy living conditions as well as limited access to school and health services. Survival has become the major concern of the urban poor. Women and children are often the most vulnerable. One consequence of escalating urban poverty is the growing number of street children in African cities. While some of these children have homes and families but survive by begging or casual work, many have been deserted or orphaned and have no alternative but to live on the street. Their survival is tremendously precarious, and, without schooling, they have little hope for any meaningful future and are extraordinarily vulnerable to abuse. For many, prostitution and crime are the only means to survive. In post-conflict countries street children are one of the most visible legacies of armed conflict. In particular, child soldiers, who are often alienated, traumatized and habituated into violence, present a daunting challenge Rakisits The growth and development of the informal or parallel economy has become an inseparable part of urbanisation in Sub-Saharan countries. Some estimates indicate that in the region, the informal economy and the opportunity it provides for employment will grow at an annual rate of 7 per cent whereas jobs created by the formal economy will likely only increase at a rate of 2 to 3 per cent per year Todaro The informal economy employs 60 per cent on average of the urban workforce in Sub-Saharan Africa, but it accounts for less than one quarter of the urban economic growth output. In countries such as the Democratic Republic of the Congo DRC , it may provide urban employment for as much as 80 per cent of the workforce. The International Labor Organization ILO reported in June that 3 to 4 million Zimbabweans earned their living through informal sector employment, supporting another 5 million, while the formal sector employed about 1. Productivity in the informal economy is low, and a considerable proportion of the urban workforce employed in the sector represents disguised unemployment. Other distinguishing features of the informal economy include: Women are active participants in the informal economy. In some instances, poor women who lack other employment opportunities often resort to operating as commercial sex workers, exposing themselves to danger of disease, abuse and otherwise exacerbating their vulnerability. The growth and development of the informal or parallel economy has become an inseparable part of urbanisation in Sub-Saharan African countries today. Furthermore, regardless of the large number of participants, it does not generate the levels of income, investment or public revenues needed to address the problems faced by most cities. The realities of the informal economy mean that many municipal authorities are faced with a dilemma regarding informal economic actors. While they recognize that informal sector activities are the only means of livelihood for many of the urban poor, local governments are often also concerned about the contribution of such activities to other urban problems. As a result, their response has been to either largely ignore the informal sector or to resort to periodic campaigns targeting their activities. Rising crime and human insecurity Cities all over the world are plagued by both random and organised criminal operations, and Africa is no exception. Ensuring public security and enforcing the rule of law is one of the key urban governance challenges facing African

DOWNLOAD PDF RESIDENTIAL CIRCUMSTANCES OF THE URBAN POOR IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

countries. In many instances, crime and violence act as a significant deterrent to investment and in some cities large areas have become literally ungovernable. Although provision of security is one of the fundamental responsibilities of the state, this aspect has not always received sufficient political attention. Prior to democratisation, the protection of citizens was not a high priority for the majority of authoritarian governments. Over the years, the incidences of crime and the degree of violence have increased tremendously in a number of African cities. Crime and violence increasingly accompany deprivation Kessides Therefore, the general problems of poverty and social exclusion within urban areas, extreme weaknesses of national police and justice systems and absence of trust between communities and local governments compound the challenge of increasing insecurity. Many cities experience a wide range of criminal activities ranging from the petty to the armed and organized. Theft is the most common crime, but some criminal gangs have graduated to drug trafficking and money laundering. Crime is also facilitated by the anonymous character of the big city, and by such institutional weaknesses as poor pay and inadequate training of police, and by deficiencies in essential infrastructure such as streetlights. Women, the elderly and the weak are easy victims of all kinds of crime. Urban insecurity is, however, not limited to these vulnerable groups. Insecurity is widespread and felt by a high proportion of citizens. In response to the growing threat of armed robbery and the inability of the police to provide adequate protection, relatively well-to-do individuals and many businesses are engaging private security firms. In some cities, citizens are organising themselves into neighborhood self-protection groups, and in extreme cases, as vigilantes. These vigilante groups and private security firms sometimes replace the law and authority of government agencies both at the municipal and national levels. In addition to the direct effects of insecurity on people, crime and insecurity hamper new investment and expansion of existing business. In order for African cities to be able to attract new investment and retain existing businesses, it is imperative that crime be combated, and overall safety and public security be restored. Infrastructure and services Amidst widespread threat of crime, many of the urban poor are forced to live in situations of extreme human insecurity, sheltered in informal settlements usually on the outskirts of cities, as a result of the shortage of affordable housing. Cognizant of the fact that these settlements are usually illegal, the official response has often been to try to destroy them or force inhabitants to leave. This operation began in the capital, Harare, but quickly developed into a deliberate nationwide campaign, destroying what the government termed illegal vending sites, structures and other informal business premises and homes, resulting in the displacement of hundreds of people UN-HABITAT The operation involved the bulldozing, smashing and burning of structures housing thousands of poor urban dwellers. This example must be understood within the broader context of the urbanisation crisis in Africa. The social, economic and political circumstances in which the operation took place were not specific to Zimbabwe. They share many common aspects with historical and present trends of the rapid and chaotic urbanisation occurring in many African countries and cities Obeng-Odoom To maximise the benefits of urban life, as well as to minimize the adverse effects of living in close proximity to and in slums, adequate and efficient essential services must be assured. Urban planning must determine the appropriate separation of residential from industrial quarters. It must also incorporate infrastructure for transport, communication, and other essential utilities including the supply of electricity, water, and the disposal of sewage and other waste. On the social side, municipalities need to provide facilities for various levels of education and health services. While some services such as telecommunications and utilities may be more efficiently provided by private enterprises, social services in particular will continue to be the responsibility of public authorities. In theory, the concentration of urban settlements should make it more economical and feasible to provide all these essential services. In practice however, due to financial limitations and capacity constraints, most African cities are incapable of providing basic services to their citizens. Responsibility for some of these services is either shared or exclusively the preserve of central governments. Problems of inadequacy, inefficiency and deterioration of services are rampant. With regard to transport, communications and other utilities, the gap between demand and supply is widening in many cities. Existing facilities are poorly maintained, and investments in expanded service delivery are constrained by lack

DOWNLOAD PDF RESIDENTIAL CIRCUMSTANCES OF THE URBAN POOR IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

of financing. As a result, traffic congestion, inadequate public transport, crumbling roads, intermittent and unreliable electricity, poor telecommunications and insufficient water supply are becoming the norm rather than the exception, even in affluent areas of cities. In some cities, bribery has become commonplace as a means to forestall arbitrary interruption of utility services Newsday In general, lack of adequate infrastructure ranks high among the most basic impediments to economic growth in most Sub-Saharan African countries United Nations However, poor infrastructure in cities affects the economic performance of the private sector as well as the living conditions of citizens. The increase of slums means that hundreds of thousands of people live in appalling housing structures and without facilities like sewerage, electricity, water or paved roads World Bank For example, in Harare the influx of people exerted mounting pressure on the Harare Municipality for the supply of amenities such as housing, clinics, transport, health facilities and water and sewage infrastructure. The shortage of housing compelled impoverished urban arrivals to construct illegal shelters leading to increasing shanty dwellings in the city Colquhoun Emblematic of these challenges are other cities such as Lagos, Nairobi, Kumasi, Maputo and Luanda, amongst others. The continuance of rural habits by large numbers of people unaccustomed to living in an urban environment, together with lack of maintenance, has further contributed to the decay of physical infrastructure in cities. This has undermined overall human security and the attainment of sustainable development. The picture with respect to social services is not much different. The high rate of growth of urban settlements has had many consequences for social services such as education, health and care for the poor and elderly. In many countries, governments have been unable to cope with the rising demand for social services. The basic cause of this inability is often the disparity between the growth of the urban population and the availability of public resources. In some countries, the consequences of this mismatch have been exacerbated by policy choices, which give low priority to the social sectors as compared to other areas of public expenditure, including national security. In most instances, funds are lacking for new investments in schools and medical facilities. Often, sufficient funds are not allocated for the necessary maintenance and running of existing facilities. The overall result is overcrowded classrooms, lack of educational materials, poorly trained and poorly paid teachers, and lack of medicines and other medical supplies. The quality of service continues to decline in many countries, further exacerbating the breakdown of social capital and overall human security. Furthermore, the HIV-AIDS epidemic increases health expenditures at the individual, municipal and national levels, thereby diverting resources that could have been used for industrial investment. Social services are further affected as many health personnel, teachers and students comprise a significant proportion of those who are infected and dying in increasing numbers. Additionally, many of these professionals enjoy extended leave or give up work to care for the infected family members. HIV-AIDS is a major killer, reducing life expectancy, leaving orphans and generally eroding traditional mechanisms of social protection. It is also reducing productivity and incomes, hence affecting overall sustainable economic development capability. Prospects and opportunities There exist many opportunities for countries in Sub-Saharan Africa to strengthen service delivery and thereby redress the challenge of human insecurity. Developing employment options High rates of unemployment and limited economic opportunities have created a potentially explosive social problem in many African cities, especially given the particularly high levels of youth unemployment Eguavoen As a consequence, generating economic growth and employment have become development imperatives for urban areas throughout the continent. To accomplish this will require significant expansion of the formal private sector, which remains underdeveloped in most African countries. It will also require the encouragement and facilitation of much higher levels of private investment.

DOWNLOAD PDF RESIDENTIAL CIRCUMSTANCES OF THE URBAN POOR IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

Chapter 3 : Holdings: The residential circumstances of the urban poor in developing countries

Add tags for "The residential circumstances of the urban poor in developing countries". Be the first.

This paper reviews social exclusion of the urban poor and residential densification, under rapid urbanization of Dhaka, to show how they deprive the urban poor from their access to shelter. While exclusion and densification persist, integration of the urban poor becomes an agenda that this paper addresses in relation to sustainable urban development SUD. SUD accommodates and maintains a balance among all income groups, in particular, in their access to shelter to live a decent life. Observation based on secondary sources and satellite images, however, shows that this balance is absent now in Dhaka: Exclusion and densification displace the poor from their informal settlements while contributing to the residential consolidation of the non-poor in their formal planned settlements. This observation has site- and city-specific implications respectively, for integration of the urban poor. First, insecurity of land tenure compounded by high-price and scarcity of land renders site-specific interventions in informal settlements, in city core and periphery, unsustainable in the long-term. Second, emergent urban structure and form exclude the urban poor by limiting their life-chances, to earn, learn, and live long. While Dhaka continues to grow, the world that creates heavy pressure on land for how social exclusion and residential densification living and livelihoods. Proper utilization of land, have contributed to inequality among urban dwellers, therefore, attains a top priority in Bangladesh. Under especially, in depriving the urban poor from their the current trend of urbanization, industrialization, access to shelter has remained unexamined. Gap in and river erosion, the country is reported losing knowledge accompanies lack of policy directives. Within this trend, the Dhaka in general, and compact cities and townships capital city of Dhaka is expanding by 4. The World Sustainable Building resource and prevailing social exclusion in Conference in Tokyo, September, The paper was not developing countries Mitlin and Satterthwaite, presented and published due to non-registration. Next, a especially, environmental problems broadly related to brief account on urbanization and urban poverty in excess energy consumption and carbon emissions. Dhaka sets a background to the paper. The following The debate generated later in making and managing two main sections of this paper examine the nature, sustainable urban formâ€”compact city Jencks et al, extent, and implications of social exclusions and â€”relates, among others, to the social and residential densification, during rapid urbanization. First, to the compact city later came under critical scrutiny need to adopt an equity perspective for integration of Burton, When rapid urbanization in the urban poor. Existing wisdom suggests that strategies sustaining resources. SUD in Dhaka has a Dhaka relevance insofar it accommodates and maintains a balance among all income groups, in particular, in Since independence in , Bangladesh has been their access to shelter to live a decent life. Urban population in This paper examines social exclusion and residential Dhaka has increased from a modest 0. Population in Dhaka show how they contribute to deprive the urban poor has increased due to unabated rural to urban from their access to shelter. Despite decreasing AGR of as part of an alternative to the prevailing policy urban population and Dhaka since , Dhaka will regime that prescribes city expansion without eventually become one of the top megacities. This present rates of population increase Dhaka City examination is based on secondary sources; some of would be the 6th largest mega-city in the world in their data are dated but are believed to suggest trends , with Figures in parentheses indicate percentage Source: BBS , Asfar and Islam et al Finally, it is located in areas that do not satisfies the Habitat Agenda requirements of adequacy. According to mids estimate, 47 deprivation, and the processes and relations that percent of Dhaka population lived in informal underlie deprivation de Haan, ; Sen, A useful for explaining deprivation in developing concomitant feature of this rapid urbanization is the countries despite it had originated and seen wider presence of a large urban poor population. Among a application in different European countries. At a functional level, social exclusion Intake method, has decreased from Social exclusion, and poor also widened. Between and , the generally speaking, can result either from unforced urban poor household income fell by 5. Social exclusion is a percent. On the other hand,

DOWNLOAD PDF RESIDENTIAL CIRCUMSTANCES OF THE URBAN POOR IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

while per capita income multivalent phenomenon, manifesting in a variety of of all urban dwellers registers Madanipour the figures between the poor 2. Next Dhaka has become a socially unjust city, divided in are sketches of social exclusion of the urban poor in two societies in presence of two economies Sobhan, Dhaka, manifested during rapid urbanization. Increases in income disparity between the rich on relational causation to deprivation in each arena and poor, their asymmetric access to power, and are indicative and not exhaustive. While measurable manifestations of Exclusion at the Economic Arena inequality are evident, existing urban poverty Gainful income opportunities are not available discourse does not reveal their underlying equally in Dhaka like most other major cities in the explanations Islam, ; Sen, An assumption that the poverty exists outside homogenous, especially, among slum and non-slum socio-economic system characterizes the residual dwellers in Dhaka. Seeds of how they influence as well as reproduce poverty de urban income disparity are embedded in poor Haan and Dubey, In Dhaka, the from basic needs are described and quantified, multi- lower 50 per cent households control only 7 per cent dimensional profile of deprivation is less noted. Whereas, the upper 5 per These profiles once examined would explain the cent households control 40 percent fixed assets. To specific position the urban poor have within the create earnings from business, commerce and assets, observed social divide. In this case, rural modes among squatter dwellers. Urban poor formal financial and educational institutions do not living in squatter settlements live a normative life, the favour the poor. On the other hand, the reality of breakdown of norms is almost absent among them daily subsistence does not allow them to accumulate despite their constrained socio-economic profile capital or pursue education beyond the primary level. Associated implications that arise from Dimension of income disparity depends on education, where they live in and whom they socialize with health, and housing. Existing gap between the rich contribute to their deprivation in different forms. Homeless people who are in search of a job, women in particular, have been frequently The urban poor households have failed to receive denied a job for living in the street. On the other their fair share of resources despite being a hand, homeless people are socially stigmatized. Age-old formation of an prejudices and class-consciousness. Elite perceive the poor as non-threatening Consequently, ruling elite exclude the urban poor to their interests and well-being, considers above from all forms of social and political participation, reproach for their poverty who deserve help and and benefiting from basic civic amenities. In development practice and governance, people feels disenfranchised, and withdrew them these passive and benign views of the poor guide from participating in any initiatives to solve their texts in public documents in one way or the other. Rates of participation in between the rich and poor. Urban slums are often outside the main ideological ploy by the ruling elite to maintain their stream of governance and long-term strategic control over resources Wood, ; Arens and van development planning. This creates the operational Beurden, Their rural Access to Housing experience-based values and norms largely influence their adaptation of dwelling in the unplanned and Discrete profiles of exclusion from gainful employ- illegal parts of the city. While dwelling, in slums and ment, voice and participation, and identity, in the squatter settlements, their social structure and cultural economic, political, and cultural arenas respectively, practices remain different from the mainstream urban attest the multi-dimensionality of deprivation in society. In terms of education, dress pattern, the urban poverty. This paper, Habitat , becomes slum dwellers if lack s any however, postulates the following implications for of the followings: The density has a access to land, finance, and services for shelter contrasting profile: Urban poor Densification of the Residential Space who have difficulty in affording a minimum acceptable standard shelter typically lie in the Gradual densification of the built environment, with percentile range. Table 1 shows Three types of land i. This higher increase in income unequal rates of increases create a context of physical apparently decreases land price-to-house ratio. Under densification, first, built-up area decrease in ratio, however, means nothing for in a given plot increases with attendant rise in households within the percentile range. On the building height and volume; densification taken place other hand, a survey by the Consumer Association of within residential areas results in producing more Bangladesh CAB in late reports about dwelling units. Second, new buildings are percent increase in house rent in Dhaka in the last ten constructed in vacant plots or land. Separate but years The Daily Star, During , the linked to these

DOWNLOAD PDF RESIDENTIAL CIRCUMSTANCES OF THE URBAN POOR IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

two categories is a third where water survey observed the highest 26 percent increase of bodies are filled up and open spaces and agricultural rent in slums. This section explains the ways in which densification of residential areas affects different income groups, These implications, in the second area, make as well poor and non-poor in particular. It notes deprivation Table 1: Changing Profiles of Dhaka City Area in sq. In , the area of the Dhaka Statistical Metropolitan Area was increased to Excessive densification in different localities of old Dhaka, with The Nature and Extent of Densification attendant deterioration of living environment, has entrapped a large section of its lower-income people; Dhaka has been undergoing densification due to while the well-off section has been opting to move increasing demands for living and working space. The following sub-sections Dhaka became the provincial capital of the then East briefly describe the nature and extent of densification Pakistan in Dhakaâ€”the provincial capitalâ€” in Dhaka. As a response, Increase in Land Coverage and Building Height the government acquired agriculture lands to develop a few planned residential areas for the higher income Old Dhaka, situated beside Buriganga River, has groups while significant parts of Dhaka remained been the traditional centre of trade, commerce, and unplanned. Informal sector employment opportunities the first of these initiatives, of about acres, which with the availability of low-rent housing in different started during the early s by the Dhaka parts of old Dhaka have always attracted unskilled Improvement Trust now Capital Improvement poor migrants. Without possibilities of expansion, Authority, RAJUK ; plots with an average size natural increase of the native old Dhaka population of 1, sq. Gulshan, Banani, Uttara, densification of its physical fabric long ago. The gross urban density here is person per saturation in DRA Figure 1 ; the ongoing acre, while in some areas in excess of person densification process is evident in Uttara Figure 2. The indigenous city form of old Dhaka has The rate of growth in household numbers and problems in accommodating modern urban services density, i. Low incomes of a large section of 2; this observation suggests that different locality in landowners and their inability of housing Dhaka have different pace of densification as improvement and maintenance have largely indicated in Figure 1 and 2. Old Dhaka, as evident in contributed to the deterioration of the existing the case of Sutrapur thana, shows much lower annual housing stocks with the subsequent formation of growth rate of household increase and density, slums. On the other hand, existing buildings on compared to other thanas during the inter- smaller plots with very high land coverage, due to census period. While Uttara thana has the highest land divisions for inheritance, are growing vertically rates of annual growth followed by Dhanmondi. DRA has a survey in that Beyond selection procedure for allocating plots among these areas, developers built apartments are also applicants. Professionals without a house in Dhaka highly concentrated in the central unplanned area, and expatriate Bangladeshis, who would pay in including Iskaton, Shantinagar, Siddheswari and foreign currency, receive preference in the selection. Malibag Siraj and Alam, In Dhaka, private Political affiliation also influences the plot allotment developers have constructed around 47, process. Application criterion, as in use today, apartments in the last twenty years, and at a rate of precludes the urban poor at the out set from applying apartments per year for the last five years for failing to provide specific income Tax Seraj, The demand side of this increasing Identification Number. Failure to take note that the construction by the private sector developers can be poor do not pay tax restricts an equal opportunity for argued linked to the economic prosperity of the rich all. Moreover, poor native old Dhaka applicants mentioned earlier. In reality, RAJUK New Buildings in Vacant Lands provides housing plots below market prices to politically influential and higher income groups, and Pockets of land in different parts of Dhaka remain thereby, contribute to urban land market distortions vacant in absence of land use planning.

DOWNLOAD PDF RESIDENTIAL CIRCUMSTANCES OF THE URBAN POOR IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

Chapter 4 : Improvement strategies for lower-income urban settlements in Kenya. | blog.quintoapp.com

The Residential Circumstances of the Urban Poor in Developing Countries. by United (Author), United Nations. Centre for Human Settlements.

Rural poverty and urban poverty differ on many levels, with distinctive, environment-based issues that characterize quality of life. There are similarities, of course, that span both rural and urban poverty. However, these issues are sometimes inflicted on certain individuals or groups more than others. For example, women and children are more likely to experience poverty more intensely than men and minorities tend to suffer more greatly than other groups. Education, health care and sanitation are all lacking in rural environments. This causes many of the rural poor to move to cities, which often leads to a rise in urban poverty.

Rural Poverty and Urban Poverty The rural poor are divided into further subsets based on profession: Cultivators are slightly better off, as they are able to make some money operating farms and charging tenants for using their land. Noncultivators, however, are extremely poor, working as seasonal laborers on farms. Their pay is both low and erratic, as it is based on the schedules of farm owners and the other few employers available. The rural poor often suffer more than the urban poor because public services and charities are not available to them. Several factors tend to perpetuate rural poverty. While generally considered less severe, urban poverty provides the poor with a host of separate issues. The World Bank found that urban populations in developing countries are growing rapidly, at a rate of 70 million new city-dwellers per year. Former residents of rural areas are typically drawn to the city for the perceived wealth of economic opportunities, but often, those dreams fall short. Compared to rural villages, there are indeed more job opportunities in urban areas. However, many migrants lack the skillset to take on many jobs, and positions for unskilled laborers fill up quickly. This shortage of jobs leaves new residents without a steady income, which creates a series of new problems in the city. Without an income, the urban poor often find themselves in inadequate housing with poor safety and sanitation. Additionally, health and education packages are limited. Crime and violence are also much more rampant in urban settings than in rural ones, threatening the authority of law enforcement and the peace of mind of city dwellers. Health is quite variable throughout rural and urban settings. While the rural poor lack access to urban health care programs, they sometimes benefit from the distance between the country and the city. In the close quarters that characterize city living, it is easy for disease to spread. Additionally, communal resources in cities can actually lead to health problems. According to The Guardian, families usually have their own personal latrine, so if a health problem starts among the family, the latrine can be closed off and the health risk minimized. However, in cities where many people on a daily basis use public restrooms, disease can spread rapidly and tracking down the source can be nearly impossible. Though rural poverty is currently higher than urban poverty, research shows that soon, urban areas will become home to the majority of impoverished people. The perception of greater opportunity leads the rural poor away from the countryside and into the cities, where they often end up in even further poverty. An overhaul of urban development programs is necessary to combat the issues with sanitation, safety and hunger that propagate urban poverty.

DOWNLOAD PDF RESIDENTIAL CIRCUMSTANCES OF THE URBAN POOR IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

Chapter 5 : Rural Poverty and Urban Poverty | The Borgen Project

Contemporary urban strategies and urban design in developing countries: a critical review by: Burgess, Rod Published: () Advice to the poor; with a short remonstrance to those in higher circumstances.

How to make housing affordable for the urban poor Copyright: You have to credit our authors. You have to credit SciDev. You can simply run the first few lines of the article and then add: The easiest way to get the article on your site is to embed the code below. For more information view our media page and republishing guidelines. The full article is available here as HTML. But this cannot be the answer where public funds are scarce and are often misused. In many developing countries, even though over 80 per cent of homes are owner-occupied, low incomes mean that the houses are inadequate as evidenced by the slums and squatter settlements that have come to define cities in the South. So the obvious but radical answer could be to pay people a decent wage. Another answer is to revisit the terms and conditions of conventional housing finance: Microfinance can help with repairs or extensions, but has limited application to housing purchase. A non-conventional model for greater reach and impact might, for example, incorporate short-term, sequential loans for incremental construction, paid off with variable amounts for example, via mobile phones using a network of community-based retail agents. But finance aside, what can be done, and why is it not being done? Cheaper houses There are two ways to make housing cheaper: Most houses in developing countries are already small one or two rooms and use cheap, local, often recycled materials. There have been various attempts to maximise space by clever design, the use of movable walls and even new construction technology such as interlocking blocks or 3D printing. These are all prototypes for small units using factory-based mass-production techniques and materials. First, the designs rarely respond to how people use domestic space. They have open-plan kitchens or only one bedroom, for example. Second, the building is only 40 per cent of the cost of housing the rest is land, infrastructure and fees. So even halving construction costs, which is no easy matter given the minimal and often recycled materials already used, only reduces total costs by 20 per cent. However, there is a place for technology to step into. Sanitation is one area: And producing standardised building components doors and windows, but also roofing and flooring could make these cheaper and easier to incorporate in housing. Land cost and availability The biggest constraint to adequate housing is land. Land adds considerably to the cost of housing, largely because a limited supply leads to speculative land holding, where investors buy land cheaply and keep it off the market until its value increases. It is not difficult for cities to plan to provide this small amount of land at the rate and scale needed, and, if necessary, the additional cost could be covered by a one to two per cent tax on the largest plots. This would not only make cities better accommodate diversity, but would also add much-needed life and activity to vast swathes of car-driven suburbia. Politics and housing policy It is possible to have affordable housing that is both acceptable and sustainable for households and for society but ultimately it requires a change in the way politicians and government view housing. This is difficult for three reasons. First, politicians believe that providing housing will attract migrants, when in fact what they come for is jobs, education and to work for a better future for their children. You might also like.

Chapter 6 : Housing Finance

Title / Author Type Language Date / Edition Publication; 1. The residential circumstances of the urban poor in developing countries: 1.

Chapter 7 : How to make housing affordable for the urban poor - blog.quintoapp.com

In: The residential circumstances of the urban poor in developing countries. Prepared by the United Nations Centre for

DOWNLOAD PDF RESIDENTIAL CIRCUMSTANCES OF THE URBAN POOR IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

Human Settlements. New York, N.Y., Praeger Publishers,

Chapter 8 : The Urban Crisis in Sub-Saharan Africa: A Threat to Human Security and Sustainable Development

The urban population growth rate in developing countries as a whole has been slowing down from per cent per annum in the late s to per cent in the s./5 It is expected to decline even further in the coming decades. Nevertheless, if current trends hold.