

Проблеми соціально-просторової несправедливості

Outline

- Why justice? Why spatial? Why public spaces?
- Socio-spatial (in)justice
- Green public spaces and socio-spatial justice

Why spatial? Why justice?

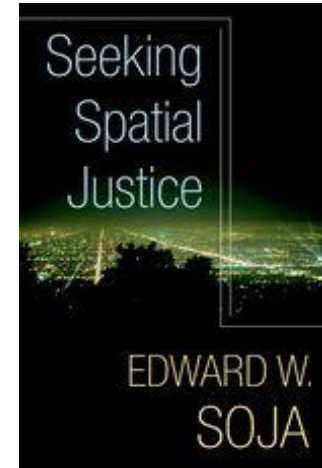
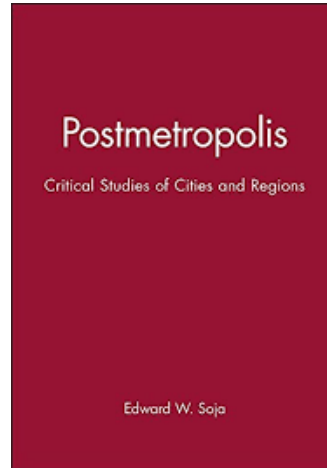
- Before the turn of the 20th century, the specific term *spatial justice* was almost entirely absent from the literature in human geography
- 2000s: growing attention
 - ✓ awareness of the negative spatial effects arising from economic globalization – economic injustice
 - ✓ awareness of the spatial effects arising from race, gender, class, ethnicity, sexual discrimination – social injustice
 - ✓ awareness of the spatial effects of climate change, global warming, waste management – environmental injustice

Why spatial? Why justice? Why public space?

- Edward Soja (2010): spatial justice is not a substitute or alternative to other forms of justice but rather represents a particular emphasis and interpretive perspective
 - ✓ justice and injustice are infused into the multiscalar geographies in which we live, from the intimacies of the household to the uneven development of the global economy → *public space*
 - ✓ the socialised geographies of (in)justice significantly affects our lives, creating lasting structures of unevenly distributed advantage and disadvantage → *injustice access and use of public spaces*
 - ✓ These geographies and their effects can be changed through forms of social and political actions → *struggle for justice access and use of public spaces*

Why spatial? Why justice? Why public space?

- Struggle for spatial justice (Soja, 2000) – seeking for spatial justice (Soja, 2010)
- The essential **starting point in the search for spatial justice** is the vigilant **defense of public space** against the forces of commodification, privatisation and state interference (Soja, 2010)



Why public space?

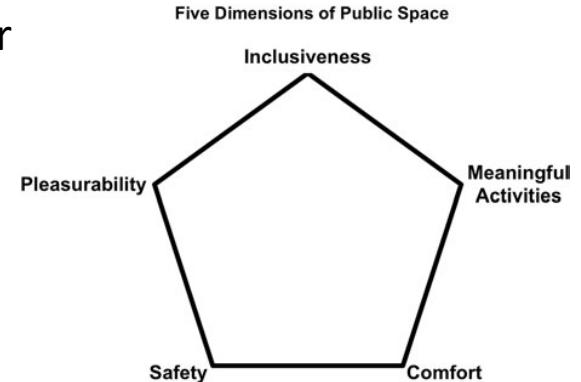
- Zachary Neal (2010): While there are many different ways to define public space, most agree that public space includes *all areas that are open and accessible to all members of the public in a society, in principle though not necessarily in practice*
- *All areas*: any physical or virtual area where individuals and groups can interact with one another is potentially a public space
- *That are open and accessible*: individuals and groups are free to come and go, are free to use the space for its intended purpose, and are free to be either active participants or passive spectators; use of public space is not conditional upon membership in a particular group like a political party or religious community, upon one's income or education, or upon demographic characteristics like age or sex
- *To all members of the public in a society*: one important restriction to this openness that public space is only open to members of the public
- *In principle though not necessarily in practice*: in many cases, public spaces that are technically open and accessible fall short of this ideal in reality

Why public space?

- Peter Marcuse (2014): *the paradoxes of public space* (three long-term paradoxes, two intermediate-range proposals, one short-range warning)
- *Paradox 1: the paradox of public space and democracy*: To have truly democratic public spaces, you have to have a truly democratic society. But to have a truly democratic society, you have to have democratic public spaces
- *Paradox 2: the paradox of public space and equality*: To have truly democratic public space, you cannot have gross inequalities of wealth. But to limit gross inequalities of wealth, you need to have truly democratic public spaces
- *Paradox 3: the paradox of public vs. private spaces*: Certain types of private spaces are essential for the functioning of public spaces. But the privatization of public space also inhibits their public use. On the one hand, some enhance public use. On the other hand, the existence of certain kinds of private space is essential for public spaces to best serve their desired functions. Some commercial uses can serve to enhance the public use and enjoyment of public space

Why public space?

- Vikas Mehta (2014): There are various definitions of public space distinguished by issues of *ownership, control* or *access and use*
 - ✓ privately owned spaces that are accessible to the public qualify as public space and those publicly owned spaces that are not accessible to the public do not
 - ✓ public space is a space of participation. It is an arena for the collective voice and shared interests, but is also the space where the differences and conflicts of various groups play out



Spatial (in)justice

- Evolving definition of spatial justice
- Justice as the quality of being just or fair

A geographical approach to justice studies

- *David Harvey* “**Social Justice and the City**” (1973):
 - ✓ hidden urban geography of injustice
 - ✓ territorial justice – search for a just distribution of social resources justly arrived at
 - ✓ territorial injustice – when capitalist industrial city itself functions day to day as a machine for the manufacturing and maintenance of distributional inequalities– beginning of
- *Edward Soja* “**Seeking for spatial justice**” (2010):
 - ✓ urbanisation of injustice
 - ✓ spatial discrimination
 - ✓ race, space and environmental justice
 - ✓ segregation and production of spatial justice
 - ✓ territorial justice, the right to the city, the geography of social justice, an the urbanization of injustice – the major advances in conceptualization of spatial (in)justice

Socio-spatial (in)justice

- Dikec (2001):
 - ✓ spatiality of injustice – how injustice embedded in space
 - ✓ injustice of spatiality – how injustice is created and maintained through space
- Soja (2010): the spatiality of (in)justice (combining justice and injustice in one word) affects society and social life just as much as social processes shape the spatiality or specific geography on (in)justice.

Socio-spatial (in)justice

- Soja (2010):
 - ✓ **distributional inequality** is the most basic and obvious expression of spatial justice
- Susan Fainstein “The just city” (2010):
- **equity, democracy, and diversity** are the three primary qualities constituting urban justice

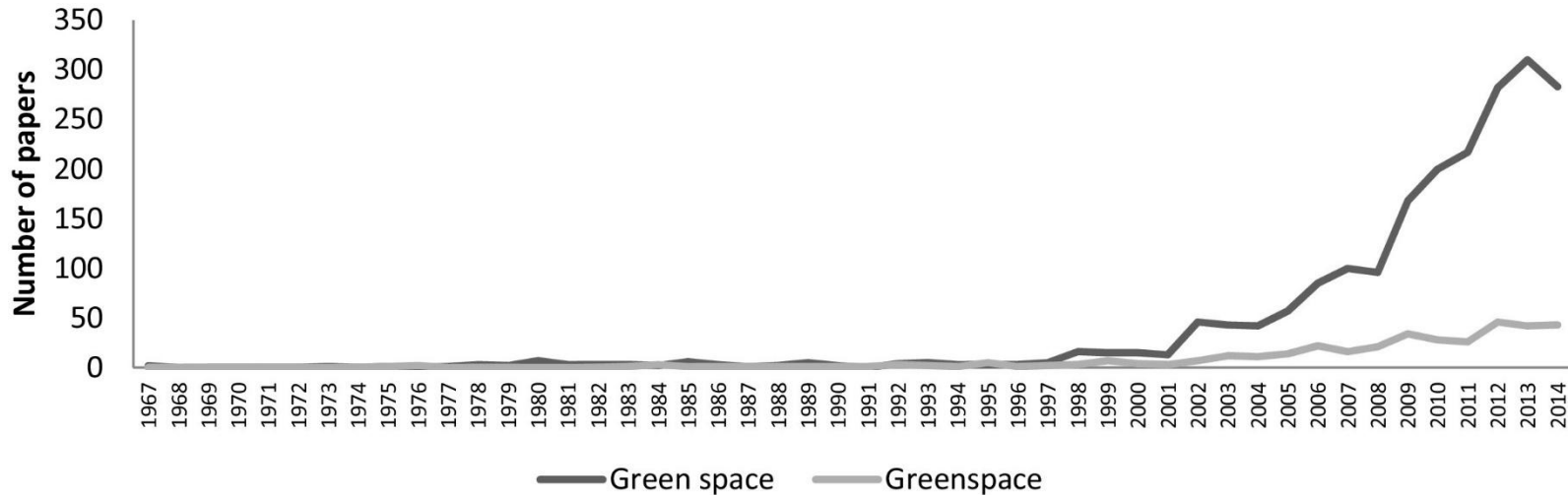
Social Justice

Setha Low "Public Space and Diversity: Distributive, Procedural and Interactional Justice for Parks" (2013) – **three different dimensions** need to be discussed to address injustice in the case of public spaces

- ***distributive justice*** – focuses on the fair allocation of public spaces and related resources for all social groups
- ***procedural justice*** – relates to fair integration of all affected groups into the planning and decision process of a public space
- ***interactional justice*** – is about the quality of interpersonal relations in a specific place and if people interact safely without, e.g. discriminant behaviour

Green public spaces and socio-spatial justice

- Greenspace is an emerging area of research – an increase in the number of publications in the last decade (Taylor, & Hochuli, 2017)
- lack of definition – rather examples of what was meant by greenspace



Green public spaces and socio-spatial justice

- *Green public spaces*: parks, community gardens, urban forests, street trees, urban agriculture, residential lawns, roof gardens, golf courses, or cemeteries
- The provision of urban green is increasingly recognised as an environmental justice issue (Wolch, Byrne, & Newell, 2014)
- *Nadja Kabisch and Dagmar Haase “Green justice or just green?...” (2014)*: an expanded framework of socio-environmental justice combining the definition of environmental justice with the social justice concept developed by the Setha Low

Distributive spatial justice

- provision, availability, accessibility
- *spatial variation* (e.g. inner cities vs suburbs, or with different population density)
- *among different social groups* (with different socio-economic status, income, age, sex, gender, ethnicity, race, religion, education, migration background, disability, etc.)

Hypothesis testing: location

- ***the dependence of the accessibility of urban green public spaces on the location of the neighbourhood***
- peripheral urban areas have fewer/higher public spaces both in number and area than in central areas
- *higher accessibility in suburban areas* where urban green spaces supply is higher or population density is lower in Atlanta (Dai, 2011) or in Berlin (Kabisch & Haase, 2014)
- *inequality among central/peripheral neighbourhoods*
- Dai (2011): the deprivation in spatial access in the central city of Atlanta. However, this disadvantage may not hold true for the inner-city wealthy families (high social status with high income levels, well paid jobs, high housing values, and high car ownership) who can afford private green spaces (e.g., golf courses)
- Kabisch & Haase (2014): the outer city districts contain large amounts of urban green spaces per capita than inner city districts; some of the inner city sub-districts in Berlin with relatively high percentages of immigrants and high population density have disproportionate less access to urban green spaces
- Fan et al. (2017): the urban periphery still fall behind the average green accessibility of the city of Shanghai as a whole; furthermore, inner suburbs have fared quite well in green accessibility while outer suburbs have not enjoyed the accessibility

Hypothesis testing: scale effects

- *Tan & Samsudin (2017)*: scale effects clearly influence the assessment of park provision (the Singapore case)
 - ✓ the use of larger spatial scales tends to suggest more favourable and equitable park provision than at the neighbourhood scale
 - ✓ inequity in park provision seems more evident at smaller spatial scales (planning area and subzone) than at the larger scale of region

Hypothesis testing: socio-economic status

- ***the dependence of the accessibility of urban green public spaces on the socio-economic status of the neighbourhood***
- urban areas with low socio-economic status have fewer public spaces both in number and area than in areas with high socio-economic status
- mostly confirmed: the distribution is injustice – higher accessibility in areas with higher socio-economic status (e.g. Dai, 2011; Estabrooks et al., 2003; Byrne, Wolch, & Zhang, 2009; Li and Liu, 2016; Boone et al., 2009; Tang, 2017; Schüle et al., 2017, etc.)

Hypothesis testing : socio-economic status

- Li and Liu (2016): the relationships between neighborhood socioeconomic disadvantage and urban public green space availability at the district level in Shanghai → *urban public green space provision and accessibility are lower in districts with higher levels of neighbourhood socioeconomic disadvantage*
- Schüle, Gabriel, Bolte (2017): whether neighbourhood socioeconomic position is associated with neighbourhood public green space availability in a large German city with more than 1 million inhabitants → *neighbourhoods with a lower socioeconomic position have less accessible public green space within their boundaries and in their close surroundings than more affluent neighbourhoods*
- Tang (2017): the equitability of open space distribution and access in cities – do the rich and powerful have greater access to higher-quality open space than the poor and powerless in Hong Kong → *a large proportion of urban green public spaces are located close to upmarket, low-density housing areas and mixed commercial-business zones, rather than to high-density mass housing zones*
- ineffectiveness of urban planning as a top-down and rather bureaucratic process

Hypothesis testing : socio-economic status

- Timperio et al. (2007): do low socio-economic status neighbourhoods have fewer public open spaces and less area of public open space than high socio-economic status neighbourhoods in Melbourne → did not support the hypothesis → *greater number of freely available open spaces in neighbourhoods with the lowest socio-economic status compared to those neighbourhoods with the highest levels of socio-economic status*. However, these differences were not significant once neighbourhood population was considered (*availability of open space appears to be distributed equitably across neighbourhoods* when the population and total geographic area being serviced are considered)
- Bahrini et al. (2017): how are the green spaces and parks distributed in relation to the urban structure and how does this affect their accessibility in Tehran
 - there is clearly *no consistency or clear pattern in the distribution* of parks or other green areas in relation to the urban residential patterns; *no particular difference* if someone is living in a wealthy or poor district in terms of the availability of green space either on a per capita basis or within easy access, since the wealthier inhabitants have more access to cars they are able to travel to the “destination” parks more easily
 - *the best quality and best maintained parks being located in districts with higher socio-economic status*; the parks in poorer areas tend to be less-well maintained and show more signs of anti-social behaviour than those in better-off districts

Hypothesis testing: residents' vulnerability

- ***the dependence of the accessibility of urban green public spaces on the residents' vulnerability***
- injustice accessibility of green public spaces among different resident groups within a city
- vulnerable social groups have fewer public spaces access (social status, age, race, gender, sex preferences, employment, etc.)
- *Shen, Sun, & Che (2017)*: how equal public green space provision among different resident groups within the Central City of Shanghai (based on household composition and social status) → the disadvantageous access to public green spaces among low-social-status groups, the elderly and the unemployed
- the disparity of urban green space accessibility across population groups of different socioeconomic status: Indian, Hindu, and Sikh groups have limited access to urban green spaces in Leicester (Comber et al., 2008), African-American and Asian neighbourhoods have poorer access to urban green spaces than white neighborhoods in Atlanta (Dai, 2011)
- *Wüstemann, Kalisch, & Kolbe (2017)*: urban green space provision with respect to distances has no inequalities while with respect to income, education, age and child in household urban green spaces are unequally distributed

Hypothesis testing: residents' attitudes

- *Schindler et al. (2018)*: a spatially equal distribution of urban green space would not necessarily provide benefits to all city residents
 - ✓ assessing attitudes towards urban green spaces and use of them by residents of the region of Brussels
 - ✓ socio-economic profiles influence attitudes: highly educated, full-time employed people from all age groups (i.e. indirectly higher income groups) are more likely to express strong positive attitudes than older, retired and less educated respondents (i.e. indirectly lower income groups)
 - ✓ both socio-economic and locational aspects influence residents' attitude towards urban green spaces and patterns of urban green spaces use

Changing accessibility over time by different types of urban green public spaces

- *Ye, Hu, Li (2018)*: changes in urban green space accessibility over time in Macau
 - ✓ there is great inequality in urban green space accessibility in 2010
 - ✓ but the inequality was reduced in 2015
- accessibility to different types of urban green spaces varies significantly
 - ✓ the average accessibility to gardens is the highest, while accessibility to civic parks is the second lowest and to community parks is the lowest

Diversity

- *Susan Fainstein (2010)*: the provision of widely accessible and varied public spaces promotes diversity (alongside with equity and democracy)
 - ✓ the relationship between diversity and equity as components of justice is not straightforward
 - ✓ "bad" public spaces are characterised by a lack of accessibility and homogeneity
 - ✓ the achievement of diversity may come at the cost of other values

Diversity

- *Tuna Tasan-Kok et al. (2014)*: hyper-diversity which refers to the increasing diversification of population in various terms: ethnicity, socio-economic status, lifestyles, opportunities and activities (to move beyond the previous approaches which often tend to focus on ethnicity or nationality)
- *Boros et al. (2016)*: traditional approaches assumed that a person's position within the society is directly influenced by his/her ethnic or cultural background, and other socio-economic aspects attached to it. But nowadays there is a growing status discrepancy, and different members of the same family can have very different status within the society. People belonging to the same social or ethnic group may have quite different attitudes with respect to school, work, parents and towards other groups. They may have also very different daily and life routines, activity spaces

Diversity

- *Don Mitchell (2017):*
 - ✓ the production of abstract space is a capitalist necessity
 - ✓ the production of abstract space includes the end of public space
 - ✓ struggle between abstract space and differentiated space, between public space in which exchange dominates use and public space in which it does not)

Beyond the distributive justice

- *David Schlosberg (2001, 2007):*
 - ✓ justice is about more than just distribution
 - ✓ issues of cultural recognition and political participation are crucial components of movements' definitions of environmental justice
 - ✓ understanding distributional inequity is only the first step towards addressing environmental injustice
 - ✓ it is also necessary to examine “the processes that construct maldistribution”
 - ✓ broad and authentic public participation can achieve both distributional equity and political recognition
- *Bo-sin Tang (2017):* the government decision to allocate land in the town plans for public open space reflects its governing ideology, development priority and political values

Quality of public spaces

- *Schüle et al. (2017)*: distribution of green space may therefore amplify health inequalities within cities
- *Francis et al. (2012)*: the quality of open public spaces within a neighbourhood appears to be more important than their quantity (from a mental health perspective)

Urban green space development policies

- Rigolon (2016) three types of urban green space development policies:
 - ✓ to enhance urban green space proximity by building new urban green spaces, such as pocket parks near residents
 - ✓ to increase the total urban green space area size, specifically through large-scale, new urban green spaces construction
 - ✓ to improve urban green space quality through improving service and maintenance levels