

A Review of Urban Neighbourhood Scholarship



Туре

Research Report

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Executive Summary

Over recent decades, neighbourhood has emerged strongly both as an academic concept and research unit in various disciplines, including urban studies, sociology, planning and human geography. This is attributed to its inherent unique characteristics and embodiment as a microcosm of urban socio-ecological landscape, where creation and dissolution of social spaces occur. Although some scholars remain sceptical about its relevance due to its contested and porous nature, evidence across the globe shows that social processes, such as immigration, lifestyle, crime, unemployment and housing quality are best studied and understood at the neighbourhood level. As such, neighbourhoods are favoured for social policies because of their ability in allowing for tailored solutions in tackling pressing societal problems. They play an important role in social identity, in addition to offering a unique opportunity to understand behavioural characteristics of people. The concept also has special appeal as a spatial unit for understanding complex and salient urban challenges.

This report reviews how the concept has been constructed and how it emerged as a research unit. Further, it considers the issues of neighbourhood effects and change, approaches to the study of neighbourhoods as well as the importance and challenges of neighbourhood research. Additionally, it highlights how the concept has been applied, particularly, in developing countries. The report is based on a review of relevant literature, including journal articles, books, chapters, and scientific reports.

The review reveals that the concept is hotly contested and negotiated, hence it defies singular definition. Definitions largely follow two dimensions; subjective and administrative or geographically boundaries, with elements, such as people, social relations, space and activities culminating in creating the spatial unit. The focus of scholarship, in general, is skewed, particularly towards neighbourhood effects and neighbourhood change. In the global south, especially in Africa and Asia, the focus is somewhat different; satisfaction and wellbeing, redevelopment, health and social capital are dominant. In terms of regional contributions, writers based in the United States and the United Kingdom have been at the forefront in pioneering critical debates and discourses at both global and national levels.

Neighbourhood scholarship has also witnessed significant advances in methodological approaches, with most studies employing quantitative methods, such as various regression and land-use models, path analysis, amongst others. Qualitative methods, including case studies, interviews and observations have also been applied by many studies. The challenge, however, has been application of mixed methods. Only a few such studies have attempted, suggesting room for improvement, and the need for future research to think creatively about how to effectively blend the two in gathering and analysing neighbourhood level data. In addition, the construction of agreed neighbourhood definitions and access to quality neighbourhood data continue to be major challenges.

A major concern that the review identified is that less attention that has been given to many critical areas, such as neighbourhood education, health, livelihood, adaptation, security, and built environment. These areas are under-studied at the neighbourhood level, especially in developing countries. The review recommends more empirical examination of these issues, as they hold great promise in furthering the contextual understanding of sustainable, healthy and learning neighbourhoods, in addition to shaping various urban residential policies. Understanding these areas, it is argued, would be critical in contextualizing neighbourhood sustainability.

The review identifies core areas where future research is likely to make significant contribution, including empirical data generation at the neighbourhood level to analyse the interlinkages between neighbourhood conditions, health and education. This is important because existing studies mostly rely on secondary data. Given the overdependence on statistical modelling and inferences, which misses out on great deal of contextual neighbourhood peculiarities, employing hybrid methods in data generation and analysis to understand fundamental and critical neighbourhood issues holds great promise in making another significant contribution. Further, attempt by the project to operationalize neighbourhood resiliency or sustainability would be a major seminal work in the domain of neighbourhood scholarship. This is especially true, as no attempt has been made yet.

1 Introduction

It is commonly believed that neighbourhoods are places of living experiences. Neighbourhoods continue to attract scholarly attention from different disciplines, including but not limited to urban planning, community development, geography and sociology. The attractiveness of the concept could be attributed to its inherent unique characteristics and embodiment as a microcosm of urban socio-ecological landscape. Neighbourhoods as a spatial unit also has an appeal as a strategic unit to understand urban metabolism.

In spite of its currency, however, attempts to precisely define the concept have proved elusive over the past decades. This is because it is influenced by type, lifestyle and critical contextual factors (Muller 1981; Fischer 1984; Parkes et al., 2002) that are not always easily understood. Consequently, it continues to be fluid and contested. Scholars have constructed neighbourhoods from different perspectives ranging from social, political and economic functions to stages of urban growth (Hunter 1979; Galster 1986). In the neoliberal era, for instance, governments across the globe seek solutions to various pressing societal problems by delegating responsibilities to micro level organizations (Raco 2000; McCann 2001; Meegan and Mitchell 2001; Elwood and Leitner 2003), giving political and social meaning to neighbourhoods in the process. According to Martin (2003), the practice of neighbourhood should be the utmost priority of scholars. Thus, the fact that neighbourhood lacks core definitional attributes makes it suitable to function as a scholarly and social unit, especially when "recognized as the flexible, contingent, social and political products that they are" (Martin 2003, p 7). It is believed that understanding the scales, features and dynamics of neighbourhoods is critical for effective targeting and policy actions (The Young Foundation 2010).

This report is not intended to delve into the definitional debates nor question them, but rather highlight the various definitions that have been proposed. Thus, the report aims to review how neighbourhood has been constructed and how it has emerged as a research unit. It also considers the issues of neighbourhood effects and neighbourhood change, research approaches as well as the importance and challenges that researchers face in conducting studies at this level of space. More so, it highlights how the concept has been applied in the context of developed and developing countries. The ultimate goal is to identify research gaps, which can provide bases for future neighbourhood research, particularly in developing countries. Section three looks at neighbourhood scholarship, followed by neighbourhood studies in the developed and developing worlds. Section five concludes the study.

2 Method

This report is based on review of relevant literature, including journal articles, books, chapters and scientific reports. The diversity of sources was to allow for variation in the presented evidences. To avoid omitting outdated, but relevant literature, the review did not employ any particular time span. Almost 90 per cent of the retrieved papers were journal articles from various sources, including but not limited to those published in *Urban Studies, American Sociological Review, Cities* and *Habitat International*. Major academic databases used were the Web of Science (WoS), Scopus and Google Scholar. In addition to the critical review, content and cluster analysis were employed to understand emerging literature themes. This latter analysis was applied to literature or studies conducted in both developed and developing countries. The motive was to understand how neighbourhood has been applied in the Global North and South, especially in Africa and Asia.

3 Neighbourhood scholarship

3.1 Neighbourhood constructs

The definitional struggle with the concept neighbourhood is well documented (Wirth 1938; Suttles 1972; Hunter 1979; Muller 1981; Olson 1982; Fischer 1982; Galster 1986; 2001; Kearns and Parkinson 2001; Parkes et al. 2002). The porosity and fluidity of neighbourhood boundaries, in addition to emerging social changes, make precise definition a herculean task (Anderson 2017). Chaskin (1997) asserts that although neighbourhoods are viable units of action, the operational definitions of these units are multiple. Aber and Nieto (2000, p.188) point out that, despite many years of definitional struggles, the question of what precisely constitutes a neighbourhood remains elusive. Similarly, Bjarnesen (2015) notes that the varied connotations of neighbourhood in everyday life make analytical application of the concept challenging. The latter is especially true as different types of neighbourhoods are known to be distinctive by the relevance and style of appearance at different levels (Schnell et al. 2005). The seemingly divergent views on neighbourhood have culminated into reductionist applications, and this could be attributed to the misleading notion that everyone knows what neighbourhood is all about (The Young Foundation 2018). Galster (2001, p. 2111), for instance, is of the view that although neighbourhood is hard to define, "everyone knows it when they see it". Thus, researchers often talk of neighbourhood as though there is a consensus with readers as to its constituents (Getis 2015). This has caused some scholars to point out the difficulty that this creates when it comes to appropriate social policy formulation (Chaskin 1997). Creating neighbourhood as a unit of planning and action, according to Chaskin, holds great potential in offering better understanding of its morphology.

The quest to understand what constitutes a neighbourhood has attracted wide scholarly interest. While some scholars define neighbourhoods from the perspectives of people's perception (e.g. Galster 1986; Ellaway et al., 2001), others do so based on the existing opportunities of a place (e.g. Wilson 1987; Buck 2001). Brower (1996) conceptualises neighbourhoods as a socio-territorial unit, encompassing four dimensions; place-based, (involving physical, topology, morphological, and architectural aspects of a neighbourhood); local human activities (including mobility and social organizations) and unique cultural characteristics and personalities. Drawing on traditional conceptualizations, and re-echoing Brower's (1996) encapsulation, Schnell and Goldhaber (2002) classified neighbourhoods by emphasizing territorialisation, rootedness, day-by-day services, social interactions, control and identity as well as place attachment.

Neighbourhoods are localised networks of everyday social interactions that invoke a sense of identity among residents. Thus, they are social constructs that are often disputed and negotiated by residents and key stakeholders (Anderson 2017). For Anderson, neighbourhoods are formed through community organizations, which represents members and residents' interests and are usually perceived as shared among residents and businesses, situated within identified spatial boundaries. Anderson add that "more than just local networks of social relations, neighbourhoods often become "politicalized" sites to the extent that members actively come together to mobilize resources in the name of preserving, enhancing, or changing particular neighbourhood characteristics". Local institutions (e.g., churches, schools, community centres), he notes, are the core venues of various social activities "that work to organize everyday life and consolidate a sense of social cohesion, control, and identity" (Anderson 2017, p. 8). In the beginning of modern society,

neighbourhoods were classified on the basis of physical interdependences, the need for social support and control over individual behaviour, especially by religious organisations (Garrioch 2001). Galster (2001, p. 2112) defined neighbourhood as "the bundle of spatially based attributes associated with clusters of residences, sometimes in conjunction with other land uses". Forrest and Kearns (2001, p. 2134) defined neighbourhood as "overlapping social networks with specific and variable time-geographies." In a similar vein, Howard Hallman (1984, p. 113) claims "a neighbourhood is a limited territory within a larger urban area where people inhabit dwellings and interact socially". The definition of the European Union (EU), however, offers somewhat a broader conceptualization, incorporating elements of the definitions above. The EU (2001) defined neighbourhood as a physical space with complex interactions between different activities and actions, which collectively form the living environment for the inhabitants. Clearly, the elements of space, people, interactions and activities are core attributes which shape neighbourhoods. Given these attributes and broadly categorised into demographic, institutional, topographic and social, the likelihood of defining, creating and measuring neighbourhoods, becomes more pertinent (Galster 2001).

In an attempt to enrich scholarly understanding of neighbourhoods, several models have been proposed. The most acknowledged, however, are those based on physical and administrative boundaries and subjective identifications (Forrest 2009; The Young Foundation 2010). A neighbourhood may be defined by physical boundaries such as waterways or highways and by administrative boundaries, such as Census areas or tracts (Holland et al., 2010). Particularly, planners and urban designers often define neighbourhoods based on important building blocks of urban social spaces (Kallus and Law-Yon 2000). Although this official delineation is well acknowledged and applied (Geyer 2018), other scholars believe that neighbourhoods are largely social productions (Massey, Gross, and Shibuya 1994; Martin 2003; Bond et al. 2015).

Though often criticised as being inaccurate and biased, subjective definitions of neighbourhood have achieved considerable traction and are especially favoured in neighbourhood and community studies (Keller 1968; Gould and White 1974; Hunter 1974; Guest and Lee 1984; Anderson 1990; Lee and Campbell 1997). Here, residents dwell on features including demographics (e.g., age, race, sex) and physical characteristics (e.g., landmarks, streets and rivers) to define their neighbourhood (Haeberle 1988). Socially produced spaces, it is argued, although incongruent with administrative or census tracts boundaries, are often similar to the latter when viewed from aggregate measures of socio-economic indicators (Coulton et al. 2001). Such neighbourhood units are often vernacular in nature, hence, indistinct (Getis 2015). This notwithstanding, in a situation where limited resources have to be distributed, subjective demarcations become important for planners to divide a region for the purposes of resource allocation. These arbitrary divisions, it is noted, sometimes become official neighbourhoods even when the urban area undergoes rapid transformation (Getis 2015).

In the words of Galster (1986, p. 243), the challenge in delineating precise measures of neighbourhood often leaves scholars "impaled on the horns of a dilemma. On the one hand, views of neighbourhood grounded in individual cognition and collective sentiment have had little operational content since they have not been employed in the specification of boundaries. On the other hand, views of neighbourhood as defined by clear administrative boundaries have had no necessary correspondence with the perceptual reality of individuals in the given area". These disparate narratives have forced social scientists to think more creatively about the operationalization of the concept in empirical research (Woodredge 2002).

3.2 Dimensions and boundaries of neighbourhood

Efforts to understand the dynamic nature of neighbourhood as a spatial unit have led to several scholarly perspectives. Elliott et al. (2006) propose three critical dimensions of neighbourhood; (1) as a small residential area located within a larger community, (2) an area that enables direct interaction among social entities and provide impetus for the formation of social life, and (3) an area which is embedded within the psychological identities of both residents and non-residents, often resulting from the socio-political history of its evolution. These encapsulations clearly suggest the possibility of "multiple and intersecting neighbourhood boundaries" (Campbell et al. 2009. p 11). The boundaries are defined by physical landmarks and critical resources, the spatial extent of social interactions, and or through analysis of residents' cognitive imagination of their immediate environment (Coulton, Korbin and Su 1996; Downs and Stea 1973). The various spatial boundaries of neighbourhoods are discussed below.

3.2.1 Neighbourhood as a place

Neighbourhoods are where people reside and spend a lot of their time. For urban residents, neighbourhoods are places that determine their quality of life and economic standing (Logan and Molotch 1987). Agnew (1987; 1989) defines place as locale (site of daily life), location (a site with connections and relations to broader social, political, and economic processes at varying levels), and sense of place (affective feelings). According to Escobar (2001), places are created through two processes: political economy and humanistic sense of place. While political economy shapes places through local and global economic processes of capital, the sense of place reflects the sentiments of people about a place, derived principally from experiences, personal attachments and social relations.

Social interactions are critical in shaping the meaning of places (Gotham 2003). Thus, people build their sense of place and in turn this determines how such places fit into their social identity (Stedman 2002). According to Martin (2003), the neighbourhoods that formed the bases of work of the University of Chicago sociologists in the first half of the 20th century were places where people lived and worked, in addition to worshipping. In their article, and using data from ten cities, Coulton et al. (2011) demonstrates how resident-drawn maps gathered in a household survey can be used to identify and define individual and collective neighbourhoods. Place plays a major role in shaping peoples' life. This is reflected in a report by the UK Department of Health, which stresses the impact of a neighbourhood as a place on health and general well-being. The report highlights that in a neighbourhood where people know and trust each other, and where they have opinion on community affairs, residents always find support in coping with daily life stresses and shocks (Morrow 1999, p.745 as cited in Forrest 2009). Such a place can be referred to as a resilient neighbourhood.

3.2.2 Neighbourhood as a community

The idea of defining neighbourhood as a community is not new, and the two concepts are sometimes thought to be synonymous (Wellman and Leighton 1979). Chaskin (1997) notes that the two terms are confusing, as their distinction is blurred, nevertheless, their relatedness is well acknowledged (Blokland 2003). The main difference has to do with their boundaries. Unlike most subjectively defined neighbourhoods, communities have clearly defined borders and boundaries (Aitken 2000, p. 74). Geographically demarcated neighbourhoods as communities are considered the most prevalent in urban and community studies (Park et al. 1967; Wellman and Leighton 1979; Raco and Flint 2001; Forrest and Kearns, 2001). A neighbourhood may also qualify to be classified as community when constructed following administrative or census tract definitions. Community invokes connection, including shared beliefs and concerns. The connections that unite a group of people together in a given community, it is believed, may not always be present in a place (Chaskin 1997). Regardless, neighbourhood as a community continues to be central to the work of social scientists and policy makers, especially in poor and marginalized areas, where people often either have strong sense of community or lack such, as a result of degraded social capital (Forrest 2009).

3.2.3 Neighbourhood as a unit of policy formulation

The need to address local-level issues serves as a precursor for planning initiatives to consider and incorporate neighbourhood particularities in decision-making process. Meegan and Mitchell (2001) are of the view that national and regional government policies to tackle, for instance, exclusion and inequality are best approached at the neighbourhood level. The neo-liberal forms of governance, which attach importance to inclusiveness and delegated government functions (Peck 1995; Elwood and Leitner 2003), it is argued, have contributed in reinforcing participatory local level policy and decision making (Martin 2003). At the neighbourhood level, policy and planners seek to residents' input on matters concerning their general welfare (Raco and Flint 2001; Meegan and Mitchell 2001; Docherty, Goodlad and Paddison 2001; McCann, 2001).

But of particular interest is when a political agenda of creating a new neighbourhood boundary clashes with local interests. In such a situation, Martin (2003) argues that neighbourhood can emerge and be characterised by activism, as a measure to counter government imposition. To this end, Meegan and Mitchell (2001) contend that neighbourhoods are sometimes shaped by people's sentiment and events. Martin (2003) cites the work of Robinson (2001) to explain this scenario. Robinson's work explored the reaction of people to a proposed road in Glasgow, which according to them, would impact on nearby residential areas access to a local recreational park, in addition to worsening already deteriorated economic woes. People in the area expressed "fears of exclusion and segregation" about the proposed land-use change. This fierce resistance to land-use change resulted in a new, more rigid boundary for the neighbourhood (Robinson 2001, p. 101, as cited in Martin 2003). Similarly, McCann (2003) reported how residents' concerns over sprawl and growth in Austin, Texas, were transformed into new neighbourhood-based on planning and zoning programs.

3.3 Emergence of neighbourhood as a research unit

In the field of urban planning, the neighbourhood concept is believed to have originated from Ebenezer Howard's vision of the "garden city" in the 19th century, advanced as a vehicle to curb slum emergence and associated problems in the industrial world, especially in London (Hall 2002). Howard conceptualised the reorganization of city structure based on radiating concentric rings of avenues, housing, and businesses, around a civic centre. In this concept, small-scale businesses were prioritized over large-scale factories, with the idea that the small-scale enterprises would enhance development of interpersonal relationships and social cohesion among residents. Howard's garden city was limited to around 30, 000 people, living on 1000 acres of land, and surrounded by rural land uses (Anderson 2017). Although the development of a more socially equitable society through planning processes never fully materialised, Howard's concept later played an important role in influencing planned communities across Europe and the United States (Anderson 2017). The neighbourhood concept in planning, identified by sociologist and planner, Clarence Perry, is said to have emerged from ideas for the garden city. Perry (1929) called for the criticality of design in enhancing neighbourhood identity in well-planned communities.

Anthropologists have a different perspective. In the field of anthropology, the concept is widely associated with the work of the Chicago School in the 1920s and 1930s (Konings, van Dijk and Foeken 2006). The underlying approach of their work has been termed 'ecological' (Hunter 1974, 5), a term attributed to Robert Park, who applied concepts of dominance, symbiosis and succession from plant ecology to urban environments. Park believed that the fundamental structuring of urban areas is competition for space (Hannerz 1980, p. 27). Hannerz encapsulates this approach as resembling natural selection, by which "the strongest inhabitants of the urban environment would occupy the most advantageous locations, and others would adjust to their demands". For Hannerz, the Chicago School's idea of formulating a general theoretical models of urban transformation on the basis of their ethnographic studies in Chicago implied "that the Chicago spatial order was the spatial order of any city" (Hannerz 1980, 57), which was later seen as a major weakness (Burawoy 2000, p. 14).

Neighbourhood scholarship can be traced back to the industrial urbanization of the late-19th and early 20th centuries. This is the period when scholars started analysing the effects of urban residence on various forms of social life and peoples relationships with their communities (Tönnies 1955; Durkheim 1964; Simmel 1971). Here, the Chicago School is widely credited for pioneering this line of research with their ethnographic studies, which sought to provide neighbourhood typologies and the cycles of land-use transformations change that precipitated temporal transitions of neighbourhoods (Park et al., 1967). Hunter (1979, p. 267) points out three main scholarship focus during the time; "(1) typologies, (2) stages of change, and (3) functions which include economic, administrative, political and social". While the typological approach, derived from the Chicago School of urban sociology, identifies core demographic (e.g., ethnicity, age, sex) and physical (e.g., housing stock) environmental characteristics that together form a neighbourhood type, that of stages approach (also associated with the Chicago School) deals with neighbourhood development from the perspective of economic growth and human mobility within urban areas. The functional category, on the other hand, analyses neighbourhoods through the functions they perform, including various administrative, economic and social functions (Hunter 1979). Castells (1977) is of the view that urban neighbourhoods have a primary function as a locus of social production and reproduction of labour force, with government having responsibility of providing critical services (e.g., recreational centres like parks, hospitals and clinics, schools) to enhance liveability.

3.4 Neighbourhood change

Neighbourhood change has received considerable attention (e.g., Lupton and Power 2004; Megbolugbe, Hoek-Smit and Linneman 1996). Scholars have studied types and causes of neighbourhood change, as well as policy implications of neighbourhood decline (Tunstall 2016). The temporal dynamics of neighbourhood, particularly physical decline and the onset of social and economic deprivation are major concerns in urban management and policy. Neighbourhood poverty exacerbates living conditions in poor neighbourhoods while intensifying marginalization and political agitation among residents (Geyer 2018). Urban sociology work on neighbourhood decline (e.g., Grigsby et al. 1987; Park and Burgess 1925), and specifically spiral of decline of social housing estates (e.g., Tunstall and Power 1995), have been particularly influential in strengthening this area of inquiry. Appreciation of neighbourhood change is critical as it has great policy implications, particularly concerning how absolute or relative negative neighbourhood change (physical, economic, cultural or socio-economic) can be addressed through policy measures (Tunstall 2016).

The literature is full of models of neighbourhood change (Megubogle et al. 1996). Existing models, however, highlight issues, including trajectories, characteristics and causes of neighbourhood change, with less attention given to the particularities and extent of change (Tunstall 2016). Scholars have attributed this gap to lack of longitudinal data on neighbourhoods (Gregory, Dorling and Southall 2001; Meen, Nygaard and Meen 2013). The nature of neighbourhood change and poverty, in addition to the various causal factors operating at various scales, is particularly a matter of debate among scholars (Lang 2000). One major strand of the literature captures long-term stability in relative neighbourhood status over time, with path dependency or lack of relative change recognised as one of the major factors underlining the explanation of neighbourhood temporal dynamics (Meen et al., 2013; Robertson et al., 2010). For instance, many critics of regeneration policy are of the view that whatever change theory is favoured, regeneration tends to result in population movement rather than in situ population change, with state-sponsored gentrification likely to occur within projects lifespan (e.g., Uitermark and Bosker 2014). Observations of regeneration policy in the UK, however, shows little change in the rankings of local authorities in terms of relative deprivation despite appropriate policy measures (Tunstall 2016). Other empirical evidence has shown long-term stability in relative neighbourhood status, with classical example being the 1896 relative social status of neighbourhoods in inner London which was consistent with deprivation measures for the same area nearly a century later in 1991 (Dorling, Mitchell, Shaw, Orford and Smith 2000). Using 15 years data from England, Tunstall (2016) demonstrates what we know about neighbourhood change, and corresponding regeneration policy needed to enhance it. Further data on unemployed and middle-class residents as a representation of all residents in all neighbourhoods in England and Wales for the periods 1985-2005 and 2001-2011, showed that "neighbourhoods are generally slothful rather than dynamic". Tunstall notes that significant changes in neighbourhoods can only be expected over a considerable period than conventional regeneration policy timespan. For Tunstall (2016, p. 18), "it is not clear how much neighbourhood change goes on without policy, including in neighbourhoods that have declined and are deprived by some measure. Thus, we don't know how difficult a task of neighbourhood regeneration policy faces when it attempts to instigate change". Tunstall calls for more information on the pervasiveness and scale of neighbourhood change to allow for study and theorization of neighbourhood change.

A major concern of neighbourhood change literature is the range of negative outcomes associated with neighbourhood poverty. Evidences are mixed. On one hand, poverty has long been correlated with unfavourable outcomes, such as low-levels of school readiness and long-term academic attainment for children and youth (Garner and Raudenbush 1991; Ensminger et al., 1996; Brooks-Gunn et al. 1997a, 1997b; Klebanov et al., 1998; Caughy and O'Campo 2006). Evidence shows that children from high poverty areas are likely to be stunted, experience infant mortality, child abuse and school dropout as well as encounter behavioural problems and teen pregnancy (Gephart 1997). An analysis of 2000 Census data estimated that over 6 million children in the U.S. lived in high-poverty neighbourhoods, with minority children who happen to be African-American and Hispanic, disproportionately represented across high prevalent neighbourhoods (O'Hare and Mather 2003). Neighbourhood poverty has longed remained a major social issue in the US, particularly in Black communities. Wilson showed that the loss of African American elites and the middle class left many neighbourhoods desolate, with no prospects for jobs and better education (Wilson 1987). On the other hand, living in less poverty prevalent neighbourhoods has been observed to impact positively on cognitive abilities beyond the influence of family characteristics (Brooks-Gunn et al. 1993). The effect of exposure to relatively rich neighbourhoods becomes apparent and more influential during schooling days of children, as this is the period children are likely to be influenced by peer groups in their neighbourhoods. In addition, the level of unemployment in a particular neighbourhood also influences how children behave and physically relate to people (Coulton et al., 1995; Chase-Landsdale et al., 1997).

3.5 Neighbourhood effects

A related focus is neighbourhood effects. Neighbourhood effects have received considerable attention over the past three decades, particularly in the developed world. It is the idea that living in disadvantaged areas has a negative effect on peoples life chances over and above the effect of their individual characteristics (van Ham and Manley 2010). Thus, it is a field that deals with how people's immediate environment influences their life chances, beyond individual and family characteristics (Raudenbush and Bryk 2002). The neighbourhood effects theory is believed to have emerged from the work of Lewis (1961), who argued that a 'culture of poverty' hindered the life chances of inhabitants living in poor neighbourhoods in Mexico City (Martin 2003). Other scholars are of the opinion that neighbourhood effects literature is traced to the work of an American Sociologist Herbert Gans (1968) in the 1960s (van Ham et al. 2012). The popularity and currency of the concept, however, has been attributed to the work of William Julius Wilson and his book "The Truly Disadvantaged: The Inner City, the Underclass and Public Policy" (Wilson 1987). Wilson dwelt on ethnographic research to provide a detailed account of the effects of living in concentrations of poverty in Chicago and he concluded that the "local conditions and the social practices of residents of poor areas cannot be understood independently of the macro social and economic forces which shape them" (Darcy and Gwyther 2011). While ecological approaches view such effects as a product of external influences, subcultural sees it as impact of human urgency. Political approaches on the other hand, uphold the view that neighbourhood effects are structural, resulting from 'social relations of production and accumulation' (Gever 2018). The implicit literature assumption is that there exists a relationship between neighbourhood environment and social, economic and environmental outcomes. In view of this, studies have concentrated on analysing the impacts of the 'social and physical milieus immediate to residential environments upon individual behaviour' (Martin 2003). Scholars have reported neighbourhood effects on various outcomes, including but not limited to social exclusion, school dropout rate, educational achievement, health and social and occupational mobility (Ellen and Turner 1997; Galster 2002; Dietz 2002; Durlauf 2004; van Ham et al. 2012). According to van Ham et al. (2012), the increasing scholarship on neighbourhood effects, reflect not only interest, but also the difficulty in finding answers to the question how important neighbourhood effects are. The effects are widely acknowledged, however, it is unclear the causal mechanisms which drive them, their relative importance compared to individual characteristics such as education, and under which circumstances and where these effects are important (van Ham et al. 2012).

In their study, Ellen and Turner (1997) presented six distinct mechanisms through which neighbourhood factors may influence individual outcomes: quality level of local services, socialisation, peer pressure, social networks, exposure to crime and violence, and physical distance and isolation. Other intervening factors equally important in determining neighbourhood life chances include income, household tenure and parent's level of education (Talen 1999; Buck 2001; Ellaway et al. 2001; Forrest and Kearns 2001). The social and built environment have been observed to play a critical role in neighbourhood participation of various kinds (Oswald et al. 2011, as cited in van Der Pas et al. 2015). Caughy et al. (2013) observed that poor physical conditions of a neighbourhood correlates with acute behavioural problems among children, with a radius between 400 and 800 metres surrounding a child's home being a geographic extent of concern. High poverty rates, singleparent households, unemployment, absence of rich and well-educated neighbours, as well as high rates of welfare support programs, have been found to play important role in life outcomes of children (Ellen and Turner 1997). Such neighbourhood factors are deemed critical in influencing, for instance, the cognitive development of children (Vaden-Kiernan et al. 2010). Neighbourhoods are widely regarded in theory and research not only as important geographical unit, but also as an ecological space for understanding the development of children (Levanthal and Brooks-Gunn 2000; Roosa et al. 2003; Nettles et al. 2008; Swisher 2008).

The poverty-neighbourhood nexus has particularly received considerable attention. Lifechances of individuals, measured usually by poverty and employment, are known to be strongly associated with neighbourhood factors. Evidence shows that the probability of finding job in poor neighbourhood is lower than in affluent neighbourhoods (Buck 2001). Ellaway et al. (2001) reported that neighbourhood factors affect peoples' perceptions about their health, about area problems and social cohesion in a neighbourhood. Elsewhere in the developing world, evidence shows that individual-level subjective well-being is influenced by neighbourhood level socioeconomic status (Cramm et al. 2011). This finding is corroborated by that of van Der Pas et al. (2015), who examined components of home and neighbourhood among older people. The study reported that features of home (e.g., basic amenities, household composition, financial status and safety) and neighbourhood (e.g., ability to shop for groceries, participate in organizations and feel safe from crime) are positively associated with life satisfaction. These issues, among others, continue to make neighbourhood more appealing, especially to policy makers (Forrest and Kearns 2001; Kintrea and Atkinson 2002), as a critical spatial unit where geographically tailored solutions to socioeconomic and environmental problems can be implemented with high optimal societal benefits.

A major challenge in neighbourhood effects research is the identification of true causal effects (Durlauf 2004). Existing studies have failed to adequately address the problem (van Ham et al. 2012), with many overly concentrating on correlations between individual outcomes and neighbourhood attributes (Cheshire 2007; van Ham and Manley 2010).

3.6 Importance of neighbourhood as a research unit

The relevance of neighbourhoods in scholarship, social relations and policy, is well established. While some scholars are a bit sceptical regarding their relevance (e.g. Webber 1963; Fischer 1982), evidence has shown that social processes such as immigration, life style, crime, unemployment, and housing quality are often best studied and understood at the neighbourhood level (Kawachi and Subramanian 2007). Neighbourhoods create social identity and meaning (Forrest 2009). While critical in shaping cities' futures (Temkim and Rohe 1996), neighbourhoods produce the necessary environments that encourage interaction among residents, which aid in building vital societal notions about community, in addition to understanding peoples' perception of their social environment (Swatt, Varano and Uchida 2012).

Regional scientists have argued that neighbourhoods as 'mini regions' are critical because they have immediate impact on the well-being of households more "than regions through delivering a set of social conditions, physical amenities, and local public services, and through shaping access to the broader region" (Ellen and O'Regan 2010). Studying neighbourhoods as a core thematic area under regional science, it is argued, has great potential in enriching the discipline's understanding of core regional issues. The argument is that households' and businesses choose neighbourhoods to be located in, not just regions, hence, such places become hub for "broader regional development" (Ellen and O'Regan 2010). These local areas can become the engines and incubators of groundbreaking innovations and creativity with concomitant long lasting effects on local, regional and national development.

Neighbourhoods play important role in understanding behavioural characteristics. Thus, peoples' actions and inactions are better appreciated if the context and or neighbourhoods are taken into consideration (Subramanian et al., 2003), forming a formidable base for life in the process. This is especially important as many? people spend much? most of their time and lives in the neighbourhood, which plays significant role in determining their economic and social life (Sedaghatnia et al. 2013). Castells (1996, p. 423) argues 'the overwhelming majority of people ... live in places, and so they perceive their space as place-based'. They are places where people and organizations, including government agencies give meaning to their sociocultural and economic realities (Thomas and Thomas 1928).

The relevance of neighbourhoods also become evident in population sampling for research purposes. Grouping observations into neighbourhoods helps to avoid the problem of spatial autocorrelation within the sample. Thus, a well-defined neighbourhood has the potential in ensuring unbiased spatial units sampling (Getis 2015), with higher degree of independence. Healey (1998) also points out that neighbourhoods provide a useful lens and scale not only for studying, but also for understanding social relations of everyday life.

A healthy neighbourhood extends to the broader urban society. Neighbourhoods are favoured for social policies because of their ability in solving social problems. Particularly, the creation of mixed neighbourhoods have been strongly advocated (Kearns and Forrest 2000; Veldboer et al., 2002; Blokland 2008; Graham et al., 2009; Arthurson 2012; Bolt and van Kempen 2013). The likes of the National Strategy for Neighbourhood Renewal in the UK, the Socially Integrative City programme in Germany, and the policies for "hometown making" (Furusato-Zukuri) in Japan (Wissink and Hazelzet 2012), aimed at fostering a sense of belonging and enhancing social interaction, as well as curbing social ills, have been promoted (van Kempen and Wissink 2014).

The advent of information technology, including social media platforms, with their superficial social relations are believed to be eroding societal bonds which exist among people within urban space (Forrest 2009). The deterioration of social cohesion, especially in urban settings has reinforced the importance of neighbourhood as a critical space for rebuilding and strengthening social capital. The works of Putnam (1993a, 1993b) have particularly influenced policy makers' decisions on the criticality of social relations in creating and revitalizing local communities at the neighbourhood level.

Further, neighbourhoods are core units of planning and development strategies. Various urban services deemed critical for improving wellbeing can be effectively tested and

implemented at the neighbourhood level (Olowoporoku et al. 2017). Redevelopment strategies, particularly regarding gentrification, where people of higher economic status displaces those of lower class, are effectively engineered and implemented at the neighbourhood level.

3.7 Approaches to studying neighbourhood

Over the years, scholars have applied various methods in studying neighbourhoods. In general, quantitative techniques, such as the application of Geographic Information System (GIS) and statistical modelling have been dominant. In addition, cluster and factor analysis have been used to distinguish between places with different characteristics. Scholars have used GIS-based functions to analyse complex neighbourhood problems (e.g., Weeks et al. 2007; Willemse 2013; Jagarnath and Thammbiran 2017). The suggestion has been that more GIS-based spatially continuous functions are needed to analyse socio-demographic and environmental data (Srinivasan et al., 1996; Martin 1998; Wong 2001). GIS, as a complex system to capture, view, organize, analyse and present spatial data (Gershoff et al. 2009), has been widely applied in many fields, including sociology (e.g., Sampson, Raudenbush and Earls 1997) and social work (e.g., Wong and Hillier 2001), education (e.g., Teitler and Weiss 2000), as well as psychology (e.g., Aneshensel and Sucoff 1996). Scholars use the system to delineate and quantify neighbourhood impacts on residents (Gershoff et al. 2009).

To allow for local level participation in planning processes, researchers have employed techniques, such as community participatory GIS mapping (Schnell et al., 2005). Researchers use residents' perceptions to subjectively characterize their environment; a means of promoting local level planning participation (Talen 1999b; Ceccato and Snickars 2000). The emergence of GIS applied research has made it possible for scholars to study residents' socioeconomic and environmental perceptions at the neighbourhood level. More importantly, recent advances has made it possible to develop and interpret perceptual databases at deeper depth (Schnell et al. 2005).

Land-use models have been used to delineate neighbourhood residential areas into cohorts, including income and residential status. These models, however, have been heavily criticized, first, on the bases that they are not comprehensive in understanding the dynamics of neighbourhood change (Arguello et al. 2013). Thus, land-use models are not sophisticated enough to enable appropriate assessment of the complex urban dynamics, social relationships and the fluidity and circulations among urban residents (Dierwechter 2004; Simone 2010). A related but more advanced approach has been adopted; the application of remote sensing, which has high capability in presenting a more dynamic visualization of urban change. This approach utilises vegetation cover, housing density and dwelling configurations to capture temporal dynamics as a proxy measure of neighbourhood change and spatial extent of informal settlements (Weeks et al. 2007; Stoler, Daniels and Weeks 2012). According to Arguello et al. (2013), this is useful especially in analysing large-scale changes, but less effective in understanding contextual changes at the neighbourhood level.

Application of statistical models have also received considerable attention. For instance, multilevel models have been used to study neighbourhood effects and early child development (Vaden-Kiernan et al. 2010), neighbourhood wellbeing in South Africa (Cramm et al. 2011) and neighbourhood space and BMI association in Egypt (Mowafi et al. 2012). Given that scholars in education, sociology and social work, psychology and urban studies study the extent to which neighbourhoods affect human behaviour and life chances, relevant questions are best analysed using multilevel techniques (Lee 2000). Other scholars have

employed ordinary regression analysis to study neighbourhood perception on safety and vulnerability in Nigeria (Okunola and Amole 2012), neighbourhood change and liveability in South Africa (van der Pas et al. 2015; Geyer 2018) and spatial dependence in child behaviour in the USA (Caughy et al. 2013). Other relevant statistical methods include the application of path analysis to study neighbourhood social cohesion in China (Liu et al. 2017), index technique to define neighbourhoods in Ghana (Weeks et al. 2007) and factor and cluster analysis (Gershoff 2009; Vaden-Kiernan et al. 2010; Geyer 2018).

In addition to the quantitative methods, qualitative techniques, such as interviews, observations, as well as focus group discussions have been widely employed by many scholars. For instance, Coen et al. (2008) used case study to understand the relevance of neighbourhood stores in Bolivia. Horn (2004) employed interviews to study neighbourhood transitions in South Africa. Similarly, Kyessi (2005) used interviews to study neighbourhood water management in Tanzania. Other studies have employed mixed methods approach (e.g., Nkurunziza 2006; Westaway 2009; Arguello et al. 2013). Given the complex and dynamic nature of neighbourhoods, applying mixed methods holds great promise in accurately assessing neighbourhoods, taking into consideration the diverse characteristics and experiences of residents. Clearly measuring neighbourhoods using mixed methods will enable appropriate and tailored local level interventions (Nicotera 2008).

3.8 Challenges of neighbourhood research

The study of neighbourhood is bedevilled with lots of challenges, ranging from exact definition, through data to methodological approaches. How to accurately define neighbourhood has longed been a subject of debate among scholars (Bursik and Grasmick 1993; Gephart 1997; Hallman 1984; Keller 1968; Lee and Campbell 1997). The challenge of defining appropriate neighbourhood borders, the relevance of place-based versus personcentred models of social relations in current dispensation, has particularly been a major discourse (Elliott and Sims 2001; Fischer 1982; Wellman and Leighton 1979; White and Guest 2003). Boundary definition is especially important in studying neighbourhood effects. The argument is that scholars description "of the social, organizational, and cultural capacity of a neighbourhood, its level of disorganization, or its cohesiveness, depends on where the neighbourhood's boundaries are drawn a priori. If these initial boundaries miss the mark, the study findings may be misleading" (Campbell et al. 2009). The study of Hipp (2007) clearly demonstrates the sensitivity of neighbourhood boundary. In the study, Hipp illustrates the sensitivity of neighbourhood effects research to boundary definition by offering empirical evidence that depicts that neighbourhood attributes vary in their effects on perceptions of crime and disorder, owning to whether they are assessed at the tract or block level. Ad hoc neighbourhood boundary definition is likely to affect the ability of empirical studies to objectively measure neighbourhood characteristics (Ellen and Turner 1997). Given that scholars usually measure neighbourhood characteristics at census tract level, in a situation where such tracts fail to accurately capture critical neighbourhood conditions, study validity may be hampered. For instance, while factors such as vandalism or crime may be dependent on a family's block that have an impact, others may be due to conditions in the larger geographical space (Ellen and Turner 1997).

A related challenge is data availability. Neighbourhood level data are not readily available in most countries, especially in the developing world. A UN-Habitat report (2010, p. 2) has pointed out that inadequate data on urban Africa represents a "knowledge vacuum, resulting in uninformed policy or decision-making, or the wrong scale or focus", resulting in outdated

and limited neighbourhood knowledge (UN Habitat, 2010 as cited in Arguello et al. 2013). According to Weeks et al. (2007), a particular neighbourhood characteristic of interest, for instance, age cohort, may cut across a census division, a situation that can result in errors, especially when effort to define neighbourhood is contingent on available census divisions data (Weeks et al. 2007).

Another challenge is in the area of methodological approaches, particularly in studying neighbourhood effects. Ellen and Turner (1997) identified three major methodological limitations. The first is the difficulty in identifying and assessing neighbourhood conditions that are critical in constructing outcomes, for instance, for children and families. The second is that neighbourhood effects may be nonlinear, hence, difficult to understand. The third pitfall, according to the scholars, is the challenge in disentangling "the effects of neighbourhood environment from individual or family characteristics, especially characteristics that are difficult to measure and observe". Inability to effectively tackle these limitations, it is argued, could result in studies overestimating the effects of neighbourhood environmental factors on individual outcomes (Ellen and Turner 1997). Linked to this is the issue of defining research objects. Researchers have acknowledged the difficulty in defining, for instance, succinct surrogate factors to assess neighbourhood change. This is challenging because neighbourhoods are under constant change (Fong and Shibuya 2003).

3.9 Neighbourhood conditions, health and education

This section looks at the neighbourhood-health-education connections, which is a central concern of SHLC. Studies examining the interlinkages between neighbourhood conditions and health and education have increased over the past two decades (Oakes et al., 2015; O'Campo et al. 2015). Neighbourhood conditions have long been observed to correlate with health and education of residents. Particularly, features such as walkability, poverty, social cohesion and crime have been identified as major factors inhibiting health outcomes at the neighbourhood level (Diez Roux and Mair 2010). Investigations in the domain of healthneighbourhood relationship have largely been spearheaded by epidemiological studies seeking to examine the patterns and trends of disease and health across geographic regions and populations (Berkman and Kawachi 2000; Macintyre 2002). More importantly, recent analyses have been given practical impetus as public health continues to focus on placebased interventions to promote population health, while bridging health inequality (Marmot et al., 2008; Frieden 2010). Although this area of research is beset with lots of challenges, including weak study designs, poor measurement of neighbourhood conditions and over reliance on administrative neighbourhood definitions (Arcaya et al. 2016), significant contributions have been made. Scholars have studied many issues with varying degrees of evidences, including neighbourhood conditions or effects on early child health outcomes (Sellstrom and Bremberg 2006; Christian et al., 2015), general health outcomes (Pickett and Pearl 2001; Yen et al., 2009), mental health (Truong and Ma 2006), perinatal outcomes (Metcalfe et al., 2011) and depression (Kim 2008; Mair et al., 2008). The emerging conclusion from these studies is that neighbourhood conditions play a major role in determining health outcomes.

Neighbourhood conditions also matter for educational attainment, particularly among children and youths (Nieuwenhuis and Hooimeijer 2016). Critical traits such as cognitive skills, problem solving competency, interpersonal relationship, self-control and general intelligence are acquired through education (Mirowski and Ross 2005). These traits are crucial for social status mobility and meaningful leaving in society. Importantly, education

positively correlates with better health outcomes for residents (Zimmerman and Woolf 2014). It is argued that studies on educational outcomes that focus on students' residential areas are likely to overestimate the importance of local schools, just as those on educational outcomes that to not consider the school environment (Bernelius and Kauppinen 2012). To Bernelius and Kauppinen (2012), education is critical for neighbourhood and individual well-being, as it plays an important role in determining life outcomes. Evidence from Finland, for instance, shows that people living in well-educated neighbourhoods are overrepresented when it comes to academic options (Kauppinen 2004, 2007). Evidence again shows that deprived neighbourhoods, where there is higher rates of unemployment, have few individuals who can serve as role models of educational merit, hence, people are unlikely to cherish the essence of education in their life (Wilson 1996; Ainsworth 2002). Literature on neighbourhood conditions and education also largely concur that neighbourhood conditions are critical for educational outcomes.

Geographically, studies investigating how neighbourhoods affects health and education have been biased, with most focused on the developed world. Given that the social, economic and environmental contexts between developed and developing worlds differ markedly, attempts to study neighbourhood effects on health and education in developing countries, especially in Africa and Asia using empirical data would be a step in the right direction, with every potential to make significant contribution both in science and in practice.

4 Neighbourhood studies in developed and developing countries

Decades ago, scholars viewed neighbourhoods as a spatial unit for understanding the dynamism in urban environments (Brand 1972; Konadu-Agyemang 2001; Pellow 2008). The advent of globalisation has led to a paradigm shift (Arguello et al. 2013), with current research capturing wide range of perspectives, including but not limited to definitional constructs, neighbourhood effects and change, social capital, residential segregation, as well as satisfaction and lifestyle preference (Forrest and Kearns 2001; Holland et al, 2010; van Kempen and Wissink 2014). Generally, neighbourhood research seeks to examine perceptions and experiences in addition to measuring neighbourhood effect on life chances among residents (Leventhal and Brooks-Gunn 2000; Sampson et al., 2002).

The relevance of neighbourhood scholarship was illustrated in 2001, when *Urban Studies* published a special issue on neighbourhood. This was to allow scholars make definitional contribution to the concept, investigate the correlates of neighbourhood effects and life chances (Buck 2001; Ellaway et al., 2001), understand social capital and identities (Forrest and Kearns 2001; Kearns and Parkinson 2001; Purdue 2001), as well as neighbourhood politics and decision making process (Allen and Cars 2001; Docherty Goodlad and Paddison 2001). Also worth mentioning is the contribution on using neighbourhood as an indicator of urban growth and change (Butler and Robson 2001; Galster 2001).

Given the differences in development levels, neighbourhood issues are likely to be distinct between developed and developing countries. The remaining section focuses largely on neighbourhood studies in both developed and developing countries. The idea here is to understand whether there are differences in research focus between developed and developing world.

A total number of 79 articles (for developing countries) and 83 (for developed countries were retrieved from various sources to understand the scholarship patterns in the developing world. The analyses show a steady growth (from second half of 2000) in the neighbourhood literature on the developing world. In the developed world, scholarship interest started back in the late 1990's. Figure 1 shows that there was a little interest in neighbourhood research between 1990 and 2000 in the developing world, with interest growing only from 2006. In terms of approach (Figure 2) in the developing world, quantitative studies (52%) are dominant, followed by qualitative (38%), with studies combining both approaches (mixed methods) being the minority (10%). Similar picture is painted for the developed world literature, suggesting that neighbourhood studies largely follow quantitative approaches.

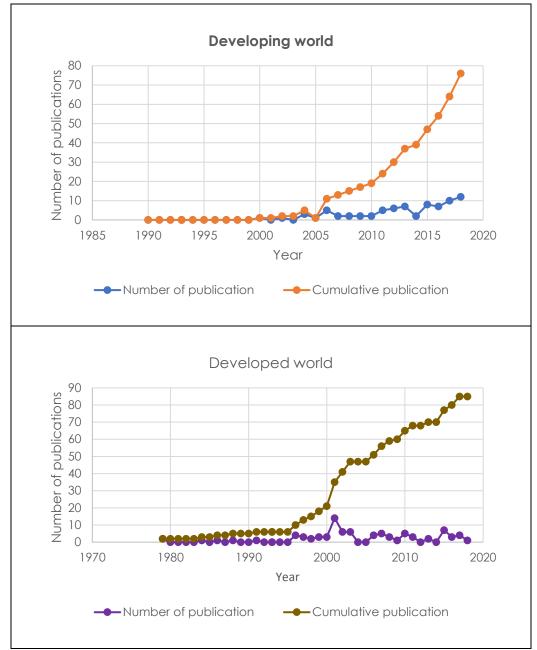


Figure 1: Total number of publications (n = 79 for developing countries, n = 83 for developed countries) and trends of neighbourhood literature in developed and developing countries

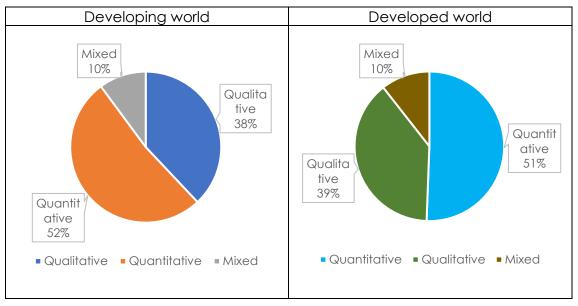


Figure 2: Methodological approach of neighbourhood literature in developing and developed countries

With regards to regional distribution, most of the studies in the developing world were conducted on Africa (51%), followed by Asia (excluding Japan) (48%) and then South America (1%). China, South Africa, India and Ghana are the countries with the highest number of publications, represented by 23, 22, 5 and 4, respectively. Figure 3 shows the study distribution. In the case of the developed world, North America leads with 60%, followed by Europe (33%), Australia (5%) and Asia (mainly Japan and Israel) (2%), in that order. The United States, Canada, England and Scotland, and The Netherlands have been instrumental in neighbourhood knowledge production in the Global North.

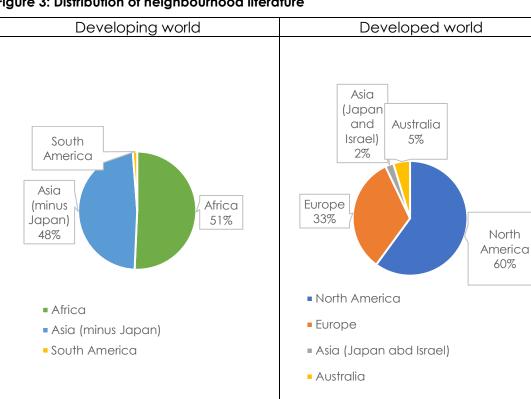


Figure 3: Distribution of neighbourhood literature

4.1 Scholarship focus

The developed world, particularly United States and United Kingdom have dictated scholarship trajectory in the field of neighbourhood research. As indicated on Figure 4, scholarship attention has focused on theoretical and methodological contributions on areas, such as neighbourhood effect and change, deprivation, exclusion and poverty and social capital.

The research focus in developing countries has a somewhat different orientation. The literature reveals major clusters, including satisfaction and wellbeing (e.g., Sarwar et al. 2006; Westaway 2009; Cramm et al. 2012; Lintelo et al. 2018), health (e.g., Mowafi et al 2012; Greif and Dodoo 2015; Smit et al. 2016; Azhar et al. 2018), social capital (e.g., Chola and Alaba 2013; Bwalya and Seethal 2016; Liu et al. 2017; Miao et al. 2018) and neighbourhood redevelopment (e.g., Wu 2010; Chitrakar et al. 2016; Liu et al. 2017; Wang and Shaw 2018). For instance, Gramm et al. employed multilevel regression analysis to examine individual- and neighbourhood-level factors that are critical for determining individual-level subjective well-being in Rhini, a deprived suburb of Grahamstown in the Eastern Cape province of South Africa. Westaway (2009) employed regression analysis to study environmental factors that affect neighbourhood satisfaction in disadvantaged and advantaged Johannesburg communities in South Africa. Elsewhere, Azhar et al. (2018) studied neighbourhood factors that influence the prevalence of abnormal mental health status among adolescents in Kuala Lumpur urban residents, while Mowafi et al. (2012) analysed green space and BMI correlates in Cairo, Egypt. Figure 4 shows the clusters and their corresponding number of papers for both developed and developing countries. In order to have general overview of the studies, Table 1 and 2 (in the appendix) present summary of the papers. From Table 1 and, it could be seen that three major disciplines (social sciences, built environment and health science) dominate neighbourhood scholarship in both developing and developed countries, with social sciences sub-disciplines such as Geography and Sociology, leading the knowledge production. In terms of approach, studies have been largely quantitative, with few qualitative studies as already indicated. With respect to data, while studies covering larger scope largely dwell on existing secondary data sets, small scale studies utilize primary data.

Other studies in the developing world have focused on examining contextual residential neighbourhood change, for instance, older slums in Accra (Agyei-Mensah and Owusu 2009), tenements (Huckzermeyer 2011) and social sustainability in Kibera informal settlement in Kenya (Baffoe and Mutisya 2015) and inner-city dynamism in Johannesburg (Murray 2008, 2011). Although the above studies captures elements of neighbourhood effects (e.g., health, education and social capital), it differs markedly from those of the developed world, underscoring the importance of contextualization. In the developed world, neighbourhood effect studies largely focus on issues such as race, segregation, migrants and housing welfare. These issues, although they exist at varying levels, are less pronounced in the developing world literature, especially in Africa, with the exception being South Africa. A classic divergent scholarship orientation between developed and developing countries can be seen in the area of housing environment and neighbourhood effects. While social housing has been the main focus in the developed world, slum upgrading and informality dominate the scholarship terrain in developing countries. It is common knowledge that issues of race, segregation and housing welfare are major social problems in developed countries (e.g., USA, UK and Canada), where migrants numbers continue to soar. But it is less so than in Nairobi, Jakarta or Chengdu. In terms of methodological approaches, there are no sharp differences as studies in both divides use common techniques. However, while developed

countries are noted for significant theoretical contributions in neighbourhood research, most studies in developing countries tend to be applied in nature (Baffoe 2019), with few contributions in spatial delineation of neighbourhood (Weeks et al. 2007; Getis 2015; Zhao and Zou 2017).

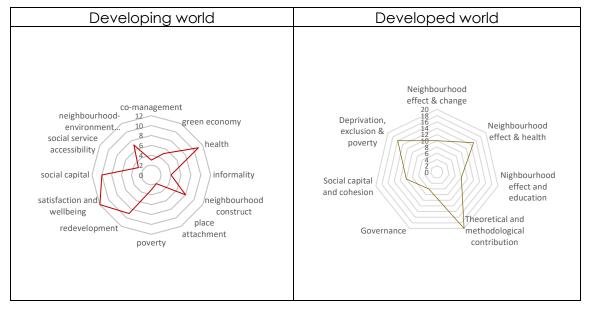


Figure 4: Clusters of neighbourhood literature in developing countries

5 Conclusion

This review aimed to understand how neighbourhood has been defined by various scholars, how it emerged as a major research domain, as well as scholarship challenges, in addition to application in developing countries, with ultimate goal of identifying potential research gaps to set future research agenda. The review shows that the concept is hotly contested. It defies singular definition, with context-specific definitions being dominant. Definitional constructs follow two dimensions; subjective and administrative (mainly census tracts) or geographically boundary demarcations. Elements such as people, social relations, space and activities culminate in creating a neighbourhood.

In terms of scholarship focus, it is skewed, with neighbourhood effects and change, deprivation, exclusion and poverty being the major areas of study, suggesting that there is still room for scientific contribution. Meanwhile, scholars in United States, England and Scotland have been the main actors leading and championing critical debates and discourses at both global and national levels. Interestingly, scholarship focus shifts when viewed from the spectrum of developing countries. Here, and particularly in Africa and Asia, neighbourhood effects and change have received little attention in urban context (Arguello et al. 2013), suggesting an urgent need for empirical analyses. Paramount research areas include satisfaction and wellbeing, redevelopment, health and social capital. Critical areas, such as neighbourhood education, livelihood, adaptation, security, asset, and built environment are under studied. Empirically examining these issues and how they inter-link to create and dissolve urban neighbourhoods and spaces, particularly, in developing countries would not only shape and influence policy, but also contribute to current knowledge, in addition to fostering contextual understanding of sustainable, healthy and learning neighbourhoods. This will also be important in bridging the scholarship dichotomy between developed and developing worlds. The complex and intricate nature of these issues will demand that data be generated through multiple sources to allow for contextual analysis and understanding. It is argued that in studying social issues and their complex interactions with structural processes, attention has to be put on data generation through, for instance, surveys, interviews and observations (Mowbray et al. 2007; ONS 2009). This triangulation approach will aid validation of primary data, in addition to enhancing accuracy, consistency and interpretation. Future neighbourhood studies, particularly in the developing world must endeavour to prioritize data generation and curation for contextual analysis.

In relation to methodological approaches, different techniques and approaches have been developed and applied over the past decades, with most studies employing quantitative methods, such as various regression models (e.g., multilevel and Ordinary Least Squares (OLS)), GIS and land-use models, path analysis, among others. Additionally, methods such as case studies, interviews and observations have been widely applied, especially by anthropologists. However, studies combining both qualitative and quantitative methods are few, but with promising outlook, as mixed methods continue to gain traction. Future studies need to critically think about how to effectively combine different research techniques to gather and analyse neighbourhood level data.

This review lays a strong foundation for the SHLC project, especially RTP2. First, given that neighbourhood effects studies on health and education are geographically biased, with most works conducted in the developed countries and relying largely on secondary data analysis, attempt to utilize reliable empirical data from developing countries context to analyse the interconnections between neighbourhood, health and education would be a major

contribution both in theory and in practice. Such analyses would be critical in answering questions 2 and 3 of RTP2, which seek to understand the association between neighbourhood characteristics and residents life chances, including health, education, and livelihood. Thus, the project has great potential in making significant contribution through empirical data generation. A related contribution would be the utility of mixed methods. Studies examining neighbourhood conditions on health and education have overly depended on statistical modelling and inferences, with little effort to unravel the contextual realities. Employing hybrid approaches (e.g., case studies, GIS, interviews, and observations) at various scales in data generation and analysis to understand neighbourhood peculiarities hold great promise in making significant contribution, particularly to questions 1 and 4 of RTP2. Meanwhile, future studies in developing world should endeavour to prioritize neighbourhood effects analysis, as the subfield is understudied in the global south.

Additionally, until now, literature has done little to operationalize neighbourhood resiliency. Current understanding is blurred. SHLC stands a great chance in pioneering this field. Applying and downscaling the resilience framework as a surrogate for sustainability, has potential not only in allowing for the integration of health, education and learning neighbourhoods, but also in empirical operationalization. The only theoretical contribution (Margot 2001) in this area suggested the application of capital approach. Margot argues that the resilience of a neighbourhood is contingent on the stability of the neighbourhood initial equilibrium state. A neighbourhood with abundant social (e.g., social networks, trust) and physical (e.g., park, market) capital stocks, the study argues, cannot be easily distorted in an event of shock, but this cannot be true of a neighbourhood with a scanty capital base, as they can easily be dispossessed. Although novel idea, the proposition is somewhat weak, as the capital base is limited to only two; social and physical. Neighbourhoods need multiple resources in complex combinations to be sustainable and resilient. The framework by Baffoe and Matsuda (2017) provides an extended and better alternative to conceptualize resilience, which can be applied to the neighbourhood level. The authors theorized and empirically tested scenarios under which communities can reduce vulnerability and enhance resilience based on five asset or capital (social, physical, economic, natural and human) endowment. It should be noted that capital and asset are interchangeably used in literature, with economic related studies favouring capital while human geography and development related studies use asset. Although originally applied to study livelihood, the framework is flexible and can easily be adopted and adapted to study any social issue at any scale in any context. Given that policy makers across the globe favour innovative comparable studies that can give quick impression of pressing societal issues, adopting this framework by SHLC will provide an opportunity to operationalize sustainability or resilience at the neighbourhood level, with an additional advantage of allowing for comparison across the case study countries.

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7 Appendix

Table 1: Summary of neighbourhood studies in developing countries

Author	Study location	Issue addressed	Approach	Discipline	Techniques	Nature of data
Getis 2015	Accra, Ghana	Analytical derivation of neighbourhoods using spatial statistics	Quantitative	Geography	AMOEBA and LOSH	Census tract data
Parsa et al. 2011	Dar es Salaam, Tanzania	Property rights in informal settlement	Quantitative	Built environment	Descriptive statistics, case studies	Survey data
Arguello et al. 2013	Korle Gono, Ghana	Downgrading reflections on indigenous neighbourhoods	Mixed	Geography	survey, interviews, Focus Group Discussion (FGD)	Field data
Weeks et al. 2007	Slums in Accra	Defining neighbourhood structure	Quantitative	Geography	Combined GIS- remote sensing	Census data
Greif and Dodoo 2015	Accra	Community characteristics and mental health in urban slums	Quantitative	Sociology	Multilevel regression	Survey data
Chola and Alaba 2013	South Africa	Social capital and neighbourhood association	Quantitative	Health science	Deprivation index	National survey data
Landman 2000	South Africa	Enclosed neighbourhoods	Review	Building and construction	Review	Literature
Oldfield 2004	South Africa	Racial integration and urban networks	Qualitative	Urban studies	Interviews	Primary data

Lemanski 2009	South Africa	Formal housing policies and informal backyard dwellings	Qualitative	Geography	Case study	Primary data
Smit et al. 2016	Khayelitsh, South Africa	Built environment and non- communicable diseases	Qualitative	Urban studies	Ethnography and literature review	Primary and secondary data
Van der Pas et al. 2015	Inanda, Ntuzuma and KwaMashu, south Africa	Home features and neighbourhood liveability among older people	Quantitative	Health science	Regression analysis	Secondary data
Bwalya and Seethal 2016	Southernwood, South Africa	Neighbourhood context and social interaction	Qualitative	Geography	Interviews and observations	Primary data
Park 2013	Nairobi slums	Neighbourhoods and violent victimisation	Quantitative	Sociology	Multilevel regression	Secondary data (Nairobi cross sectional Slum Survey)
Jagarnath and Thammbiran 2017	Durban wards, South Africa	Greenhouse gas emission inventory at the neighbourhood level	Quantitative	Environmental science	GIS and descriptive statics	Secondary data from various sources
Willemse 2013	Cape town, South Africa	Spatial analysis of neighbourhood park proximity	Quantitative	Geography	GIS	Spatial data
le Roux et al. 2011	37 Cape town neighbourhoods	Impact of neighbourhood home visit mentor mothers	Quantitative	Health science	Fixed effect linear regression analysis, Statistical tests,	Survey data

		on children's nutrition			including t-test and chi square	
Westaway 2009	Johannesburg communities, South Africa	Perception on environmental quality	Mixed	Environmental health	Stepwise regression, descriptive statistics	Survey
Ramsay and Naidoo 2012	South Durban neighbourhood, south Africa	Estimation of neighbourhood Carbon footprint	Quantitative	Environmental science	Descriptive statistics (tables)	Secondary data
Geyer Jr 2018	Cape town neighbourhoods	Evaluation of ecological, subcultural and political approaches to neighbourhood change and poverty	Quantitative	Geography	Statistical analysis including factor analysis, regression	Census data
Mayeba and Seekings 2012	Cape town neighbourhood	Homeownership, privacy and neighbourhood relations	Qualitative	Sociology	Semi-structured interviews	Survey data
van Graan 2016	Roodepoort neighbourhood, south Africa	Multi-level cooperation and crime prevention	Qualitative	Sociology	Interviews, observations, documents review	Survey data
Gordon and Maharaj 2015	South Africa	Neighbourhood social capital and anti-immigrant prejudice	Quantitative	Social science	Ordered logistic model	Secondary data
Nyawasha et al. 2012	Rural neighbourhoods in Kwazulu-Natal, south Africa	Neighbourhood social capital and HIV/AIDS prevention	Qualitative	Sociology	Interviews	primary data
Mowafi et al. 2012	Cairo, Egypt	Neighbourhood green space and BMI association	quantitative	Public health	Multilevel models	Secondary data

Parry et al. 2004	Cape town, south Africa	Social and neighbourhoods correlates of adolescent drunkenness	Quantitative	Public health	Statistics	Survey data
Lau et al. 2018	South Africa	Neighbourhood deprivation	Quantitative	Public health	Deprivation index, poisson models	Secondary data
Kyessi 2005	Dar es Salaam	Fringe neighbourhoods community water management	Qualitative	Planning	Interviews	Primary data
Werthmann 2002	Kano, Nigeria	Hausa speaking women in urban neighbourhoods	Qualitative	Sociology	Interviews	Primary data
Okunola and Amole 2012	Lagos neighbourhoods	Neighbourhood perception on safety, social participation and vulnerability	Quantitative	Architecture	Regression analysis, questionnaire	Survey data
Elshater 2012	Basilica, Egypt	Behavioural performance efficiency in Egyptian neighbourhoods	Qualitative	Planning	Literature	Literature
Van der Pas et al. 2015	South Africa neighbourhoods	Neighbourhood and home features and liveability among older people	Quantitative	Public health	Linear regression analysis	Secondary data
Mohamed 2013	Benghazi, Libya	Urban fragmentation at the neighbourhood level	Qualitative	Architecture	Literature	Literature

Olowoporoku et al. 2017	Abeokuta, Nigeria	Neighbourhood confidence and satisfaction	Quantitative	Planning	Questionnaire, statistics	Primary data
Cramm et al. 2011	Eastern cape township, south Africa	Socioeconomic factors and neighbourhood subjective wellbeing	Quantitative	Health	Multilevel regression	Survey data
Cooker et al. 2008	Ibadan, Nigeria	Housing quality and associations with neighbourhood environment	Quantitative	Civil engineering	Questionnaire, descriptive statistics	Primary data
Horn 2004	Pretoria, south Africa	Urban neighbourhood transitions	Qualitative	Geography	Interviews	Primary data
Owuor and Foeken 2006	Kenya	Neighbourhood survival	Qualitative	Urban studies	Interviews	Primary
Koning 2006	Doula	Motorbike drivers in New bell neighbourhoods	Qualitative	Urban studies	Interviews	Primary
Nkurunziza 2006	Kamwokya, Uganda	Neighbourhood formation	Mixed	Urban studies	Interviews, FGD	Primary data
van Til 2006	Mauritania	Neighbourhood reconstruction	Qualitative	Urban planning	Case studies	Primary data
Liu et at 2017	Guangzhou	Neighbourhood social cohesion and urban redevelopment	Mixed	Planning	Path analysis, interviews	Survey data
Coen et al. 2008	Cochabamba, Bolivia	Importance of neighbourhood stores	Qualitative	Geography	Case study	Primary data

Lintel et al. 2018	Bangladeshi cities	Wellbeing and governance in informal settlements	Quantitative	Development studies	Chi square	Survey data
Lu et al. 2018	Wenzhou, China	Place attachment in gated neighbourhoods	Quantitative	Planning	Regression analysis, questionnaire	Survey data
Liu et al. 2017	Guangzhou, china	neighbourhood social ties and subjective wellbeing	Quantitative	Planning	Multilevel analysis	Survey data
Wu 2010	China	Packaging and branding of Chinese suburban residential areas	Qualitative	Planning	Literature review	Literature
Raju 1980	India	Social meaning of neighbourhood	Qualitative	Geography	Literature review	Literature
Sarwar et al. 2006	Chittagong, Bangladesh	Residents perceptions on neighbourhood	Quantitative	Geography	Questionnaire, chi square	Field survey
Chattopadhyay 2011	India	Neighbourhood politics	Qualitative	Political science	Literature review	Literature
Bhonsle and Adane 2016	Nagpur, India	Play provisions in urban neighbourhoods	Qualitative	Architecture	Case study	Survey data
Filho et al. 2017	Chinese cities	Neighbourhood characteristics and mental disorders	Quantitative	Health	Multilevel analysis	Survey data
Chen and Hoy 2011	Urban china	Migrants economic vulnerability	Mixed	Urban studies	Questionnaire, interviews	Survey data
Holloway and Lapar 2007	Filipino neighbourhoods	Spatial implication of	Quantitative	Agricultural economics	Bayesian estimation	Secondary data

		market participation				
Edginton 1986	Tianjin, China	Neighbourhood community and community service delivery	Qualitative	Urban planning	Observation	Primary data
Salje et al. 2014	Dhaka, Bangladesh	Impact of neighbourhood biomass cooking patterns	Qualitative	Public health	Questionnaire, logit models	Survey data
Adlakha et al. 2018	Chennai, India	Neighbourhood environment correlates	Quantitative	Built environment	Questionnaire, logistic regression	Survey data
Zhang et al. 2018	Urban china	Challenges and opportunities for neighbourhood planning	Qualitative	Real estate	Interviews,	Literature, survey data
Tsusaka et al. 2013	Bohol, Philippines	Neighbourhood effects	Quantitative	Agriculture	Spatial regression, questionnaire	Survey data
Raushan and Mutharayappa 2014	India	Neighbourhood development and caste distribution	Quantitative	Social science	Factor analysis, Statistics	Secondary data
Saito et al. 2017	Malacca, Malaysia	Neighbourhood greening and urban heat improvement	Quantitative	Urban studies	Computer simulation	Field survey
Quan 2017	Shangai, china	Neighbourhood energy efficiency	Quantitative	Environmental studies	Computer simulation	

		under residential zoning regulation				
Wang and Shaw 2018	Shenzhen, china	High-density neighbourhood development and sustainability challenges	Qualitative	Urban studies	Case study, interviews	Field data
Liu et al. 2018	China	Neighbourhood resources and physical health correlates	Quantitative	Social work	Linear regressions	Secondary data
Azhar et al. 2018	Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia	Neighbourhood influences and mental health correlates	Quantitative	Public health	Questionnaire, deprivation index, statistics including ANOVA, chi square	Survey data
Chen and Chen 2015	China	Neighbourhood living environment and mental health correlates	Quantitative	Social science	Regression analysis	Secondary data
Chen and Lin 2016	Urban neighbourhoods in china, Taiwan and south Korea	Correlates of social identity, neighbourhood quality and physical inactivity	Quantitative	Health science	Multivariate regression	Secondary data
Chang and Wang 2013	Urban china	Neighbourhood environment and wages correlates	Quantitative	Economics	Regression analysis	Survey data
Cheng and Symth 2015	China	Correlates of crime victimization, neighbourhood	Quantitative	Economics	Fixed effects models	Secondary data

		safety and happiness				
Chitrakar et al. 2016	Kathmandu valley, Nepal	Urban growth and contemporary neighbourhood public space	Qualitative	Civil Engineering	Case study, interviews, observations	Primary data
Cho and Kim 2016	Jangsu village, Seoul	Neighbourhood regeneration	Qualitative	Social science	Interviews, participant observation	Field data
Li et al. 2017	Shenyang, China	Neighbourhood market transition	Qualitative	Architecture	Interviews, document analysis	Field data
Liu et al. 2018	China	Correlates of neighbourhood environment and migrant burglars residential location	Quantitative	Geography	Descriptive statistics, poisson regression	Combined field and census data
Miao et al. 2018	Shangai, China	Neighbourhood, social cohesion and depression correlates	Quantitative	Social science	Socioeconomic status index, structural equation model (SEM), regression analysis	Secondary data
Qian and Li 2017	Xi'an, China	Role of local citizens in historic neighbourhoods	Qualitative	Planning	Interviews, observations	Field data
Wen et al. 2010	Shangai, China	Neighbourhood effects and health correlates	Quantitative	Sociology	Regression analysis, Statistics, e.g. t- test and chi square, questionnaire	Survey data

Wu et al. 2018	Beijing, China	Neighbourhood vibrancy	Quantitative	Planning	GIS, index	Field data
Zhang and Lu 2015	Beijing, china	Neighbourhood residential satisfaction	Mixed	Architecture	Interviews, questionnaire, descriptive statistics	Field data
Zhao and Zou 2017	Xianlin, Nanjing, China	Neighbourhood spatial restructuring	Qualitative	Political science	Document review, observations	Literature and field data

Source: Compiled by the author

Table 2: Summary of neighbourhood studies in developing countries

Author	Study location	Issue addressed	Approach	Discipline	Techniques	Nature of data
Alen and Cars	United Kingdom	Neighbourhood	Theoretical	Built	Review	Existing literature
2001		governance	contribution	Environment		
Nieuwenhuis et	Netherlands	Neighbourhood	Quantitative	Urban and	Survival analysis	Panel data
al. 2015.		effect on		Regional Studies		
		education				
Arcarya et al.	USA	Neighbourhood	Quantitative	Health science	Systematic review	Existing literature
2016		health effects				
Roux and Mair	USA	Neighbourhood	Qualitative	Health Science	Review	Existing literature
2010		health effects				
Kintrea, K 2006	United Kingdom	Policies and	Qualitative	Urban Studies	Review/official	Literature and
		programmes for			literature	official
		disadvantaged			evaluation	documents
		neighbourhoods				
Atkinson and	United Kingdom	Area effects in	Mixed	Urban Studies	Comparative	Survey data
Kintrea 2001		deprived and			analysis	
		non-deprived				
		neighbourhoods				
Minh et al. 2017	Canada	Neighbourhood	Mixed	Population and	Scoping review,	Literature
		effects in early		Health	descriptive	
					statistics	

		child development				
Nieuwenhuis and Hooimeijer 2016	Netherlands	Neighbourhood and educational achievement	Systematic meta- analysis	Regional Studies	Meta-regression analysis	Existing literature
O'Campo et al. 2015	Canada	Neighbourhood effects on health and wellbeing	Quantitative	Health Science	Multilevel models	Survey data
Aneshensel and Sucoff 1996	USA	Neighbourhood context and mental health	Quantitative	Health science	Regression analysis	Survey data
Ainsworth 2002	USA	Neighbourhood effects and educational attainment	Quantitative	Education	Regression analysis	Longitudinal data
Bolt and van Kempen 2013	Netherlands	Neighbourhood successes and failures	Theoretical contribution	Geography	Review	Literature
Buck 2001	United Kingdom	Neighbourhood effects and social exclusion	Quantitative	Social Science	Regression analysis	Panel data
Bonds et al. 2015	USA	Neighbourhood revitalization and governance	Mixed	Geography	Observations, interviews, surveys, descriptive statistics	Survey data
Butler and Robson 2001	United Kingdom	Social capital, gentrification and neighbourhood change	Qualitative	Urban Studies	Comparative approach	Field data
Campbell et al. 2009	USA	Neighbourhood construct	Qualitative	Social Science	Interviews	Survey data
Christian et al. 2015	Australia	Neighbourhood physical	Qualitative	Health Science	Systematic review	Existing literature

		environment and child health				
Coulton et al. 2011	USA	GIS-based residents perception of neighbourhood	Mixed: Methodological contribution	Social Science	GIS, interviews	Survey data
Coulton et al. 2001	USA	Mapping residents perceptions of neighbourhood	Mixed: methodological contribution	Social Science	GIS	Survey data
Coulton et al. 1996	USA	Neighbourhood context and young children	Methodological contribution	Social Science	Spatial statistics	Census data
Caughy et al. 2013	USA	Neighbourhood effect on child behaviour	Quantitative methodological contribution	Health Science	Spatial statistics and models	Observational data
Caughy et al. 2006	USA	Neighbourhood poverty, social capital and cognitive development	Quantitative	Health Science	Multivariate analysis	Survey data
Ellen and Turner 1997	USA	Neighbourhood effect	Qualitative	Urban Studies	Review	Existing literature
Ellaway et al. 2001	United Kingdom	Neighbourhood and place perceptions and health	Mixed	Urban Studies	Inferential statistics	Survey data
Elliot and Sims 2001	USA	Neighbourhood poverty and race impacts on job matching	Quantitative	Social Science	Regression analysis	Secondary data
Ensminger et al. 1996	USA	Neighbourhood effects and school leaving	Quantitative	Public health	Regression analysis	Census data

Elwood and Leitner 2003	USA	Neighbourhood organization and planning	Quantitative	Social Science	GIS	Field data
Fong and Shibuya 2003	Canada	Neighbourhood economic changes	Quantitative	Social Science	Regression analysis	Census data
Forrest and Kearns 2001	United Kingdom	Neighbourhood social cohesion and capital	Qualitative: theoretical contribution	Urban Studies	Review	Existing literature
Guest and Lee 1984	USA	Neighbourhood definition	Quantitative	Sociology	Inferential statistics	Survey data
Galster 2001	USA	Nature of neighbourhood	Conceptual and theoretical contribution	Urban Studies	Review	Existing literature
Garrioch 2001	Australia	Sacred and secular neighbourhoods	Theoretical contribution	Urban Studies	Review	Existing literature
Garner and Raudenbush 1991	United Kingdom	Neighbourhood effects and educational attainment	Quantitative	Social Science	Hierarchical linear model	Mixed; primary survey and census data
Gershoff et al. 2009	USA	Neighbourhood typologies	Quantitative; methodological contribution	Health Science	Factor analysis	Secondary data
Galster 1986	USA	Neighbourhood meaning	Methodological contribution (theoretical and conceptual)	Urban studies	Multivariate probability analysis	Literature
Hunter 1979	USA	Analytical and social contexts of neighbourhoods	Qualitative 9theoretical contribution)	Sociology	Review	Existing literature
Haeberle 1988	USA	Subjective definitions of neighbourhoods	Quantitative	Urban Studies	Statistics	Primary data

Holland et al. 2010	United Kingdom	Neighbourhood environment and wellbeing	Mixed	Sociology	Review	Existing empirical work
Kearns and Forrest 2000	United Kingdom	Social cohesion and governance	Qualitative	Urban Studies	Review	Existing literature
Hipp 2007	USA	Neighbourhood structure and crime	Quantitative	Sociology	Multilevel regression	Secondary data: National survey data
Kearns and Parkinson 2001	United Kingdom	Neighbourhood importance	Qualitative; theoretical contribution	Urban Studies	Review	Existing literature
Kawachi and Subramanian 2007	USA	Neighbourhood and health	Qualitative	Public Health	Multilevel analysis	Literature
Kallus and Law- Yon 2007	Israel	Neighbourhood definition	Conceptual contribution	Architecture	Review	Existing literature
Kim 2008	USA	Neighbourhood attributes and depression	Qualitative	Public Health	Systematic review	Existing literature
Kauppinen 2007	Finland	Neighbourhood effect	Quantitative	Sociology	Multilevel models	Secondary data
Klebanov et al. 1998	USA	Neighbourhood and family income impact in developmental test	Quantitative	Health Science	Regression analysis	Survey data
Levanthal and Brooks-Gunn 2000	USA	Neighbourhood effect on child outcome	Qualitative	Psychology	Review	Existing literature
Lee and Campbell 1997	USA	Neighbourhood perception	Quantitative	Sociology	Regression analysis	Secondary data
Mowbray et al. 2007	USA	Neighbourhood space	Quantitative: methodological contribution	Social work	Review	Secondary data

Meegan and Mitchell 2001	United Kingdom	Neighbourhood change and cohesion	Qualitative	Geography	Review	Secondary materials
Martin 1998	United Kingdom	Neighbourhood identification	Methodological contribution	Geography	Surface analysis model	Census data
Martin 2003	USA	Enacting neighbourhood	Theoretical contribution	Geography	Review and field data	Field data
Nettles et al. 2008	USA	Neighbourhood and school adjustment	Qualitative; theoretical contribution	Education	Review	Existing literature
Nicotera 2008	USA	Children and neighbourhood	Mixed	Social Work	Principal Component Analysis	Survey and census
O'Campo et al. 2015	Canada	Neighbourhood effects and health	Quantitative	Health Science	Linear multilevel models	Survey data
Oakes et al. 2015	USA	Neighbourhood effects	Quantitative	Health Science	Review	Existing literature
Pickett and Pearl 2001	USA	Neighbourhood socioeconomic context	Quantitative	Health Science	Multilevel analysis	Literature
Purdue 2001	United Kingdom	Neighbourhood governance	Qualitative	Urban Studies	Review	Literature
Parkes et al. 2003	United Kingdom	Neighbourhood dissatisfaction	Quantitative	Urban Studies	Logistic regression	Survey data
Robertson et al. 2010	United Kingdom	Neighbourhood identity	Qualitative	Social Science	Documentary review	Field data
Roosa et al. 2003	USA	Neighbourhood effects on low- income children	Theoretical contribution	Psychology	Review	Existing literature
Sellsstrom and Bremberg 2006	Sweden	Neighbourhood context and child and adolescent health	Mixed	Health Sciences	Review	Existing literature

Swat et al. 2013	USA	Crime, incivilities and collective efficacy	Quantitative	Social science	Structural equation models	Survey data
Sampson et al. 2002	USA	Neighbourhood effects	Qualitative	Sociology	Review	Existing literature
Sampson et al. 1997	USA	Neighbourhood and crime	Quantitative	Sociology	Multilevel analyses	Survey data
Telen 1999	USA	Sense of community and neighbourhood	Qualitative	Development studies	Review	Literature
Temkin and Rohe 1996	USA	Neighbourhood change	Qualitative	Planning	Review	Literature
Truong and Ma 2006	USA	Neighbourhood and mental health	Mixed	Health Science	Systematic review	Existing literature
Talen 1999b	USA	Neighbourhood construct	Methodological contribution	Development Studies	Review	Field data
Tunstall 2016	United Kingdom	Neighbourhood change and socioeconomic status	Mixed	Urban Studies	Review	Literature
Tietler and Weiss 2000	USA	Neighbourhood effects and sexual intercourse	Quantitative	Sociology	Multilevel models	Secondary data
Veldboer et al. 2002	Europe and USA	Neighbourhood diversity	Qualitative	Planning	Comparative review	Literature
Wissink and Hazelzet 2011	Tokyo	Neighbourhood and social networks	Quantitative	Architecture	Inferential statistics	Survey data
Vaden-Kiernan et al. 2010	USA	Neighbourhood effects on children and families	Quantitative	Psychology	Multilevel analysis	Census data
Woodredge 2002	USA	Neighbourhood and crime	Quantitative	Sociology	PCA, Hierarchical nonlinear model	Secondary data

Wang and Shaw 2018	United Kingdom	High density neighbourhood development	Qualitative	Urban Studies	Interviews and observations	Field data
Wellman and Leighton 1979	Canada	Neighbourhood networks	Qualitative	Urban Studies	Review	Existing literature
Yen and Kaplan 1999	USA	Neighbourhood social environment and risk of death	Quantitative	Public Health	Multilevel analysis	Secondary data
Christian et al. 2015	Australia	Neighbourhood physical environment on child health and development	Qualitative	Public Health	Review	Existing literature
Minh et al. 2017	Canada	Neighbourhood effects and child development	Qualitative	Public health	Review	Literature
Klijs et al. 2017	The Netherlands	Neighbourhood deprivation and social relations	Quantitative	Public Health	Linear regression models	Survey data
Stafford and Marmot 2002	United Kingdom	Neighbourhood deprivation	Quantitative	Public Health	Regression analysis	Longitudinal data
McDool 2017	United Kingdom	Neighbourhood effects and educational attainment	Quantitative	Economics	Propensity score matching methods	Longitudinal survey

Note: This list is not exhaustive. It is limited only to articles. Books and reports are excluded.



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About us

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SHLC aims to strengthen capacity to address urban, health and education challenges in fast growing cities across Africa and Asia. SHLC is an international consortium of nine research partners, as follows: University of Glasgow, Human Sciences Research Council, Khulna University, Nankai University, National Institute of Urban Affairs, University of the Philippines Diliman, University of Rwanda and the University of Witwatersrand.

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