

1 **Divided Cities? Measuring the significance of, and relative**  
2 **contribution to ethnic segregation in Australia's capital cities**

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13 Supplementary Information can be found at:

14 <https://cloudstor.aarnet.edu.au/plus/index.php/s/aBrPTe2BnGqYRnY>

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18 **1. Abstract**

19 Determining how different communities are distributed within a city is essential to  
20 understanding the cultural and economic processes which drive community development,  
21 identity and urban growth. Segregation between ethnic and racial groups remains a popular  
22 and at times sensitive topic within the Australian urban narrative, despite little quantitative  
23 work being undertaken to examine the empirical basis of these patterns. A number of  
24 segregation indices have been developed which quantify aspects of segregation in urban  
25 centres. However, some of these are limited in their utility due to the effect of imposed  
26 administrative boundaries, or their inability to be undertaken at multiple spatial resolutions, to  
27 determine the potentially scale-dependent patterns of segregation. In this work, I use the  
28 recent introduction of a surface based segregation approach to determine the patterns of  
29 pairwise spatial segregation between 12 ethnic groups of the 2011 census across Australia's  
30 capital cities. I extend this work by introducing a novel Monte Carlo method to infer the  
31 statistical significance of the patterns, and by introducing a means to partition the relevant  
32 contribution of each of the ethnic groups towards the pairwise segregation estimates. In  
33 doing so, I address two important questions about Australia's ethno-urban fabric: (1) how  
34 spatially segregated are ethnic groups from each other in Australian cities, and (2) do  
35 certain ethnic groups display more tightly bound communities within these areas? Answering  
36 these questions is central to understanding the potentially unique cultural and identity-  
37 building processes at play within Australia's urban milieu.

## 38 **2. Introduction**

39 The interaction between ethnicity<sup>1</sup> and the urban environment has provided a rich subject  
40 matter for research across a number of fields, including sociology and political psychology  
41 (e.g. Gregory, 1999; Marschall & Stolle, 2004), gender studies (e.g. Brunson & Miller, 2006;  
42 Pain, 2001), public health (Harawa et al., 2004; Kataoka et al., 2002) and education (Kao &  
43 Thompson, 2003; Lopez, 2003). There is a large body of literature examining the crucial role  
44 of race and ethnicity within an urban environment as a determinant or contributing factor to  
45 specific outcomes, such as political engagement and development of community and identity  
46 structures, particularly within a North American context. These studies have consistently  
47 shown that ethnicity, and its intersection with socio-economic status, class and privilege is a  
48 central driver of the processes which ultimately shape how a city grows and develops (e.g.  
49 Briggs & Wilson, 2005; Squires & Kubrin, 2005), both socially and physically.

50 There has been a more limited analysis on the interaction of ethnicity, place and space  
51 within Australian cities (although see Collins, 2006; Collins & Jordan, 2009; Collins & Kunz,  
52 2010). A notable exception to this is the function of racism and ethnic prejudice within an  
53 urban Australian context, which has received wide consideration in the last 10-15 years, in  
54 both the academic and non-academic spheres (Booth et al., 2012; Forrest & Dunn, 2007;  
55 Leigh, 2006; Nesdale, 2008; Panelli, 2008). In particular, the Cronulla riots of December  
56 2005 galvanised ongoing public and academic attention around the role of racism,  
57 nationalism, crime and victimisation in Australia's suburbs, predominantly with respect to  
58 Middle Eastern communities (Bliuc et al., 2012; Lattas, 2007; Noble, 2009; Poynting, 2006).  
59 Subsequent global events, including ongoing military conflicts and the putative radicalisation  
60 of young Muslim Australians in Melbourne and Sydney in particular has maintained this  
61 focus on Middle Eastern and North African communities, and shifted public and media  
62 emphasis to the physical places where these populations live (e.g. Blair, 2014; Gamieldien,  
63 2014). Additionally, wider recognition and reporting of racist behaviour in public urban

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<sup>1</sup>"Ethnicity" and "ethnic group" in this article encompass the term "race", preferentially used in North American literature

64 places, such as on public transport (e.g. McNally & Collins, 2015; Pearson, 2015) has  
65 increased examination of the phenomena of cultural assimilation, prejudice and “othering” in  
66 Australia’s cities.

67 A fundamental aspect of the discourse around ethnic identity and cultural assimilation within  
68 urban environments is the extent to which communities and groups are segregated from  
69 each other in space, and the implications of these patterns on a range of social, political and  
70 economic outcomes. The role of ethnic segregation in the etiology of urban violence (both in  
71 terms of race riots and more generalised crime), socio-economic disadvantage, health status  
72 and educational achievement and has been widely studied in both the United States (Krivo  
73 et al., 2009; Massey, 1995; Orfield & Lee, 2005; Sampson et al., 1997; Sampson & Wilson,  
74 1995; Williams & Collins, 2001; Zenk et al., 2005) and in Britain (Burgess & Wilson, 2005;  
75 Carling, 2008; Hilmers et al., 2012; Johnston et al., 2005; Johnston et al., 2007; Nazroo &  
76 Williams, 2006; Pickett & Wilkinson, 2008; Simpson, 2004). By contrast, there is a distinct  
77 paucity of research into patterns of residential ethnic segregation in the urban Australian  
78 context, despite both the potential for fundamental insights into how ethnic communities  
79 interact with each other and place/space within the urban environment, and the  
80 preoccupation with certain ethnic communities’ neighbourhoods in the wider media and  
81 public.

82 Considerable work has been undertaken developing means of measuring and understanding  
83 segregation, particularly residential segregation, in cities. There are a range of indices that  
84 have been implemented to quantify different components of the patterns and processes  
85 underpinning residential segregation (see Fotheringham, 1997; Massey & Denton, 1988;  
86 Morrill, 1991; Wong et al., 2007 for a comprehensive discussion of segregation measures).  
87 An emergent critique of a number of segregation methods, such as Duncan and Duncan’s  
88 dissimilarity index  $D$  (1955) and Wong’s  $S$  measure (Wong, 1999) is that many are global  
89 measures which are not spatially explicit, or else rely on hard administrative boundaries

90 which may not necessarily reflect the “real world” interaction and scale-dependence between  
91 individuals and communities in space.

92 In response to these constraints, O’Sullivan and Wong (2007) developed a novel surface-  
93 based approach to quantifying segregation within an area. In addition to providing a global  
94 summary measure of segregation between two communities, the method developed by the  
95 authors allows for the visualisation and identification of specific areas which may contribute  
96 to the global measure of segregation. Moreover, the utilisation of kernel density methods  
97 within O’Sullivan and Wong’s (2007) approach allows the procedure to be undertaken at  
98 multiple spatial scales, with minimal artefacts due to imposed administrative boundaries.

99 It is important to draw attention to the difference between concentration and segregation  
100 (Hamnett, 2012). The former is a description of the tendency of members of the same group  
101 (ethnic, sexual, socio-economic) to aggregate together, forming local populations which  
102 comprise large proportions of that group’s overall population. The latter, by contrast, speaks  
103 to the concentration of a group *to the exclusion of others*. Ethnic concentration does not *ipso*  
104 *facto* necessitate the exclusion of other groups from the same areas (i.e. segregation),  
105 although there may be an exclusion effect simply due to hard limits of housing supply. The  
106 extent of this exclusion would largely be dependent on both relative overall population sizes  
107 and the total amount of people that an area can physically house. Because the O’Sullivan  
108 and Wong’s *S* surface measure uses and compares the proportions of two groups’ total  
109 population in an area – which are largely independent of each other - it is difficult to partition  
110 the different roles that these related but nonetheless distinct concepts play.

111 In this analysis, I use O’Sullivan and Wong’s segregation measure to investigate the  
112 pairwise segregation between eleven ethnic groups across the eight Australian capital cities,  
113 providing the first comprehensive quantification of ethnic segregation in Australian urban  
114 areas. I also extend O’Sullivan and Wong’s approach by implementing a Monte Carlo  
115 method as a potential means of inferring statistical significance for the segregation measures  
116 (a limitation of the method as indicated by the authors), as well as comparing the distribution

117 of each ethnic group with respect to the even-ness of their spread. In doing so, I assess two  
118 fundamental questions:

119 (1) To what extent are different ethnic groups segregated from each other across  
120 Australia's capital cities?

121 (2) Do different ethnic groups have markedly different distributions within cities  
122 potentially driving high segregation indices?

123 (3) What is the potential relationship between these measures segregation and  
124 concentration in Australian cities

125

## 126 **3. Methods**

### 127 **3.1. Study Area and Data**

128 I performed this analysis for each of the eight capital cities in Australia (Adelaide, Brisbane,  
129 Canberra, Darwin, Hobart, Melbourne, Perth and Sydney) which allowed for a range of  
130 population sizes to be included, from 140,400 in Greater Darwin to 4,840,000 in Greater  
131 Sydney (ABS, 2015). In this instance, the Urban Centres/Localities (UCLs) for the capital  
132 cities were used as our study areas (Figure 1), which incorporate the contiguous urban  
133 areas around each city. These were selected over the Greater Capital City Statistical Areas  
134 (GCCSAs), because the latter include large areas of non-urban areas which may introduce  
135 error into the kernel density estimates. In the case of Canberra (Australian Capital Territory),  
136 the satellite New South Wales city of Queanbeyan was included, given the proximity and  
137 economic and demographic links between the two. A 20km buffer around each UCL study  
138 area was incorporated in the initial kernel density estimates in order to minimise edge  
139 effects.

140 Twelve ethnic groups were included in each city: *American* (including Northern and Southern  
141 American), *Australian*, *Indigenous* (Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander), *Jewish*, *Middle*  
142 *Eastern and North African*, *Northern and Western European*, *North Eastern Asian*, *Oceanian*  
143 *Southern and Central Asian*, *Southeast Asian*, *Southern and Eastern European* and *Sub-*  
144 *Saharan African*. These represented the 9 main ethnic groups categorised by the Australian  
145 Bureau of Statistics (ABS) in the Ancestry 1<sup>st</sup> Response (ANC1P) census question, with  
146 some modifications: (1) *Oceania* in the census categorisation combines together individuals  
147 identifying as Australian, Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander, and all other Oceanian  
148 groups (New Zealanders, Maori and Pacific Islanders). For this study, individuals identifying  
149 as either Aboriginal or Torres Strait were partitioned in their own ethnic group (*Indigenous*),  
150 as were individuals who identified as Australian (*Australian*); (2) The ABS *Middle Eastern*  
151 *and North African* categorisation was partitioned into *Jewish* and *Middle Eastern and North*  
152 *African*.

153 Populations of different ethnic groups were taken from the 2011 Census, obtained from the  
154 ABS. These counts were obtained at Statistical Area Level 1 (SA1) aggregations, the most  
155 granular geographic level of aggregation that ethnic characteristics are available. An  
156 example of the distribution of SA1s is illustrated in Figure 2.

157 All spatial analyses were undertaken in *ArcGIS 10.2* (ESRI, 2011); all statistical analyses  
158 were undertaken in *R* (R Core Team, 2014)

### 159 **3.2. Surface Segregation Index - S**

160 Counts of individuals in each ethnic group within SA1s were converted to proportions of that  
161 ethnic group's total population within the 20km UCL buffer zone. Those proportions were  
162 then assigned to the centroid of each of SA1. The SA1 centroids were used to calculate  
163 kernel density estimates across the 20km UCL buffer zone. This was undertaken at multiple  
164 kernel bandwidths, in order to determine the potential impact of spatial scale on the results.  
165 These bandwidths were 0.5km, 1km, 1.75km 2.5km, 5km, 7.5km and 10km.

166 The resultant kernel density estimates were used to calculate O'Sullivan and Wong's S  
167 Index, calculated by Equation 1:

$$168 \quad S = \frac{\mathring{a}_i |p_{Ai} - p_{Bi}|}{\mathring{a}_i \max(p_{Ai}, p_{Bi})}$$

169 Where  $p_{Ai}$  and  $p_{Bi}$  represent the proportions of the total study area's ethnic groups  $A$  and  $B$ ,  
170 respectively, within spatial unit  $i$ . In this instance,  $i$  represents each raster cell (125m x  
171 125m) in the kernel density surface. The absolute differences between the proportions of the  
172 two ethnic groups are calculated, together with the maximum value. The proportion of the  
173 sums of these two variables provides the segregation index  $S$ , representing the proportion of  
174 total probability distribution that contains no intersection of the two populations (Figure 3).

### 175 **3.3. Monte Carlo Implementation**

176 Despite segregation patterns often being clear enough to minimize the need for significance  
177 testing, it can nonetheless be useful to be able exclude the potential role of random spatial  
178 processes in driving geographic patterns. This may be particularly important where sample  
179 populations are small. The surface-based approach developed by O'Sullivan and Wong did  
180 not incorporate a means of inferring statistical significance. Therefore, as suggested by the  
181 authors as a potential solution, a Monte Carlo process was implemented to provide an  
182 inferential significance framework. In this implementation, the total counts of residents within  
183 each SA1 were converted into individuals across each city. Individuals were then randomly  
184 assigned an ethnic group based on the total number of individuals comprising each ethnic  
185 group in the total population. The total number of individuals within each SA1 for each  
186 simulated ethnic group, within each SA1 calculated, and converted to a proportion of the  
187 total city's population for that ethnic group. New kernel density estimates were generated  
188 from these simulated populations, and *S* indexes calculated. 99 iterations were undertaken  
189 for each pairwise comparison, for each city. Due to the computational demands of the Monte  
190 Carlo process, they were only undertaken for the 1km and 2.5km kernel density bandwidths.  
191 The outputs of the Monte Carlo process were used to generate ranges of expected *S*  
192 indexes under completely spatially random conditions. Observed *S* indexes were assigned  
193 statistical significance where  $P < 0.001$ .

#### 194 **3.4. Peak Skew Calculations**

195 The hypothetical sub-populations in Figure 3 have identically shaped distributions. A more  
196 realistic example is illustrated in Figure 4, which indicates two populations with quite different  
197 population distributions in space. As the spatial distribution or "footprint" of a population  
198 decreases, the proportion of the population living in the same area increases, represented  
199 by an increase in the height of the peak of the distribution. This is particularly so where the  
200 number of such peaks drops, that is, where a sub population lives in a single region or  
201 neighbourhood. I measured this phenomenon, by calculating the *peak skew* for each  
202 pairwise comparison, where the value of maximum peak for ethnic group A was divided by

203 the maximum peak for ethnic group B and vice versa. Peak skew values greater than 1 can  
204 indicate fewer, higher peaks for one population (i.e. a more localized, spatially constrained  
205 population) while peak skew values lower than 1 can indicate more, flatter peaks and a  
206 flatter distribution more generally for the other population (i.e. a more widely dispersed  
207 population).

### 208 **3.5. Local contribution and exclusion**

209 O'Sullivan and Wong's method uses the proportion of a group's total population as an input,  
210 and compares it to other groups in a pairwise manner. These variables are largely  
211 independent of each other, and are potentially more reflective of both ethnic group  
212 concentration (and relative population size) rather than ethnic group segregation, which is  
213 concentration of a group to the exclusion of others. To determine the potential role of  
214 concentration versus segregation in generating the S index value, I calculated the extent to  
215 which the different ethnic groups dominated their local areas to the exclusion of others. To  
216 do this, I calculated the proportion that each ethnic group contributed to each SA1  
217 population in each of the eight cities. Then, incorporating only observations where an ethnic  
218 group's contribution to the local (SA1) population was greater than zero, I determined using  
219 an ANOVA whether there were significant differences between the ethnic groups and their  
220 proportional contribution to local (SA1) populations. I used Tukey's Honest Significant  
221 Difference (HSD) to determine which of the pairwise comparisons were significantly different.  
222 I then compared groups' average proportional contribution to local (SA1) populations to  
223 groups' average S Index values across each of the 8 cities to determine if there was a  
224 correlation between the two, that is, if populations with high average S Index values also had  
225 high average proportional contributions to local (SA1) populations (thus, to the exclusion of  
226 other groups).

227

## 228 **4. Results**

### 229 **4.1. Spatial Segregation**

230 An example of the kernel density surfaces produced in the spatial segregation analyses is  
231 shown in Figure 5, illustrating the output surfaces for Sub-Saharan Africa (A) and Oceania  
232 (B) in Brisbane at a kernel bandwidth of 2.5km. The maximum value and absolute difference  
233 surfaces are also shown (C and D, respectively).

234 The *S* index is a single summary global statistic for the study area. However, in addition to  
235 providing a parameter component of the *S* index calculation, the absolute difference surface  
236 (Figure 5D) provides a useful and informative visualisation of the local spatial distribution of  
237 segregation between the two sample populations, where the densities of the two populations  
238 are markedly different (darker regions) or where they are similar or equal (lighter regions).

239 The *S* indices for all pairwise ethnic group comparisons, for all capital cities at the bandwidth  
240 of 2.5km are shown in Figure 6 (*S* index matrices for all other bandwidths are available in  
241 Supplementary Information). These exhibit a broad range of values for the pairwise ethnic  
242 group comparisons across the capital cities, from an extremely high value of 0.983 between  
243 Jewish and Indigenous communities in Hobart to an almost negligible level of segregation  
244 between Australian and North West European communities in Adelaide. The Jewish  
245 communities consistently exhibit the highest *S* index values, followed by Indigenous  
246 communities in all cities studied. Figure 7 illustrates the significant negative correlation  
247 (Pearson's  $r = -0.264$ ,  $t_{df=94} = -2.663$ ,  $P < 0.01$ ) between log population size and mean *S*  
248 index values for each of the 12 ethnic categorisation, across the 8 cities suggesting that  
249 increasing *S* index values may be at least in part related to the respective population sizes of  
250 each community. There is an obvious possibility that this distribution is a statistical artefact of  
251 the varying population sizes of the different ethnic groups, where smaller population sizes  
252 can have population density surfaces which alter substantially when only a small number of  
253 individuals appear or disappear in certain areas. However, the methods deployed here are

254 unable to distinguish between these stochastic effects, and real cultural and economic  
255 processes potentially occurring in these isolated communities.

#### 256 **4.2. Monte Carlo Simulation.**

257 Most observed *S* index values for pairwise ethnic group comparisons were outside of the  
258 range of values expected by a completely spatially random (*CSR*) process, as determined by  
259 the Monte Carlo simulations undertaken in this analysis, across all cities and kernel  
260 bandwidths (Monte Carlo means, standard deviations, and upper and lower limits can be  
261 found in Supplementary Information). The exception to this pattern occurred in Darwin and  
262 Hobart, for the very small Jewish populations (10 and 9 individuals, respectively) in those  
263 cities. In these instances, the observed *S* index values for these populations were unable to  
264 be distinguished from a *CSR* process, for a number of pairwise comparisons with other  
265 ethnic groups. This pattern increased with increasing kernel density bandwidth.

266 An example of the distributions of these observed and expected values is indicated in Figure  
267 8, for the Jewish vs. Middle Eastern and North African pairwise comparison. For all cities  
268 except Darwin and Hobart, the observed values (solid lines) are significantly higher  
269 ( $P < 0.001$ ) than the values expected by a *CSR* process (bands). For Darwin and Hobart,  
270 however, the observed values fall clearly within the range expected by a *CSR* process. This  
271 pattern, with Darwin and Hobart Jewish *S* indices often falling within the expected *CSR*  
272 bands, while other cities' and other ethnic groups' *S* indexes remain highly significant, is  
273 consistent across all bandwidths (Supplementary Information)

#### 274 **4.3. Peak Skew Calculations**

275 The Peak skew analysis yield very large differences in the shape of population distributions  
276 between different ethnic groups in Australian cities. The Peak Skew figures for the four  
277 largest capital cities (Sydney, Melbourne, Brisbane and Perth) at a kernel bandwidth of  
278 2.5km are shown in Figure 9. Rows indicate the ratio of that ethnic group as  $P_{Amax}$  to the  
279 column ethnic group ( $P_{Bmax}$ ), with values higher than 1 indicating that the maximum peak of

280 that ethnic group is substantially higher than the maximum peak of the comparison  
281 population.

282 Perhaps unsurprisingly, the Jewish communities emerge as the most skewed populations  
283 within these and the four other Australian communities (Supplementary Information), in one  
284 instance  $P_{Amax}$  for the Jewish population was more than two orders of magnitude (i.e. over  
285 100 times) taller than a pairwise comparator. As with the S Index calculations, these values  
286 appear to be associated (Pearson's  $r = -0.378$ ,  $t_{df=94} = -3.961$ ,  $P < 0.005$ , Kernel Bandwidth =  
287 2.5km) with population size, shown in Figure 10. This is at least partly intuitive, given that  
288 smaller population sizes will simply tend to have a greater proportion of that population  
289 within one area. However as bandwidth increases these values shift substantially, with some  
290 ethnic groups emerging as more skewed than the Jewish populations. Moreover, as kernel  
291 bandwidth increases, the *polarisation* of the skew values increases – there are fewer peak  
292 skew values grouped around the centre, with more and more increasingly lower and higher  
293 (i.e. darker blue and red values in the table).

#### 294 **4.4. Local contribution and exclusion**

295 Figure 11 illustrates the distribution of proportional contributions to local (SA1) populations  
296 for each ethnicity in Melbourne (all other cities are available in Supplementary Information).  
297 The largest mean contribution to total SA1s was observed among Northern and Western  
298 European, Australian and Southern and Eastern European ethnic groups. By contrast, the  
299 smallest mean contribution to SA1 populations was observed among the Indigenous and  
300 Oceania ethnic groups. These patterns were replicated across each of the cities, with high  
301 SA1 proportions for Northern and Western European and Australian ethnic groups, and low  
302 SA1 proportions for Indigenous, Jewish and Oceania ethnic groups. For all of the cities,  
303 mean SA1 proportions was significantly associated with ethnic groups (ANOVA results for  
304 each city can be found in Supplementary Information), and in all cities, each of the mean  
305 SA1 proportions were significantly different for most of the pairwise ethnic group  
306 comparisons (Tukey HSD results for each city can be found in Supplementary Information).

307 Mean S Index values for ethnic groups was significantly negatively associated with mean  
308 proportional contributions to local (SA1) populations (Pearson's  $r = -0.211$ ,  $t_{df=94} = -2.097$ ,  
309  $P < 0.05$ ), as shown in Figure 12. This suggests that the S Index values determined by using  
310 O'Sullivan and Wong's surface method are more likely to reflect ethnic group concentration  
311 in areas, but concentration to the exclusion of other groups; groups with the highest S index  
312 values were concentrated in areas with other groups present (Jewish and Indigenous), while  
313 those groups with the lowest S Index values (Northern and Western European, Australian)  
314 dominated the local populations that they were found in, to the (partial) exclusion of others.

315

## 316 **5. Discussion**

317 The results presented here provide the first thorough quantitative analysis of the shape and  
318 extent of segregation between and concentration of ethnic communities in Australian cities.  
319 In doing so, they provide a much needed empirical context for ongoing political and  
320 community narratives around cultural assimilation, ghettoization and the presence of urban  
321 enclaves along ethnic lines (Veiszadeh et al., 2011). Some of these important emergent  
322 themes from this research are considered more fully below.

### 323 **5.1. The S Index reflects concentration more than segregation**

324 The results of the analyses undertaken here suggest that high S Index values produced by  
325 O'Sullivan and Wong's S Index method are influenced by the concentration of small  
326 populations within localised areas, but do not necessarily reflect segregation (that is, the  
327 concentration of one group to the exclusion of others) *per se*, at least within the Australian  
328 context. This suggests that the demographic and social processes driving whether groups  
329 aggregate together to develop communities of varying spatial concentration do so relatively  
330 independently of the processes intrinsic to other ethnic groups. Thus, while some small  
331 ethnic groups may be concentrated together in localised communities or enclaves, the  
332 neighbourhoods they belong to are often nonetheless diverse with respect to the presence  
333 of other ethnic groups. By contrast, the larger populations tend to dominate the  
334 neighbourhoods that they are found in to the exclusion of others. This is highly unlikely to be  
335 a deliberate process. Rather, it is likely that the large contribution to neighbourhoods by  
336 Northern and Western European and Australian ethnic groups is due to their sheer  
337 overwhelming size.

### 338 **5.2. In Australia, population size matters**

339 There is a clear indication that smaller populations in Australian cities appear to be more  
340 concentrated (but not necessarily segregated) than larger populations. The S index and  
341 peak skew values for the relatively small Jewish and Indigenous populations calculated here  
342 are consistently the two highest across the 8 capital cities, while the S index and peak skew

343 values for the dominant North West European and Australian populations are consistently  
344 the lowest. As discussed, the methods used here rely on proportions of subpopulations in a  
345 kernel density surface as a base parameter for segregation calculations, as a result, they are  
346 influenced by changes in both the location and magnitude of those surface peaks. Smaller  
347 populations may at least in part emerge as more segregated due to stochastic effects.  
348 However, these patterns of segregation and concentration are also highly likely to be driven  
349 by contextual social and economic processes, either intrinsic to the population, such as  
350 shared cultural values and languages; extrinsic factors such as socio-economic  
351 marginalisation and prejudice, or interactions of these (Shuttleworth et al., 2014). An  
352 example of this is shown in Figure 11, which illustrates the distribution of Melbourne's  
353 Indigenous and Jewish populations (the city's two smallest). Melbourne's self-identified  
354 Jewish population largely resides in a single location in the city's southeast, while its' self-  
355 identified Indigenous population is distributed more widely (although sparingly in the more  
356 affluent inner east of the city). These populations are the most segregated from all other  
357 ethnic groups within Melbourne (and from each other), but the socio-economic and cultural  
358 processes driving their residential patterns are clearly very different.

359 These patterns – of smaller populations exhibiting higher S Index values than larger  
360 populations – are in stark contrast to the results of similar analyses, particularly in the United  
361 States. In developing the surface based S index, O'Sullivan and Wong (2007) analysed the  
362 segregation patterns of Caucasians and African Americans (the two largest population  
363 groups) in Washington DC and Philadelphia. Their results indicated high levels of  
364 segregation between these two groups: at a bandwidth of 2.5km S Index values between  
365 these to populations were 0.813 and 0.815, respectively. These are considerably higher than  
366 the S Index values for all pairwise ethnic group comparisons in all cities across Australia for  
367 that bandwidth, with the sole exception of some pairwise comparisons involving Jewish  
368 populations, This indicates that Australia's cities are overall likely to be considerably less  
369 segregated along ethnic lines, certainly for the larger population groups, than the United

370 States. This does not preclude delineation of Australian cities along socio-economic  
371 boundaries (which strongly interact with ethnic identity), or suggest that ethnic  
372 marginalisation does not occur, only that these patterns appear not to be as stark, or operate  
373 on as large a spatial scale as in the United States.

### 374 **5.3. Jewish populations are highly concentrated, but not segregated**

375 The clearest pattern which emerges from these analyses is the high level of spatial  
376 concentration in Jewish populations in Australia. In some cities, the very small number of  
377 individuals identifying as Jewish within the smaller cities (e.g. Darwin, Hobart) means that  
378 their spatial patterns are essentially indistinguishable from CSR processes. Nonetheless  
379 these patterns, especially in Melbourne and Sydney (where Jewish populations are well  
380 established) provide a intriguing quantitative insight into the processes operating within  
381 urban Jewish-Australian communities. In Melbourne, the Jewish population is located  
382 predominantly in the suburbs of Balaclava, St Kilda East, Ripponlea, Elsternwick and  
383 Caulfield in the city's south east, with a strong ultra-Orthodox component, including the most  
384 insular Adass community, who advocate isolation from the external community socially and  
385 spatially (Legge, 2011). Much of this area is surrounded by an *eruv*, a cable designed to  
386 delineate the area as private domain, allowing the community's Orthodox population to move  
387 freely within the area on the Sabbath. The area delineated by the *eruv* largely corresponds  
388 with the peak of Jewish population density in Melbourne in this analysis. It is possible that  
389 the isolationist views of some elements of city's Jewish community are at least in part driving  
390 this substantial singular concentration of the community in the area.

391 Importantly, however, the results of local contribution to populations in these areas suggest  
392 that, while Jewish populations may exhibit a preference to aggregate together in a localised  
393 community, they do not do this (at least spatially) to the exclusion of other groups. Jewish  
394 populations in both Sydney and Melbourne, whilst highly concentrated, nonetheless reside in  
395 areas with large proportions of other ethnic groups present. The high *S* Index values for the  
396 Jewish population in Australian cities are thus likely to reflect the concentration of a generally

397 small population (i.e. high proportional peaks), in areas with large numbers of individuals  
398 from other ethnic groups, whose local populations nonetheless represent small proportions  
399 of the groups' overall population (i.e. low proportional valleys), contributing to high absolute  
400 difference and absolute maximum surfaces.

#### 401 **5.4. Indigenous populations are scattered, and concentrated at small** 402 **spatial scales**

403 While exhibiting high S index values similar to Jewish populations, Australia's urban  
404 Indigenous communities are considerably more scattered, rather than concentrated in a few  
405 neighbourhoods (e.g. Figure 13). Moreover, while Jewish populations are generally  
406 concentrated in areas of high socio-economic status (Graham, 2014), High Indigenous  
407 populations in urban areas tend to be located in either socio-economically disadvantaged  
408 suburbs, or in small socio-economically disadvantaged enclaves within rapidly gentrifying  
409 inner urban areas. (ABS, 2011). This latter component is particularly prescient, as it  
410 highlights the need to understand the scale dependent nature of investigating segregation.  
411 All of the S index values for all pairwise ethnic group comparisons tended to diminish with  
412 increasing kernel density bandwidth size. However, the Indigenous pairwise comparisons  
413 dropped off significantly. For example, in Sydney, the Australian – Indigenous S Index  
414 dropped from 0.907 at a bandwidth of 500m to 0.498 at a bandwidth of 10,000m (a drop of  
415 45%). By contrast, the relatively high Australian – Jewish S index only dropped from 14.3%  
416 (from 0.918 to 0.786), while the Australian – North West European S index dropped 18.8%  
417 (from 0.208 to 0.169). This indicates that, unlike the Jewish community, where processes  
418 driving spatial segregation operate over relatively large spatial scales, Australia's urban  
419 Indigenous populations are segregated from other groups at relatively fine spatial scales,  
420 along micro-gradients of socio-economic disadvantage and cultural delineation. The  
421 continued gentrification of inner urban areas such as Fitzroy, Collingwood and Richmond in  
422 Melbourne, and Redfern and Newtown in Sydney is only likely to exacerbate these socio-  
423 economic gradients (if it does not result in displacement), which has implications for the

424 measurement of socio-economic status at a fine spatial scale (Goldie et al., 2014; Tanton et  
425 al., 2015)

426 **5.5. Middle Eastern and North African communities are neither highly**  
427 **concentrated nor highly segregated**

428 Considerable media and public attention has been paid to the perceived socio-spatial  
429 segregation of Middle Eastern and North African communities in Australian cities, particularly  
430 within the context of the providing the necessary environment for the radicalisation of young  
431 Australian Muslim men (Blair, 2014; Gamielien, 2014). The combination of both low *S* index  
432 values, and low proportions to local populations for the Middle Eastern and North African  
433 groups suggest that they do not exhibit high levels of concentration, or concentration to the  
434 exclusion of other groups. These ethnic groups are no more spatially nor segregated from  
435 the other ethnic groups in Australian cities, than would be expected for populations of their  
436 size. In Melbourne and Sydney, where much attention has been paid to the perceived role  
437 that ethnic isolationism within communities characterised by a high percentage of Muslim  
438 residents has played in radicalising some high profile individuals, the *S* Index for this  
439 community is within the same range of values as those for the Southeast Asian, and  
440 Northern and Eastern Asian communities, and only slightly higher than the *S* index values  
441 established for the Australian, and Northern and Western European communities (Figure 6,  
442 and Supplementary Information). Additionally peak skew values for the Middle Eastern and  
443 Northern African communities are similar those for Sub-Saharan African, Southeast Asian,  
444 Northern and Eastern Asian, and Southern and Central Asian communities.

445 Perhaps most importantly, Middle Eastern and Northern African ethnic populations are not  
446 concentrated in local areas to the exclusion of other ethnic groups; overall the mean local  
447 (SA1) proportion for the Middle Eastern and northern African groups were amongst the low  
448 values for the 12 ethnic groups examined here, indicating that members of the Middle  
449 Eastern and North African ethnic group share their neighbourhoods with individuals from  
450 other ethnic groups, in a similar way to Australia's urban Jewish and Asian populations.

451 As indicated previously, these results do not imply that Middle Eastern and North African (or  
452 Sub-Saharan African communities are not segregated, isolated or marginalised with respect  
453 to wider social and urban landscape. Indeed, these two communities are predominantly  
454 located in areas of characterised by high levels of socio-economic disadvantage (ABS,  
455 2011), which has significant implications for the ability of individuals to access material and  
456 social resources, which allow an individual's participation in society. While some of these are  
457 barriers certainly are spatially bound, the results here indicate that potential socio-economic  
458 marginalisation of Middle Eastern and North African (and Sub-Saharan African) communities  
459 is neither solely driven by, nor necessarily drives uniquely high patterns of spatial  
460 segregation or concentration.

## 461 **5.6. Conclusion and Future work**

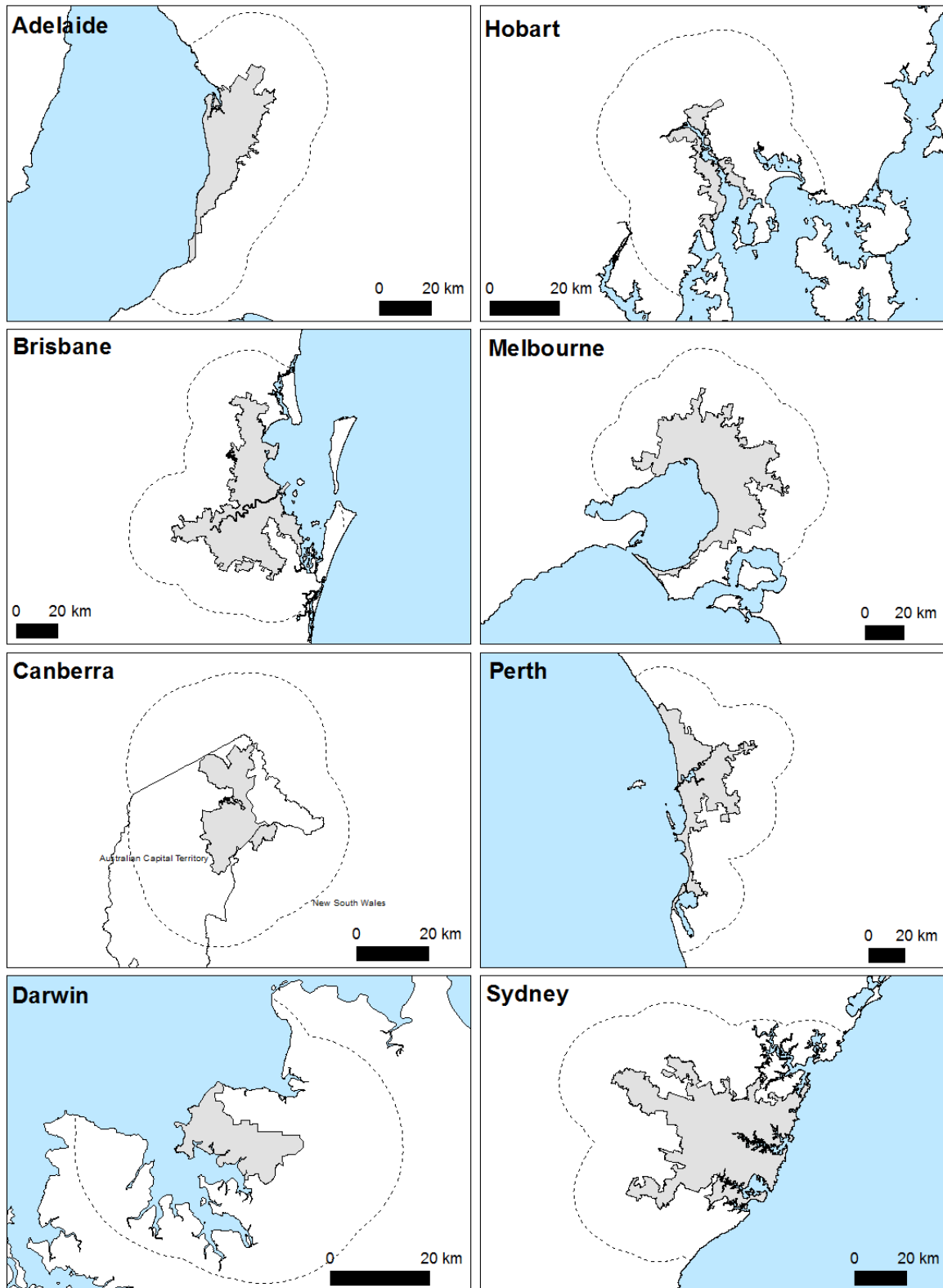
462 This research provided the first attempt at inferring statistical significance for the global  
463 statistic S Index, indicated by the original authors as the next step of extending the methods  
464 (O'Sullivan & Wong, 2007). While most of the patterns described here – particularly for the  
465 larger cities are so apparent that they do not necessarily require statistical testing, the  
466 development of a Monte Carlo has provided a useful exercise in identifying observed  
467 patterns that aren't able to be distinguished from CSR. The method employed here to  
468 simulate CSR nonetheless has some drawbacks. Individuals were used, and reshuffled  
469 randomly across each study area. This is an unrealistic model, given that family units and  
470 households are not comprised of individuals making individual choices about their place of  
471 residence (particularly individuals in partnerships/marriages, and dependent children).  
472 However, ethnic characteristics of households is not presently available from the ABS *Table*  
473 *Builder* database, so individuals are the only level that ethnic characteristics can be  
474 identified. Household/family level data on ethnic characteristics would provide a much  
475 greater ability to simulate a more appropriate CSR process.

476 Grouping distinct nationalities communities into broader ethnic groups is not ideal, and has  
477 the potential to mask segregation patterns operating at a much finer spatial and ethnic scale.

478 However, while efforts were made to separate out some of the more misleading “lumping”  
479 undertaken with the analysis (i.e. separating out Indigenous from Oceania, and Jewish from  
480 Middle Eastern and North African), moving to lower and lower levels has implications for the  
481 accuracy of counts at the SA1 level, due to the nature of the ABS privacy-protecting  
482 randomisation process for small counts.

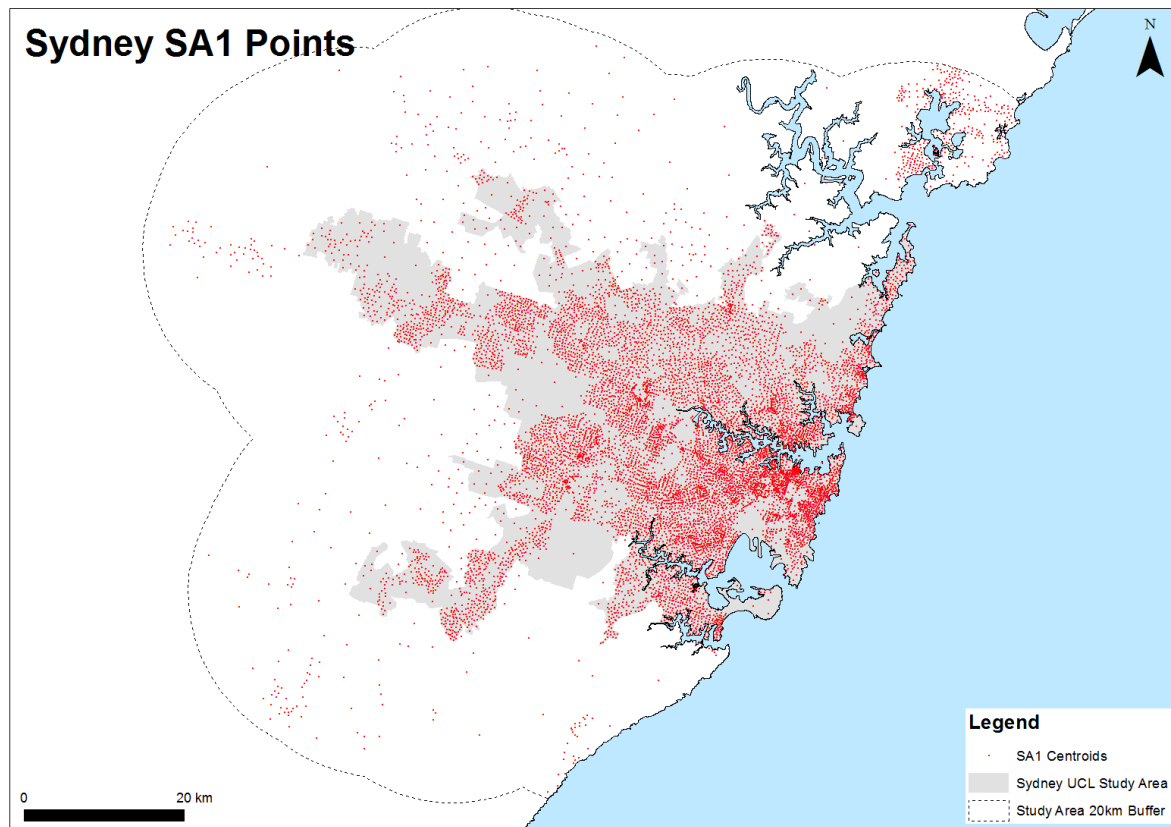
483 The analyses undertaken allow for a greater understanding of the spatial patterns and  
484 processes which are widely perceived to be at play in Australia’s urban milieu. It is clear that  
485 the extent of spatial segregation between ethnic groups in areas studied here is related  
486 closely to the size of population, although clearly distinct processes driving ethnic  
487 segregation and concentration are operating for small populations, at varying spatial scales.  
488 Moreover, public perceptions of how certain groups are isolated spatially from the wider  
489 community are not necessarily borne out by this empirical analysis.

490 • **Figures**



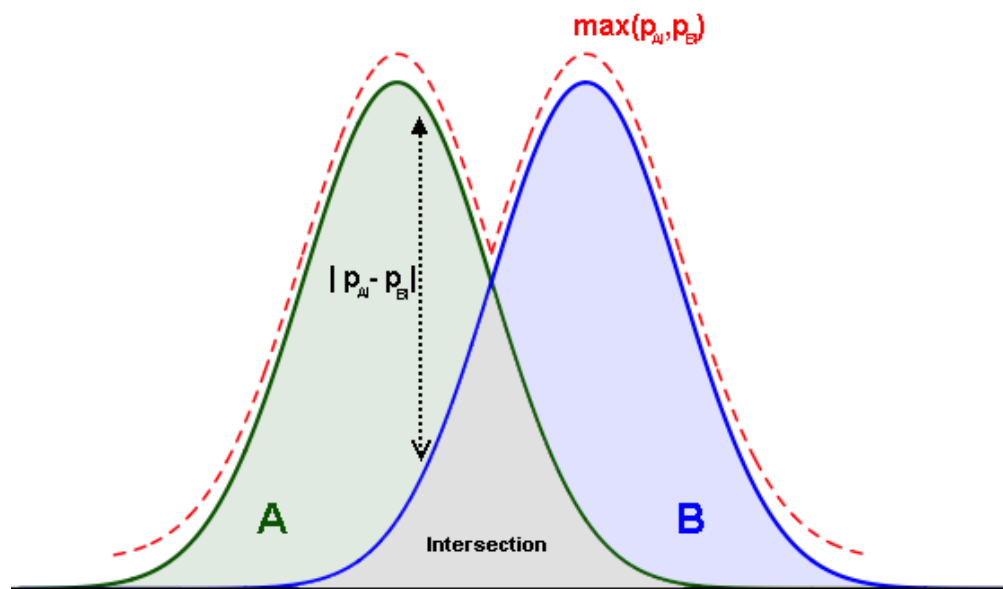
Capital City UCL Study Area    Study Area 20km Buffer

492 Figure 1: Eight Capital City Study Areas across Australia



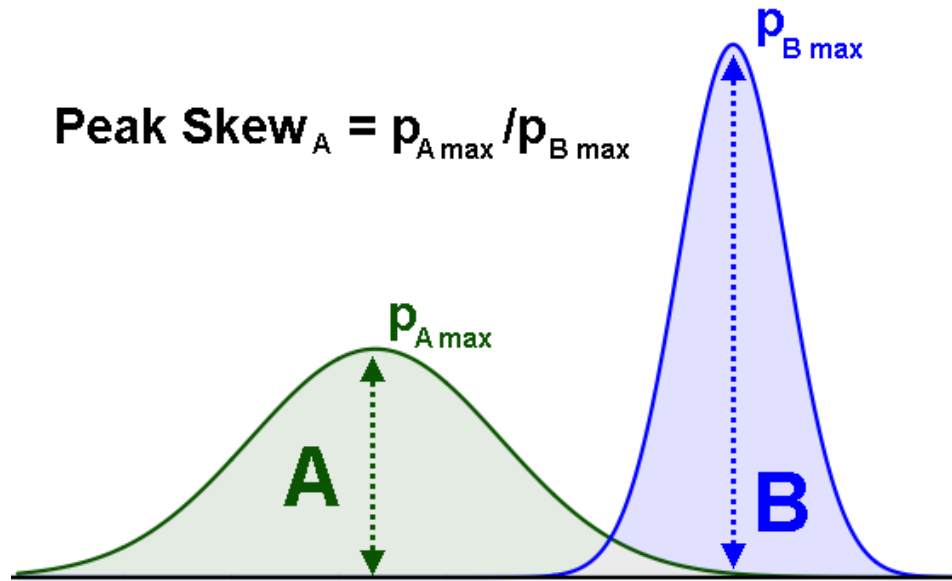
493

494 Figure 2: Example of distribution of SA1 centroids within a study area (Sydney)



495

496 Figure 3: Example of calculation of Segregation Index  $S$  for two hypothetical populations  $A$   
 497 and  $B$ .  $S$  is equivalent to  $1 - \text{Intersection}$ . Adapted from O'Sullivan and Wong (2007).



498

499 Figure 4: Illustration of Peak skew calculations for two hypothetical ethnic groups A and B.

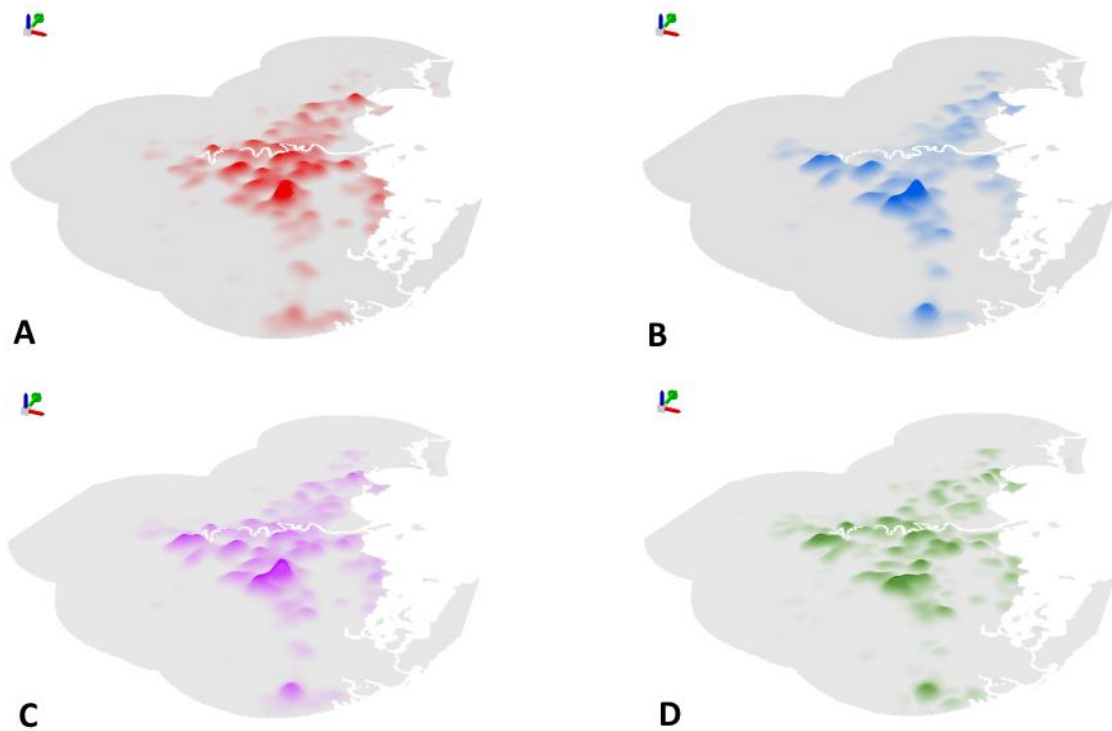
500 Ethnic group A has a wider geographic spread, and consequently has a flatter distribution

501 with lower proportions of its total population in one place, compared to ethnic group B. Peak

502 skew is calculated by determining the ratio of the values of the maximum peaks.

503

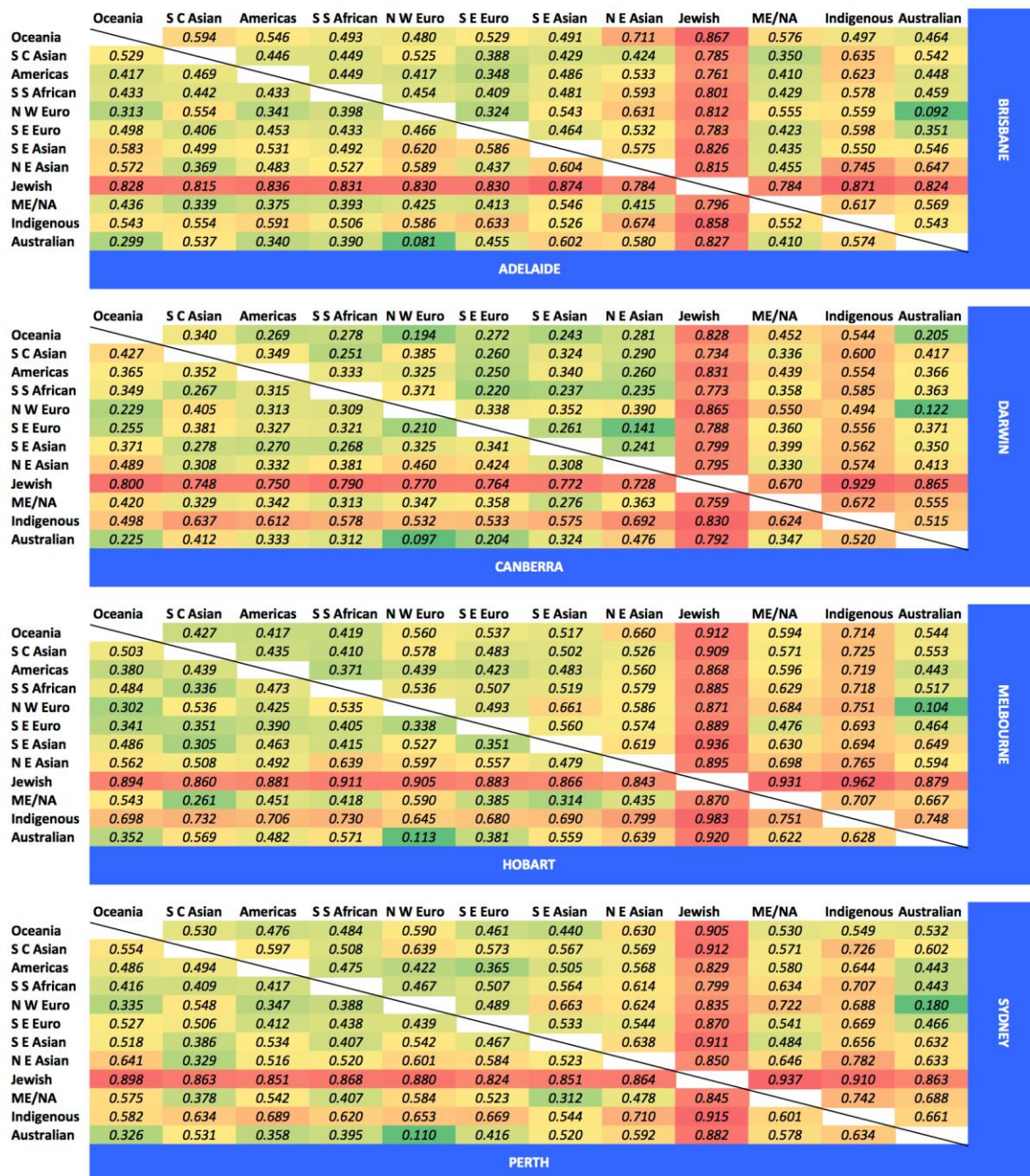
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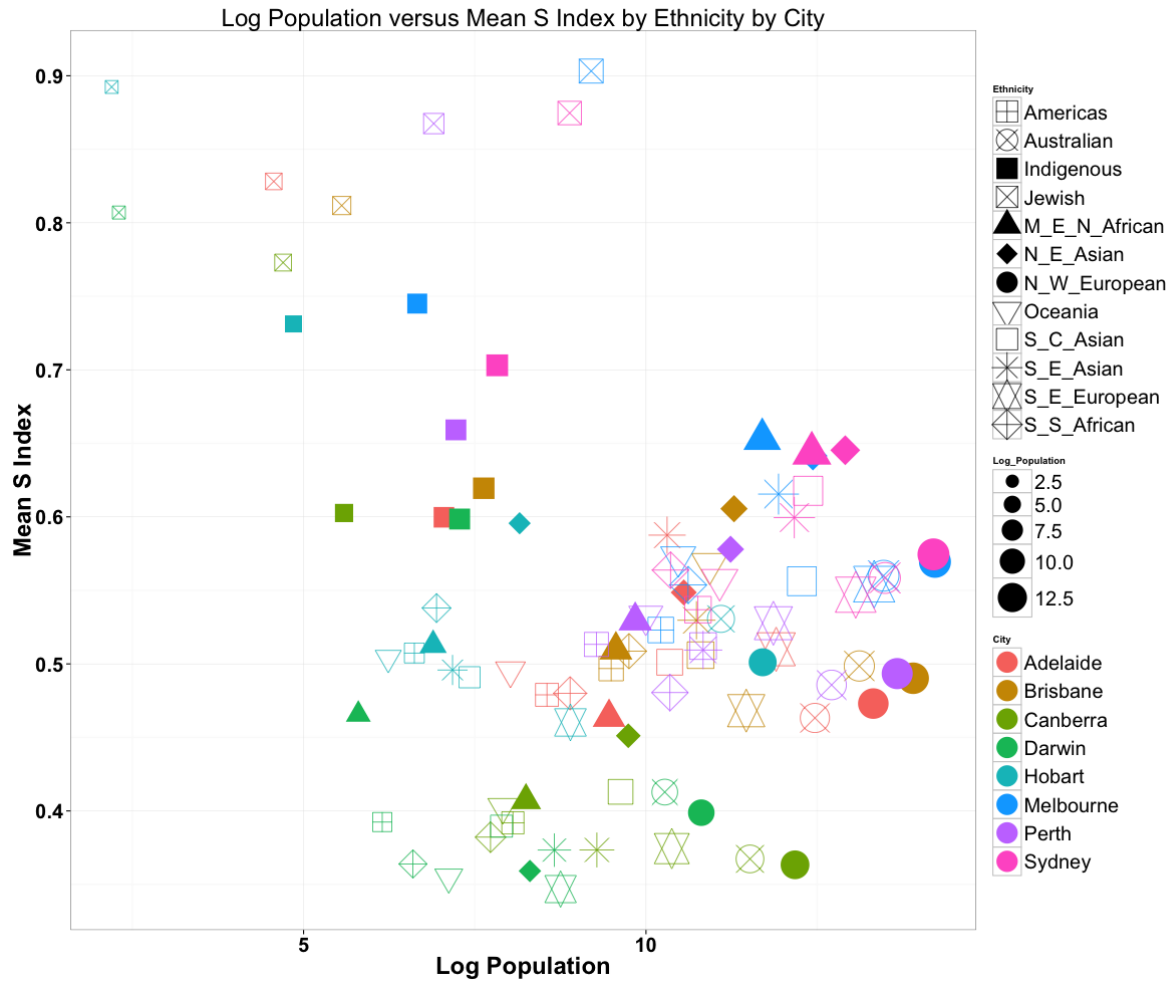
506 Figure 5: Example ethnic kernel density estimates for Brisbane at Bandwidth = 2.5km. (A)  
 507 Sub Saharan Africa; (B) Oceanian; (C) Maximum Value for either of the two surfaces; (D)  
 508 Absolute Difference between the two surfaces. The Absolute Difference surface provides a  
 509 useful visualisation of the location and magnitude of segregation between the two  
 510 populations.

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511

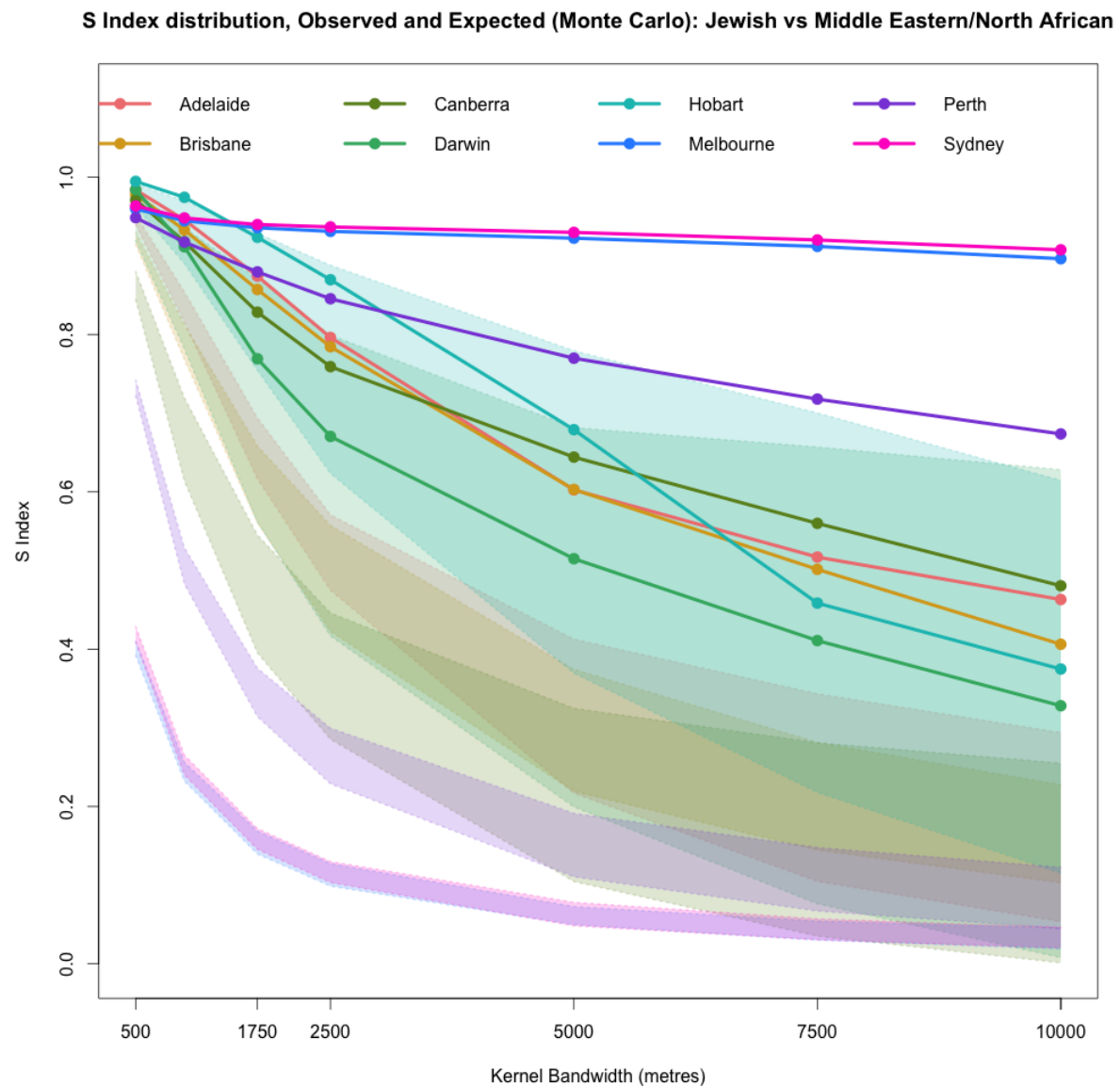
512 Figure 6: S Index matrices for 8 Capital City study areas in Australia between 12 Ethnic  
 513 Groups, at bandwidth = 2.5km. Colours range from green (low S Index value) to red (high S  
 514 Index value) within each city.



515

516 Figure 7: Plot of Log Population Size versus Mean S Index value for each of 12 ethnic  
 517 groups (shape) for each capital city (colour) for bandwidth = 2.5km

518



519

520 Figure 8: Observed (solid lines) and Expected (transparent bands) S index values for Jewish  
 521 vs Middle Eastern and North African pairwise comparison across all eight capital cities for all  
 522 kernel bandwidths. Only Darwin and Hobart's observed values all within the range expected  
 523 by a completely spatially random process, as determined by Monte Carlo simulations

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	Oceania	S(C)Asian	Americas	S(S)African	N(W)Euro	S(E)Euro	S(E)Asian	N(E)Asian	Jewish	ME/NA	Indigenous	Australian	PEAK/SKEW
Oceania		0.725	1.427	0.740	1.774	1.724	0.535	0.773	0.129	0.665	0.537	2.806	
S(C)Asian	1.380		1.969	1.021	2.447	2.379	0.738	1.067	0.178	0.918	0.741	3.872	
Americas	0.701	0.508		0.519	1.243	1.209	0.375	0.542	0.091	0.466	0.376	1.967	
S(S)African	1.352	0.980	1.928		2.397	2.330	0.723	1.045	0.175	0.899	0.726	3.793	
N(W)Euro	0.564	0.409	0.804	0.417		0.972	0.301	0.436	0.073	0.375	0.303	1.582	
S(E)Euro	0.580	0.420	0.827	0.429	1.029		0.310	0.449	0.075	0.386	0.311	1.628	
S(E)Asian	1.871	1.356	2.669	1.384	3.318	3.225		1.447	0.242	1.244	1.004	5.249	
N(E)Asian	1.293	0.937	1.844	0.957	2.293	2.229	0.691		0.167	0.860	0.694	3.628	
Jewish	7.745	5.613	11.049	5.730	13.737	13.353	4.140	5.991		5.151	4.159	21.734	
ME/NA	1.504	1.090	2.145	1.113	2.667	2.593	0.804	1.163	0.194		0.807	4.220	
Indigenous	1.862	1.350	2.657	1.378	3.303	3.211	0.996	1.441	0.240	1.238		5.226	
Australian	0.356	0.258	0.508	0.264	0.632	0.614	0.190	0.276	0.046	0.237	0.191		
SYDNEY													
	Oceania	S(C)Asian	Americas	S(S)African	N(W)Euro	S(E)Euro	S(E)Asian	N(E)Asian	Jewish	ME/NA	Indigenous	Australian	PEAK/SKEW
Oceania		0.864	1.036	0.514	1.695	1.648	0.546	0.419	0.084	0.348	0.538	2.259	
S(C)Asian	1.157		1.199	0.595	1.961	1.907	0.631	0.484	0.097	0.402	0.623	2.613	
Americas	0.965	0.834		0.496	1.636	1.590	0.527	0.404	0.081	0.336	0.519	2.180	
S(S)African	1.945	1.681	2.016		3.297	3.206	1.062	0.814	0.163	0.677	1.047	4.394	
N(W)Euro	0.590	0.510	0.611	0.303		0.972	0.322	0.247	0.049	0.205	0.317	1.333	
S(E)Euro	0.607	0.524	0.629	0.312	1.028		0.331	0.254	0.051	0.211	0.327	1.371	
S(E)Asian	1.833	1.584	1.899	0.942	3.106	3.020		0.767	0.153	0.637	0.986	4.139	
N(E)Asian	2.389	2.065	2.476	1.228	4.050	3.938	1.304		0.200	0.831	1.286	5.397	
Jewish	11.958	10.335	12.390	6.147	20.267	19.706	6.525	5.005		4.159	6.434	27.008	
ME/NA	2.875	2.485	2.979	1.478	4.873	4.738	1.569	1.203	0.240		1.547	6.494	
Indigenous	1.859	1.606	1.926	0.955	3.150	3.063	1.014	0.778	0.155	0.646		4.198	
Australian	0.443	0.383	0.459	0.228	0.750	0.730	0.242	0.185	0.037	0.154	0.238		
MELBOURNE													
	Oceania	S(C)Asian	Americas	S(S)African	N(W)Euro	S(E)Euro	S(E)Asian	N(E)Asian	Jewish	ME/NA	Indigenous	Australian	PEAK/SKEW
Oceania		1.189	0.677	1.189	2.641	1.589	0.451	0.540	0.329	0.952	0.798	3.638	
S(C)Asian	0.841		0.569	1.000	2.221	1.337	0.379	0.455	0.277	0.801	0.671	3.060	
Americas	1.477	1.756		1.755	3.900	2.347	0.666	0.798	0.486	1.406	1.179	5.373	
S(S)African	0.841	1.000	0.570		2.222	1.337	0.379	0.455	0.277	0.801	0.672	3.061	
N(W)Euro	0.379	0.450	0.256	0.450		0.602	0.171	0.205	0.125	0.360	0.302	1.378	
S(E)Euro	0.629	0.748	0.426	0.748	1.662		0.284	0.340	0.207	0.599	0.502	2.289	
S(E)Asian	2.219	2.638	1.502	2.637	5.860	3.527		1.199	0.730	2.112	1.771	8.072	
N(E)Asian	1.851	2.200	1.253	2.199	4.887	2.941	0.834		0.609	1.761	1.477	6.732	
Jewish	3.039	3.612	2.057	3.611	8.024	4.829	1.369	1.642		2.892	2.426	11.053	
ME/NA	1.051	1.249	0.711	1.249	2.774	1.670	0.473	0.568	0.346		0.839	3.822	
Indigenous	1.253	1.489	0.848	1.489	3.308	1.991	0.565	0.677	0.412	1.192		4.557	
Australian	0.275	0.327	0.186	0.327	0.726	0.437	0.124	0.149	0.090	0.262	0.219		
BRISBANE													
	Oceania	S(C)Asian	Americas	S(S)African	N(W)Euro	S(E)Euro	S(E)Asian	N(E)Asian	Jewish	ME/NA	Indigenous	Australian	PEAK/SKEW
Oceania		0.640	0.684	0.845	1.635	0.596	0.466	0.544	0.066	0.394	0.492	1.635	
S(C)Asian	1.561		1.068	1.320	2.552	0.931	0.727	0.850	0.104	0.615	0.768	2.553	
Americas	1.462	0.936		1.236	2.389	0.872	0.681	0.796	0.097	0.575	0.719	2.390	
S(S)African	1.183	0.758	0.809		1.933	0.705	0.551	0.644	0.079	0.466	0.582	1.934	
N(W)Euro	0.612	0.392	0.419	0.517		0.365	0.285	0.333	0.041	0.241	0.301	1.000	
S(E)Euro	1.677	1.074	1.147	1.418	2.741		0.781	0.913	0.111	0.660	0.824	2.742	
S(E)Asian	2.147	1.375	1.469	1.815	3.510	1.281		1.169	0.143	0.845	1.056	3.511	
N(E)Asian	1.837	1.176	1.256	1.553	3.002	1.095	0.855		0.122	0.723	0.903	3.003	
Jewish	15.041	9.632	10.289	12.716	24.584	8.969	7.004	8.190		5.921	7.394	24.595	
ME/NA	2.540	1.627	1.738	2.148	4.152	1.515	1.183	1.383	0.169		1.249	4.154	
Indigenous	2.034	1.303	1.391	1.720	3.325	1.213	0.947	1.108	0.135	0.801		3.326	
Australian	0.612	0.392	0.418	0.517	1.000	0.365	0.285	0.333	0.041	0.241	0.301		
PERTH													

524

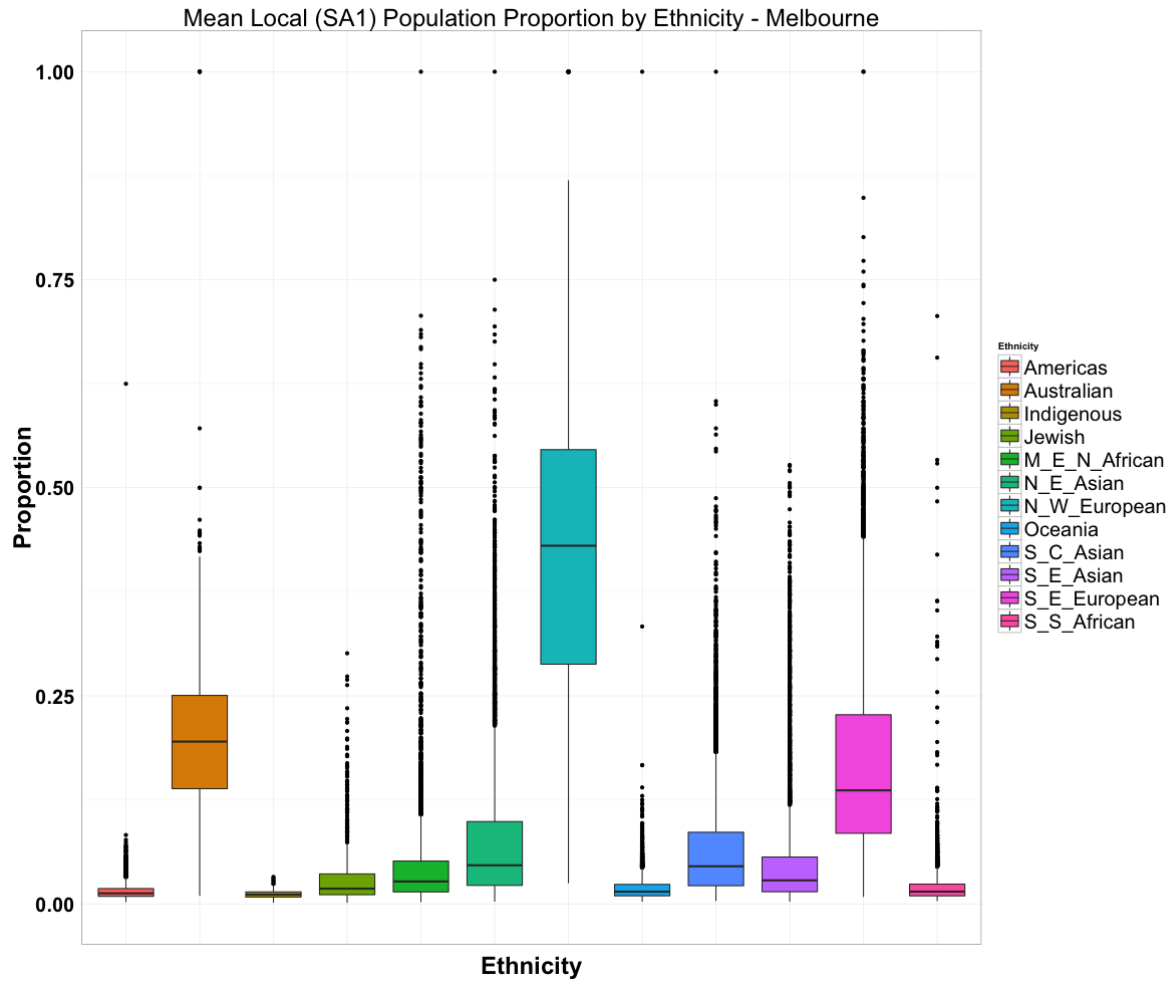
525 Figure 9 Peak Skew figures for the four largest capital cities (Sydney, Melbourne, Brisbane  
 526 and Perth) Rows indicate the ratio of that ethnic group as  $P_{Amax}$ , (i.e. numerator) with row  
 527 values higher than 1 indicating that ethnic group is substantially higher than  $P_{Bmax}$  (i.e.  
 528 denominator)



529

530 Figure 10: Plot of Log Population Size versus Log Mean Peak Skew value for each of 12

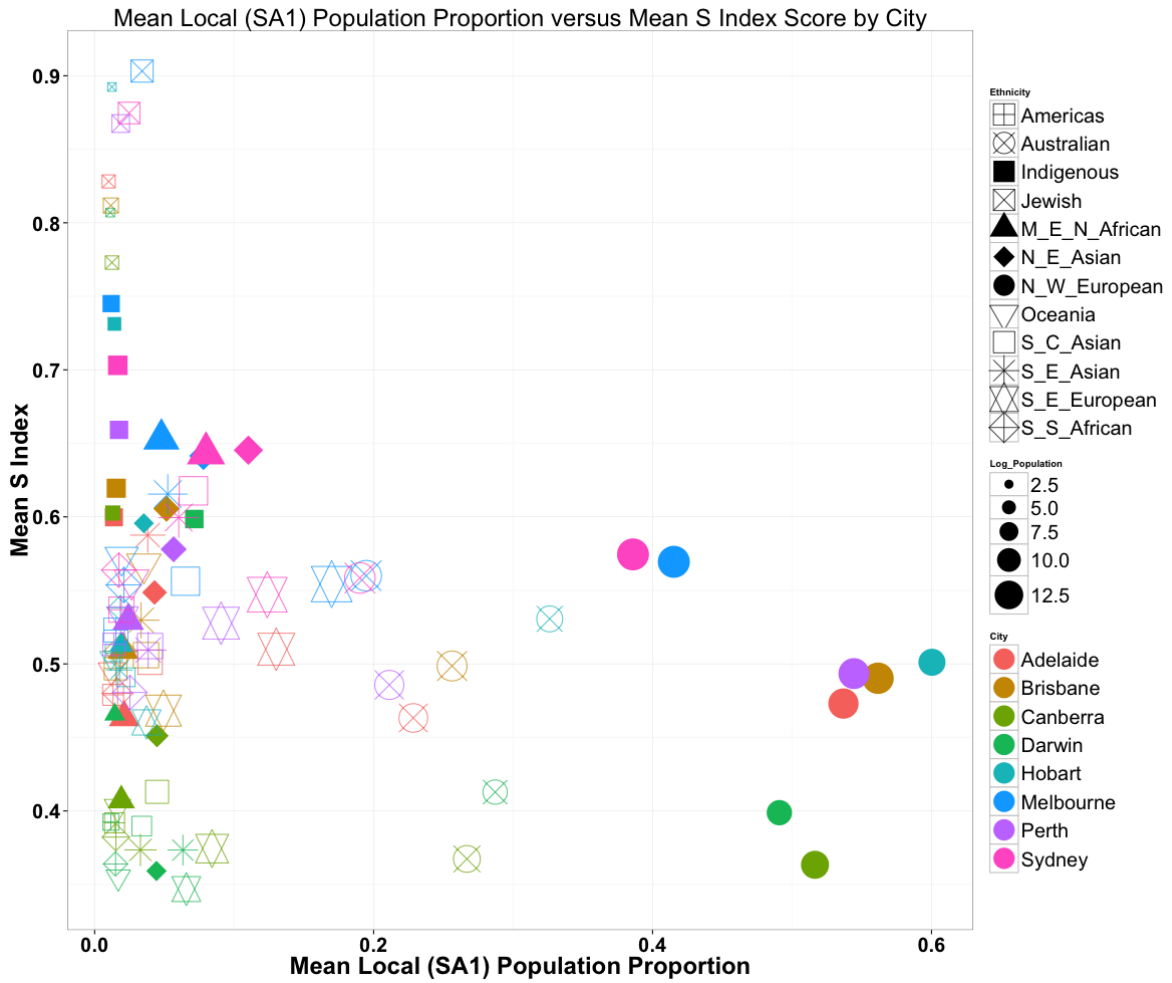
531 ethnic groups (shape) for each capital city (colour) for bandwidth = 2.5km.



532

533 Figure 11: Box Plots of proportional contribution to local (SA1) populations for each ethnic

534 groups across Melbourne.

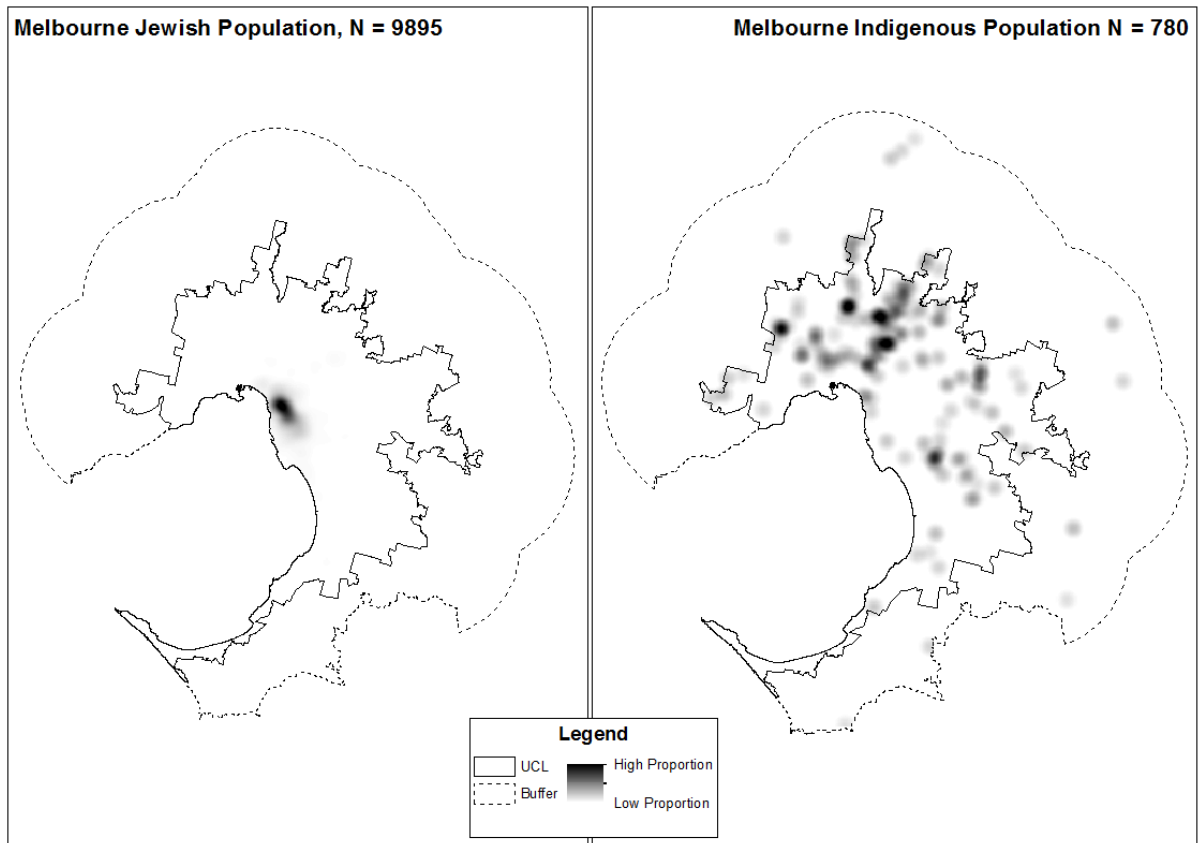


535

536 Figure 12: Plot of Mean Local (SA1) Population Proportion versus Mean S Index value for  
 537 each of 12 ethnic groups (shape) for each capital city (colour).

538

539



540

541 Figure 11: Comparisons of population distributions for Melbourne's Jewish (left) and  
542 Indigenous (right) populations (bandwidth = 2.5km)

543

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