



UNIT 4: CHANGING CITIES- GLOBAL TRENDS

GLOBAL TRENDS OF URBANISATION

The world is increasingly urbanised and the trend towards cities shows no sign of slowing. At present, 55% of the global population live in urban areas and this is expected to rise to 68% by 2050. This growing trend towards living in towns and cities has resulted in the formation of **megacities**, which have populations in excess of 10 million people. They include cities such as Tokyo, Sao Paulo, Shanghai and Lagos. Megacities require complex infrastructure in order to effectively meet the needs of their many residents, and often encounter challenges such as congestion and housing shortages.

The majority of this growth is occurring in **emerging and developing** countries, where the growth of towns and cities has been more recent than in developed countries. Moreover, the speed at which these changes are occurring is far more rapid than when **developed** countries underwent the same process in the 19th century during the Industrial Revolution. Improvements to transport, specifically affordable train and plane travel, have also meant that people in today's world are far more mobile (able to move) and thus both **national and international migration** have become more accessible.

A lack of employment opportunities in the countryside and poor crop yields act as a **push factor** for rural-urban migration, whilst better paid jobs, healthcare provision and education opportunities in urban areas also act as a **pull factor** in encouraging people to move to the city. Furthermore, better healthcare has also led to a **natural increase** in the population.

By contrast, cities in developed countries have experienced far slower rates of population growth over the past 50-60 years and in some instances, there have been significant levels of decline. This is due in part to already high rates of urbanisation, but factors such as deindustrialisation have disproportionately hit cities which were heavily dependent upon manufacturing, such as Detroit, USA. Falling birth rates and ageing populations may also result in a **natural decrease** of the population too.

Movement to cities in developed countries was initially caused by push factors such as the mechanisation (introduction of machinery) in agriculture during the Industrial Revolution which resulted in fewer jobs. At the same time, the growth of factories which offered better paying jobs in the secondary sector drew people towards living in towns and cities. Nowadays, the main motivations for urbanisation are largely **economic** and focused on tertiary jobs and further education.

URBANISATION IN THE UK

Economic factors tend to be the main driver of urban population growth and this is true of the UK's cities too. Thus, the areas experiencing the greatest rates of urbanisation are those that are also seeing the greatest economic growth rates.



Fast urban growth:

- Around half of all international migrants move to London/South East
- Most investment occurs in London and surrounding areas, encouraging national and international migration for job opportunities
- London is home to several of the world's most reputable universities

Slow urban growth

- Deindustrialisation has affected the north to a greater extent, leading to higher rates of unemployment e.g. North East England.
- This, combined with lower wages, act as a deterrent for migration.

DEINDUSTRIALISATION IN UK CITIES

The UK has experienced **deindustrialisation**, with a significant decrease in the amount of manufacturing taking place in the country. Traditional industries, such as ship building, textiles and perhaps most significantly, coal mining, have witnessed widespread closure and decline. This affected cities such as London with the closure of the Docklands, but the north of England has been (and continues to be) affected by deindustrialisation to a greater extent. This has led to issues of **uneven development** described as a **'two speed economy'**.

There are four key **causes** of deindustrialisation:

Transport improvements: Goods can be transported more easily making it more feasible for goods to be manufactured overseas.

Decentralisation: Cheaper land outside cities or abroad mean offices/factories move to lower production costs.

Technological advances: The mechanisation of many process that occur in the production process means fewer people are required.

Cheaper overseas labour: Lower incomes and fewer requirements such as pensions/paid holiday mean greater profits can be made.

Impacts may include higher unemployment; decrease in family incomes; increase in brownfield sites; loss of community cohesion.

RETAIL CHANGE AND THE IMPACT ON UK CITIES



Growth of edge of town shopping: Retail parks and shopping centres offer cheap rents compared to the CBD for shops. Customers benefit from greater choice of shops, parking facilities, being able to shop indoors and from the broad array of entertainment facilities found here e.g. cinemas, bars and restaurants.

Increased popularity of internet shopping: More people shopping online compared to visiting shops in the CBD e.g. Amazon, ASOS. This was further boosted during the pandemic when physical shops closed.

Impacts on the CBD may include fewer shoppers are coming into the CBD, which means that more shops close down and areas experiences economic decline. A lack of visitors to the area or open shops may also lead to a rise in anti-social behaviour. In some instances, shops in the CBD are changing their function to remain economically viable.

CAUSES AND IMPACTS OF MIGRATION IN UK CITIES

CAUSES OF MIGRATION

The decision to move from rural-urban areas or to migrate overseas is motivated by a range of different factors. These can be split into **push factors** (which encourage someone to move away from an area) and **pull factors** (which encourage someone to move towards and area).

Push factors may include deindustrialisation, the mechanisation of farming, poverty, lower quality of life, fewer amenities, limited higher education opportunities and higher rates of unemployment.

Pull factors may be more job opportunities, higher paying jobs, better quality of life, more amenities (e.g. entertainment) and higher quality education provision – London has 400k students.

- 250 different languages make London the most linguistically diverse city in the world.
- Approximately 1/3 of all Londoners were born overseas.
- Of Londoners not born in the UK, more were born in India than any other country – 350,000 are first-generation migrants from India.
- In 2019, the most common reason for migration from non-EU countries was for **family**, whilst for migration from EU countries was for **work**.

IMPACTS OF MIGRATION

Housing: Increase in house prices and rentals as supply cannot keep up with increasing demand. Overcrowding and poor living conditions are common in rented homes.

Age structure: Large, youthful population. Median age of London is 35.8 years, whilst England/Wales is 40.2.

Services: Greater demand on services such as schools and GPs, with bigger class sizes and longer waits for appointments.

Brain gain: The UK benefits from highly-skilled workers to the UK, such as doctors and nurses.

Diversity: Celebrations of culture e.g. Notting Hill Carnival and more amenities e.g. Polish supermarkets, cultural centres etc.



UNIT 4: CHANGING CITIES- MANCHESTER

SITE, SITUATION AND CONNECTIVITY OF MANCHESTER



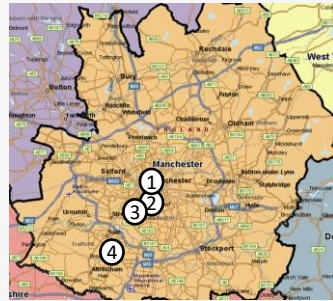
Site: The River Irwell was used as a trade route and served as a source of water for agriculture during the Roman Empire. Developed from the river outwards, with flat relief of land allowing for settlement expansion.

Situation: Manchester is situated in the north-west of England, approximately 35 miles east of Liverpool 200 miles north-west of London. Manchester is located 15 miles to the west of the Pennine mountains.

Connectivity: Transport for Greater Manchester (TfGM) provides a network of buses, trams, and cycle routes within Manchester (The Bee Network). Several national rail stations e.g. Piccadilly and Victoria link Manchester to rest of the UK. The motorway network connects Manchester to other northern cities (M62 Liverpool, Leeds and Hull) as well as Scotland, the Midlands and London (M6). Manchester's international airport connects it with Europe, Asia, Northern Africa, and North America.

STRUCTURE AND FUNCTION OF MANCHESTER

- ① Central Business District – Manchester City Centre
- ② Inner city – Moss Side
- ③ Suburbs - Didsbury
- ④ Rural-urban fringe - Altrincham



Central Business District: The centre of the city and original settlement site. Expensive land leads to vertical construction. Building density is high. Main function is work and entertainment, with flagships shops, business headquarters, museums, universities, bars and restaurants found in this area.

Inner city: The main function is residential. Land is still expensive, so house prices are high. Most housing stock is Victorian terraced properties. Former sites of industry (deindustrialisation) have been regenerated and turned into luxury apartment and living complexes. Services include 'express' supermarkets, pubs and GP surgeries. Popular amongst younger professionals.

Suburbs: The main function here is also residential. Cheaper land and the expansion of the railways led to semi-detached and detached houses being built here in 1930s/40s. Services include larger supermarkets, parks and retail parks. Large roads and main roads favour car ownership, but railway, tram and bus links connect to Manchester City Centre within 30 minutes.

Rural-urban fringe: Found where a city meets greenbelt countryside. A mixture of functions including housing, out of town shopping centres, business parks and airports. Large, detached houses with big gardens and garages. Strong transport links e.g., motorways, railway and trams. New development can lead to issues, such as warehouses at Bredbury industrial park.

SEQUENCE OF URBANISATION IN MANCHESTER

Stage	When?	Explanation
Urbanisation	1821-1901	Industrial Revolution caused people to leave primary jobs in rural areas to move to secondary in city.
Suburbanisation	1910s onwards	Growing population led to urban sprawl. Improved transport links e.g. Midland Railway serving SW Manchester, allowed people to work in the CBD but live in the suburbs.
Counter-urbanisation	1940s onwards	During the war, people were evacuated to the countryside. The launch of Manchester's first motorways in the 1970's made living in rural areas and working in urban areas feasible. People are pulled by less pollution, larger houses and quieter lifestyles; 'ghost town' effect created where daytime weekday population very low.
Re-urbanisation	1990s onwards	Re-development of derelict areas that experienced deindustrialisation has resulted in a 'second wave' of urbanisation. Developments such as Media City and Manchester Science Park have created new employment opportunities in the tertiary and quaternary sectors. This, along with vibrant and exciting places for entertainment and socialising (e.g. the Arndale and Trafford centres) and high-quality apartments in the inner city, is encouraging young professionals to move to the city.

IMPROVING SUSTAINABILITY AND QUALITY OF LIFE IN MANCHESTER

Sustainability: Meeting the needs of the present without negatively impacting the needs of future generations.

Quality of life: Subjective evaluation of positive and negative aspects of life.

TRANSPORT	<p>Bee Network: Integrated transport system to encourage more people to take public transport. Trams and buses reduce emissions, with Manchester ordering 100 zero-emission electric buses. Active travel like bikes and foot is being promoted through investment of £16m into segregated routes for active travel. This is all organized for users through the Bee Network app with low cost (£2 for a bus) fares.</p>	<p>No greenhouse gases emitted, reducing enhanced greenhouse effect. Active travel promotes health of individuals as they exercise whilst travelling. Low cost and reliability of trams saw numbers rise from 8.1m in 1992 to 36m in 2023.</p> <p>Not all buses are eco-friendly yet. Cost of switching to cleaner buses likely to be through higher fares. NO₂ levels in the city are still higher than WHO recommended levels which contributes to asthma. 33% of residents still mainly use cars to travel.</p>
RECYCLING	<p>Greater Manchester Environment Fund: In 2023 the fund awarded £219,000 to 26 local groups to reduce household waste and promote sustainability. Projects included 'Get on your bike' to maintain and sell bikes cheaply, and 'Bounce back Food' turning waste food into community meals to reduce waste, upskill chefs, and reduce the cost of living.</p>	<p>Provides funding to allow for small scale projects. Encourage projects with a range of social and environmental benefits with resulting changes to lifestyle (connection to nature, healthy eating) reducing pressure on health services. Projects are highly inclusive building social cohesion between ages and ethnicities.</p> <p>Small scale (26 projects) thus impact is somewhat limited.</p>
EDUCATION	<p>Greater Manchester Children and Young People Plan: Ensuring students are 'ready for life'. This was a priority as more young people are out of education or unemployed in Manchester than national average. Students were upskilled in elements such as relationships, finances, political knowledge and cultural awareness. Partnerships worked on improving all schools.</p>	<p>Proportion of Young in education is 92.3% compared with the national average of 78.7%. Increases level of qualification and ability to access higher paid jobs.</p> <p>Proportion of young unemployed is 18.9% compared with the national average of 13.1%. Increases likelihood of health risks with unhealthy diet and higher risk of alcoholism.</p>
HOUSING	<p>Social housing improvements: Survey of all 12,500 council owned properties. £100m has been approved to improve 4,100 social houses including bathrooms, kitchens, boilers, rewiring, and energy efficiency as part of efforts to become net zero by 2038.</p>	<p>New boilers and solar panels will improve efficiency and reduce running costs for residents.</p> <p>Require maintenance. Number of families in temporary accommodation has doubled to 470. House prices have risen by 481% to an average of £241,956.</p>



UNIT 4: CHANGING CITIES- SAO PAULO

SITE, SITUATION AND CONNECTIVITY OF SAO PAULO



Site: Sao Paulo is close to the sea, on a hilly plateau approx. 800m above sea level. The main river flowing through Sao Paulo is the River Tietê.

Situation: Located 350 km south-west of Rio de Janeiro and 1000 km south of the capital, Brasilia. 70km inland from the Atlantic Ocean and from the main port in Santos.

Connectivity: Metro, major roads and a large bus terminal with 16,000 buses connect the city. National links by roads, trains and airports. Two major international airports link Sao Paulo globally.

STRUCTURE OF SAO PAULO



Central Business District: Main functions are work and entertainment. Business headquarters, financial institutions, retail, hotels and cultural establishments found here. High rise apartments for wealthy residents. Main railway stations. Corticos (ghettos) have appeared in last 50 years.

Inner city: The main function is residential and industrial. Includes wealthy areas such as the Jardins. Leading industries (located on main roads) produce textiles, mechanical/electrical appliances and food, and provide jobs to 10% of the population. The first favelas were established here, many of which have been cleared but some remain e.g. Paraisopolis, where 43,000 people are crammed into 150 hectares.

Suburbs: Residential and commercial functions formed in late 20th century. Huge contrasts in housing. Morumbi, an area of high-security housing complexes with several parks and shopping centres bordered by favelas. Commercial functions include government buildings, university, headquarters of banks and multinational companies and Congonhas airport, which serves regional destinations.

Rural-urban fringe: Favelas first grew here in the 1980s as a result of rapid population growth and a lack of housing in the centre. Poor transport links meant the land was undesirable for other purposes. In 1990s, gated communities were built here to house the super-rich working in business headquarters and for major finance firms. Wealthy residents desired for a cleaner life away from the CBD and use helicopters to commute to jobs there in order to avoid congestion on main roads.

RAPID URBANISATION IN SAO PAULO

CAUSES OF RAPID URBANISATION

- **Better job opportunities** in the city as agriculture became mechanised (using machinery instead of manual labour) leading to high rural unemployment.
- **Economic growth of 226% in 1950s/60s** led to labour shortages, resulting in mass economic migration. Of these, many were international migrants from Italy and Portugal, whose successful migration experience encouraged others to do the same.
- **Deindustrialisation** occurred in the 1980s. Although this led to high unemployment rates amongst those in the secondary sector, the development of tertiary industries that followed such as finance have attracted highly qualified young professionals to the city.

IMPACTS OF RAPID URBANISATION

- **Age structure of Sao Paulo is younger** than that of Brazil. Young people starting a family then increases the birth rate and leads to pressures on services.
- **Housing pressures** have led to 20% of the city's population living in favelas, and 70% living in 'substandard' quality housing.
- **Inequality between older and newer migrants** as those who have been in the city longer tend to be better off.
- **Favelas (informal settlements) and corticos (old factories/offices)** are occupied by some of Sao Paulo's poorest residents.
- **Multiculturalism**, with people from 111 different ethnic backgrounds living in the city. Liberdade is the largest Japanese community outside of Japan itself.
- **Sao Paulo has the highest unemployment rate in Brazil** due to deindustrialisation. This has led to a growth in the informal economy and high crime rates.

RISING INEQUALITY IN SAO PAULO

Rapid urbanisation has also led to a worsening of inequality in Sao Paulo. A report found that Moema, the city's richest district, had a higher standard of living than Portugal, whilst the poorest district, Marsilac, was poorer than Sierra Leone. Sao Paulo's wealthy move around by helicopter, with over 200 helipads found dotted across the city – Los Angeles, USA has just 70 by comparison. An estimated 600,000 live in corticos in the inner city, with whole families sharing one room.

STRATEGIES TO IMPROVE QUALITY OF LIFE IN SAO PAULO

	STRATEGIES	+/-
TOP-DOWN	<p>Housing</p> <p>The Cingapura Housing Project was funded by the government from 1995-2001. It aimed to clear existing favelas and build 100,000 new high-rise, affordable homes. The project had a total budget of \$250 million, but not all this money was spent.</p> <p>Transport</p> <p>Sao Paulo's Metroline expansion boosted the number of train lines from 8 to 12. The city loses \$2bn in lost productivity annually, as commuters are stuck in traffic and prevented from getting to work. This sought to reduce travel time and expand capacity. In addition, the city introduced bus lanes on major roads. Buses have sole use of the lanes, making public transport quicker and easy to use and therefore encouraging more to use it instead of cars.</p>	<p>Cingapura Housing Project</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Houses built in the same place as favelas; clean water and proper sanitation reduced instance of illness; reduction in crime due to better security. • Residents had no say in the project – small and high-rise not appropriate, no space for livestock; lack of supporting infrastructure e.g transport links; only 14,000 out of the planned 100k homes were built. <p>Metroline expansion</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Creation of employment opportunities both <u>directly</u> (construction, maintenance) and <u>indirectly</u> linked to the expansion of the train network. • Still overcrowded during busy periods; does not cover all of Sao Paulo. <p>Bus lanes</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Encourages public transport use; less petrol usage per person than cars. • Buses still release CO2 emissions (not hybrid or electric buses).
BOTTOM-UP	<p>Housing</p> <p>The Santo Andres Self-Help Scheme began in 2000. It supports residents with the necessary skills and resources to improve their favela homes (and subsequently quality of life) independently. It has cost \$5.3 million so far and has been funded by 14 different non-governmental organisations (NGOs), working directly with locals.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Improvements to quality of life resulting from safer and more secure homes. Local people are upskilled in construction and literacy programs have potential to increase employability by making people more qualified. Healthcare improvements mean people are more productive. • Smaller scale, 14 organisations led to conflict of interest and literacy programs were not fully utilised.