

URBAN GEOGRAPHY: A TEACHING UNIT FOR USE
IN THE COMMUNITY COLLEGE

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

A continuous desire of students today is for meaning and relevance in terms of contemporary problems and the human condition in their scholastic exposure. An effort to relate contemporary surroundings of the undergraduate to geography, while addressing the felt need for relevancy, can be attained in an introductory course in urban geography. The world's population in this century has become increasingly dominated by an urban society. "Virtually all countries are experiencing rapid urbanization, and in the next 40 years the population growth in the world's cities will probably be double the entire population growth that the world has experienced in the last 6000 years."¹ The American student lives in a society that is dominated by urban functions, and values which are largely products of an urban experience. Therefore, an individual's ability to order his experiences and function rationally is partially dependent upon his awareness of the urban scene.

Thus, an urban geography course will be articulated in this study aimed specifically at the second-year student in the community junior college. The presentation of this material is in the form of a teaching unit. "A teaching unit is an organization of objectives, activities, and resources, with its focus on a purpose or problem, prepared for use in a teaching-learning situation."² In this case, the unit is directed at the development of a

¹Michael E. Eliot Hurst, "Geography and the Contemporary Urban Scene," Journal of Geography, Vol. 70 (February, 1971), p. 111.

²Marcella H. Nerbovig, Unit Planning: A Model for Curriculum Development (Worthington Ohio: Jones Publishing Co., 1970), p. 11.

geographic perspective on urban society and would constitute the core of a one semester course. The unit can be divided into roughly four major sections. They are: learner analysis, instructional objectives, course material and activities, and evaluation.

Since the learner is the beneficiary of instruction, unit development begins with the learner, continually returns to the learner, and ends with the learner. His needs help to determine what should be taught. His prior knowledge can help to determine where the instruction begins, and how far it will go. Also, his characteristics could help to determine how he will be instructed. In this case, the learners or audience, will be the second-year community junior college student. Two devices, hopefully helpful in analyzing the learner, are presented in this section of the unit. These devices are the questionnaire and the pre-test.

The second section of the unit is labeled instructional objectives. "Instructional objectives are the behaviors planned for the students to acquire, modify, or strengthen."³ Well stated objectives discipline the instructor and in turn discipline the students to think clearly. An additional advantage of clearly defined objectives is that the student is provided a means to evaluate his own progress at any place along the route of instruction. Also, he is able to organize his efforts with respect to relevant activities and resources.

The third section of the unit is the heavily weighted portion. It deals with the actual course material and activities. The actual course material is exactly what it implies. It is the urban geography curricula which will

³Ibid., p. 45.

be presented to the students by the instructor. The activities are the means by which the objectives are implemented. They go hand in hand with content and resources toward the attainment of concepts, skills, and attitudes. The course is developed with the assumption that activities without student preparation and follow-up are probably less than fully effective.

The final portion of the unit is evaluation. An integral part of unit preparation is the identification of the means of evaluating the learners' accomplishments, and the matters to be evaluated. In preparing for evaluation, it is important for the instructor to consider the objectives of the course carefully. A means of evaluating is suggested in this section of the unit.

CHAPTER II

ANALYZING THE LEARNER

Since the student is the beneficiary of instruction, the first section of a teaching unit seems to warrant learner analysis. Two methods which will help to achieve this are the questionnaire and the pre-test. Both of these devices are aimed at enlightening the instructor as to what geographic knowledge the student has experienced. A result of the questionnaire would be an established rapport with the individual student at the beginning of instruction. The alert instructor could take advantage of the information given by the student and express interest in the student on an individual basis.

The discipline of geography and its importance is realized unequally throughout the United States. Thus, different results will occur, in reference to the analytical devices, in different regions. Student experience in geography will differ in the Midwest as compared to the New England area. Thus, the primary goal of the analyzing devices is to ascertain to what level the student has been exposed to geography or if he has been exposed at all. The students prior knowledge of geography may help to determine what instruction he will receive and perhaps where the instruction will begin.

The questionnaire represents what might be termed a "mini-autobiography" of the student's experience in geography. It asks the student to list previous instruction in geography, the countries and states he has been exposed to, and finally, what does the discipline of geography specifically

mean to him. The pre-test is simply a selection of questions which will indicate to the instructor the nature of the student's grasp of empirical and conceptual material. The questions relate to terminology and concepts which are contained in urban geography. Both of these analytical devices would be administered the first class period of the course. The method employed would be written answers to the forms which would be prepared and distributed by the instructor. This diagnostic evaluation would take the following general form to be amended as warranted by experience.

The Questionnaire:

Name:

Age:

Home town:

High School:

Geography courses taken in high school:

Previous geography courses in college:

Countries travelled in:

States travelled in:

What geography means to you:

The Pre-test:

(Multiple-Choice)

- _____ 1. The site of a city refers to the city's:
 - A. relationship between industrial activity and locational pattern
 - B. actual physical location, vertical relationships
 - C. surrounding rural area
 - D. complex transportation network

- ____ 2. The situation of a city refers to the city's:
A. actual physical location
B. historical reason for existence
C. transportation modes
D. relation to other points, horizontal relationships
- ____ 3. Hinterland refers to:
A. the city's recreational areas
B. the city's land area used for governmental activities
C. the city's area of influence
D. all urban areas located in the United States
- ____ 4. Central-place theory was originally developed by:
A. Walter Christaller
B. Brian J.L. Berry
C. Edward Ullman
D. William Garrison
- ____ 5. The range of a good is:
A. the distance that people are willing to travel to purchase a good or service
B. the area which a good travels across to reach the market
C. the area from which the good is produced or manufactured
D. a pattern of industrial location
- ____ 6. The threshold level of a good is:
A. the maximum demand a good or service can attain
B. the production cost of a good or service
C. the minimum level of demand for the existence of a good or service
D. that level reached when income capital doubles cost capital
- ____ 7. The initials SMSA are the abbreviation for:
A. Statistical Metropolitan Social Area
B. Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area
C. Social Man's Social Area
D. Standard Measures of Social Associations
- ____ 8. Social action space refers to:
A. an individual's awareness of an urban area
B. the Central Business District
C. transportation routes used by individuals
D. an individual's recreational area
- ____ 9. Social activity space refers to:
A. the individual's recreational areas
B. the individual's dwelling
C. the individual's place of work
D. the area in which the individual interacts with daily

- ____ 10. Urban geography is concerned with:
- A. cities as entities
 - B. the city's interior
 - C. urban systems
 - D. all of the above

(Short Answer: 1 or 2 sentences, Define the following:)

- 1. Break of Bulk-
- 2. CBD-
- 3. Ghetto-
- 4. Theoretical Model-
- 5. Urbanization-
- 6. Basic-nonbasic ratio-
- 7. Centrifugal forces-
- 8. Centripetal forces-
- 9. Rural-urban fringe-
- 10. Suburbia-

CHAPTER III

INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES

One of the first decisions the instructor faces, in teaching, is the goals he intends to reach at the end of his instruction. Therefore, objectives of the instruction should be presented near the beginning of a course unit, as they are here. The objectives, which follow, are termed general instructional objectives. If they were specific, the objectives listed could easily be quadrupled. Objectives make it possible to evaluate a course or program efficiently. They also provide a sound basis for selecting appropriate materials to be implemented in the course content. Thus, instructional objectives are clearly a necessary and important part of a teaching unit. The objectives, which follow, are oriented toward helping the student deal with the perceived urban world logically and rationally, without regard to which path of life he is to pursue. Selection of the following objectives is based upon the author's personal experience in the academy, literature, and the urban studies curriculum in general.

Upon completion of the work in this course, the student will be able to:

- Apply skills and basic concepts of the discipline to at least the partial answering of questions and the partial solutions of problems which will appear at other times and places.
- Relate rationally with the urban world long after the course is terminated.
- Synthesize generalizations which are considered meaningful for an understanding of order and diversity on the earth's surface.
- Compare and contrast the concepts of urban geography as they differ or relate to concepts in other disciplines.

- Recognize geographers' view of urban areas.
- Recognize the rates and areas of the world's urbanization and differentiate the urban types of the world.
- Justify particular functions in urban areas and recognize patterns of land use within urban areas.
- Apply and relate the theories of Burgess, Hoyt, Christaller, Harris and Ullman, Jefferson, Zipf, and others.
- Specify limitations and assumptions of the theories of Burgess, Hoyt, Christaller, Harris and Ullman, Jefferson, Zipf, and others.
- Propose reasons for intra-urban mobility and defend them.
- Synthesize the problems and evaluate possible policies to be employed in the ghetto.
- Reformulate his or her conception of how an urban area is perceived.
- Recognize the problems, goals, and current methods of urban planning.
- Synthesize from course material and predict the future morphology of the urban environment.

All of the objectives listed are important. The place of entry on this list does not imply a priority ranking. For the individual students, some objectives will receive more attention and generate more effort than others.

CHAPTER IV

COURSE MATERIALS AND ACTIVITIES

For a long time the urban place as an entity for serious study was notably absent in geography. Individuals spoke of the town or city, but its affairs were left in the hands of architects and mayors, as geographers found little place for it in their regional surveys. It was not until the end of the nineteenth century that urban geography made its appearance, notably in Germany, with Friedrich Ratzel. Subsequently, urban geography has grown into a major sub-field in the discipline with a rapidly expanding literature, and several identifiable themes.

In this course, urban geography deals primarily with spatial aspects of urban development. Scholars in many other disciplines study urban phenomenon. Geography, as well as other disciplines, offers a unique way of looking at urban places both theoretically and in the perceived world. The urban geographer views the city in basically three ways. One is the view that the city is an entity. Here, the urban geographer is concerned with locations, characteristics, growth, and urban place taxonomy. A second view is one of the city's interior. The urban geographer here looks at land-use patterns, social and cultural patterns, patterns of circulation, and patterns of natural environment. These patterns are viewed as they exist in inter-relation and interaction in the urban area. A final view which the urban geographer takes concerns urban systems. From this perspective, he looks at cities as parts of an urban system and their interrelationships. For this particular course in urban geography, the city will be viewed primarily as

an entity. However, a portion of the study will be devoted to the city's interior as well as to urban systems. The focus endorses Mayer's position that: "Urban geography brings into clear focus the concepts of location, interaction, circulation, and accessibility, as well as distribution and movements of population."⁴

What constitutes a city is a provocative question to be raised early in one's survey of urban geography. "To define the city in the terms of its incorporation proves unsatisfactory under present conditions of urban sprawl."⁵ Realizing that there are varying definitions of city may be the beginning of wisdom for the student. For instance the U.S. census defines an urban place as a contiguous grouping of dwellings which are incorporated with a minimum of 2,500 people. Other countries use different criteria.

More elaborate conditions are used to identify large cities, or metropolitan concentration. For example, the U.S. census characterizes a Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area (SMSA) as follows:

The minimum population requirements are:

1. Each standard metropolitan statistical area must include at least:
 - a) One city with 50,000 or more inhabitants, or
 - b) Two cities having contiguous boundaries and constituting, for general economic and social purposes, a single community with a combined population of at least 50,000, the smaller of which must have a population of at least 15,000.
2. If two or more adjacent counties each have a city of 50,000 inhabitants or more (or twin cities under 1b) and the cities are within 20 miles of each other (city limits to city limits), they will be included in the same area unless there is definite evidence that the two cities are not economically and socially integrated.

⁴H.M. Mayer and C.F. Kohn (Eds.), Readings in Urban Geography (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1959), 625 pp.

⁵Jan O.M. Broek, Geography Its Scope and Spirit (Columbus: Charles E. Merrill, Books, Inc., 1965), p. 44.

3. At least 75 percent of the labor force of the county must be in the nonagricultural labor force.
4. In addition to criterion 3, the county must meet at least one of the following conditions:
 - a) It must have 50 percent or more of its population living in contiguous minor civil divisions with a density of at least 150 persons per square mile, in an unbroken chain of minor civil divisions with such a density radiating from a central city in the area.
 - b) The number of nonagricultural workers employed in the county must equal at least 10 percent of the number of nonagricultural workers employed in the county containing the largest city in the area, or be the place of employment of 10,000 nonagricultural workers.
 - c) The nonagricultural labor force living in the county must equal at least 10 percent of the number of the nonagricultural labor force living in the county containing the largest city in the area, or be the place of residence of a nonagricultural labor force of 10,000.
5. In New England, the city and town are administratively more important than the county, and data are compiled locally for such minor civil divisions. Here, the towns and cities are the units used in defining standard metropolitan statistical areas. In New England, because smaller units are used and more restricted areas result, a population density criterion of at least 100 persons per square mile is used as the measure of metropolitan character.
6. A county is regarded as integrated with county or counties containing the central cities of the area if either of the following criteria is met:
 - a) If 15 percent of the workers living in the county work in the county or counties containing the central cities of the area, or
 - b) If 25 percent of those working in the county live in the county or counties containing central cities of the area.⁶

The central and dominant unit of an urban agglomeration has been termed the corporate city. Usually, it is only a part of a much larger contiguously built-up urban area. This built-up area in and around the corporate city is the geographic city. It may also be called the real or physical city. The edge of the geographic city is not a distinct or clear one. Therefore, an exact definition is difficult to attain.

⁶Peter G. Goheen, "Metropolitan Area Definition: A Re-evaluation of Concept and Statistical Practice," in L.S. Bourne (ed.), Internal Structure of the city (New York: Oxford University Press, 1971), pp. 50-51.

Based on the preceding review, several questions may assist the conceptualization of a city or urban place. Questions may also aid in understanding nomenclature problems which arise in dealing with the 'city.'

Activities

1. What is the difference between a "legal" or "official" and conceptual recognition of a settlement as a city?
2. What and who decides what the "real world" is?
3. What is wrong and/or right with the current definition of the SMSA?
4. Why does the Census Bureau have such complex criteria?
5. Are urban and city synonymous?

Suggested Readings:

1. Harold M. Mayer, "Definitions of 'City,'" in L.S. Bourne (ed.), Internal Structure of the City (New York: Oxford University Press, 1971), pp. 28-31.
2. Peter G. Goheen, "Metropolitan Area Definition: A Re-evaluation of Concept and Statistical Practice," in L.S. Bourne (ed.), Internal Structure of the City (New York: Oxford University Press, 1971), pp. 47-58.
3. Robin J. Pryor, "Defining the Rural-Urban Fringe," in L.S. Bourne (ed.), Internal Structure of the City (New York: Oxford University Press, 1971), pp. 59-68.
4. Anselm L. Strauss, "The Latest in Urban Imagery," in L.S. Bourne (ed.), Internal Structure of the City (New York: Oxford University Press, 1971), pp. 23-27.

Historical Development of Urban Areas

Having explored problems related to terminology, the study now turns to the development of an historical perspective on urbanism. Man has lived on the earth for at least 1 million, and possibly even 2 million years. But he did not begin to live in permanent settlements until about 10,000 years ago. This occurred during the Neolithic Period, or New Stone Age. Before that time, people were primarily hunters and gatherers. During Neolithic times,

man learned to raise food by various methods of agriculture. In addition to a surplus of food, a surplus of time and energy resulted. People no longer had to wander to find food, and they began to settle in villages.

Hundreds of years passed before the Neolithic villages developed into cities. The first cities appeared approximately 3500 B.C. in the Tigris-Euphrates Valley of Sumer in the lower part of Mesopotamia (now Iraq). Egyptian villages in the Nile Valley developed into cities about 3000 B.C., and villages in the Indus Valley became cities about 2500 B.C. The first Chinese cities began about 1500 B.C. Indian villages in Central America developed into the first cities of the Western Hemisphere about 200 B.C.

Ancient cities were different from Neolithic villages in several ways. To begin with the cities were larger than the villages in land area. They had large public buildings, including temples for worship and places for storing grain and keeping weapons. Also, the cities had more people than the villages and, unlike the villages, they attracted people from a variety of backgrounds. The denizens of the city had different occupations. Almost all village workers were farmers. Some city people farmed land outside the cities, but most of them had non-farm jobs. Craftsmen and government workers became numerous in early cities. Also, a new group of workers appeared, the merchants. "The urban revolution could only have been based on the neolithic revolution, i.e., the change from food-gathering and hunting to food-producing."⁷

As early as 2000 B.C., Phylakopi, on the island of Milos in the Aegean, became a center of the obsidian trade derived from that island. On the

⁷Emrys Jones, Towns and Cities (New York: Oxford University Press, 1966), p. 18.

Levant coast Byblos grew to supply the lumber needs of Egypt from its hinterland in the Lebanon. Hissarlik, the most long-lived of the cities that successively occupied the site, later known as Troy, exploited the situation commanding the Dardanelles. The cities Knossos and Phaistos were the seats of the Minoan civilization which flourished in Crete. They derived their wealth from maritime trade, especially that of Egypt. They were succeeded in the sixteenth century B.C. by others on the mainland of Greece, Tiryns and Mycenae.

It can be stated that cities appeared on the islands and in the coastlands of the Mediterranean where the fragmentation of the cultivated land set very exacting limits to the size of population group that could be supported by the local resources. Traders and craftsmen engaged in supplying the chief markets of the ancient world. They exploited their intermediate position for that purpose.

"Port sites abounded in the Mediterranean world of islands and peninsulas, but urban growth was circumscribed by the scant resources of the land upon which the trading towns so largely depended for their food."⁸ When a particular population outgrew its local food supply a new community was established in another area. This happened again and again. Greek colonization during the eighth and seventh centuries B.C., was agricultural rather than commercial in motive. It came about due to the local overpopulation in the limited tracts of agricultural land.

The city of Rome is an interesting story in itself. In the beginning, it depended upon local agricultural surplus yielded by peasant farmers in the

⁸Arthur E. Smailes, The Geography of Towns (London: Hutchinson & Co. LTD, 1964), p. 13.

small-mountain and hill-studded plains of Latium. As a consequence of population growth, additional territory was added to pay tribute to Rome, which gradually evolved into an imperial entity. Besides Rome, the greatest among the trading centers which flourished at this time was Alexandria. After the foci of civilizations had shifted to the Mediterranean it was natural that an important urban center should arise in the Nile delta. The fertile Egyptian land areas became the chief granary of Rome. In addition to being the administrative center of the province of Egypt and second city of the Empire, Alexandria was a great center of culture and learning, and of manufacture, as well as of trade.

Many European medieval cities had a similar layout or form. Typically, the city covered less than a square mile and it had walls around it for protection against invaders. The central area of the city was occupied by the church, in many cases a towering Gothic cathedral. The church was the city's largest and most expensive building and a symbol of medieval emphasis on religion. Also, near the church were located the chief government buildings and the market place. The affluent people lived near the center of the city and the poor lived away from this area. Occasionally some of the poor people lived outside the walls. The walls acted as a barrier to the amount of living space in a medieval city. Land was expensive and, therefore, vertical building took place during this period.

For approximately 300 years after the Middle Ages, cities throughout the world grew and gradually changed. But the basic pattern of cities and city life remained much the same. This was the calm before the storm. During the late 1700's and early 1800's, the period of the Industrial Revolution began and many cities in Europe and North America changed greatly. In these

industrial cities, large scale manufacturing became of prime importance. This manufacturing boom was the result of machinery innovation and the development of the steam engine.

Some of the industrial cities developed from medieval cities. In some cases when a city became too crowded, the walls were knocked down and the city was expanded. In other cases, industrial cities developed where there had been a fort, a trading post, a village, or open land. City development in open areas occurred most commonly in North America, which had no cities during the Middle Ages. Typically, in the industrial city, a factory or a group of factories stood near the center. Adjacent to the factories, stood the cheap houses and apartment buildings where the poor people lived. The wealthy population usually built their dwellings in the outer sections of the city. This pattern of living reversed that of earlier cities. Industrial cities had sanitation problems similar to those of earlier cities. However, a new problem--environmental pollution--became a health hazard.

During this period, the gridiron pattern of city blocks, which remains common today, came into widespread use. In using this layout, buildings are spaced more or less evenly apart and groups of them form rectangular blocks. The blocks are separated by streets. This regular pattern made it easy to extend a city in any direction.

The population increase played an important part in the development of metropolitan areas. The world's population tripled between 1850 and 1970. Large numbers of people moved from rural to urban areas. Most metropolitan cities in the United States have a similar layout. The main business section lies in the center of the city. This section covers a small land area, but it can serve thousands of people daily. An industrial region of factories,

warehouses, and shipping yards (where appropriate) lie next to or surrounds the main business section. The residential areas begin beyond the industrial region. The eldest dwellings are located closest to the city center. Here is where the city's poor people live. This area is often termed the inner city. The residential areas become newer and more attractive away from the inner city. The best dwellings are located near the edges of the city and in the suburbs. Each residential area has its own stores and other businesses. During the mid-1900's many factories were built away from the central industrial section of cities, especially in suburban areas.

Activities

Again, questions, over the brief review above, may help illuminate the historical development of cities.

1. A city's form, function, and linkages may vary or change over time, why?
2. What are some main features needed for a permanent settlement to grow?
3. During the early period of the Industrial Revolution, why were the dwellings of the working class located where they were?
4. Why do people move from farm to city, or small town to city?

Suggested Readings:

1. Emrys Jones, Towns and Cities (New York: Oxford University Press, 1966).
2. Gideon Sjoberg, The Pre-Industrial City Past and Present (New York: The Free Press, 1960).
3. Lewis Mumford, The City in History (New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1961).

World Urbanization

Beyond a historical perspective, the student of urban geography would be well-served by an understanding of the dramatic population redistribution which produces the unit of study. Particularly, the difference between urban

growth and urbanization should be clarified. Urban growth is the increase in the number of people living in towns and cities. Urbanization is the growth of towns at the expense of the countryside; it is a measure of the shift of population from one to the other. Therefore, one can have urban growth without increasing urbanization. Urbanism, yet another important term, is related to both as a cultural phenomenon, the result of interaction between technological and social processes with both urban growth and urbanization.

"It is a pattern of existence which deals with (1) the accommodation of heterogeneous groups to one another; (2) a relatively high degree of specialization in labor; (3) involvement in nonagricultural occupational pursuits; (4) a market economy; (5) an interplay between innovation (6) development of advanced learning and the arts; and (7) tendencies toward city-based, centralized governmental structures. Urbanization refers to the processes by which (1) urban values are diffused, (2) movement occurs from rural areas to cities, and (3) behavior patterns are transformed to conform to those which are characteristic of groups in the cities."⁹

It seems that the most dramatic developments in urbanism and urbanization are currently associated with Africa, South Asia, and Southeast Asia. It can be forecasted that in the future, the largest cities, in terms of population, will be found in the Eastern world not the Western. With this in mind, and due to the acceleration of urbanization all over the world, the interest in urban problems, particularly in urban geography, is intensifying.

Activities

Questions for discussion:

1. At what point will urbanization level off in its growth in the United States?

⁹Paul Meadows and Ephraim H. Mizruchi (eds.), Urbanism, Urbanization, and Change: Comparative Perspectives (Reading, Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, 1969), p. 2.

2. What are some causes for the present urban growth rate?
3. Is a completely urbanized nation desirable?
4. What are some reasons for the larger cities being located in the Eastern world?

Suggested Readings:

1. The Editors of Fortune, The Exploding Metropolis (New York: Doubleday and Company Inc., 1958).
2. Eugene Raskin, Sequel to Cities (London: The Rebel Press, 1969).
3. Melvin Webber, "The Post-city Age," in L.S. Bourne (ed.), Internal Structure of the City (New York: Oxford University Press, 1971), pp. 496-501.

City Growth or Evolution

The following section is presented to aid the student in realizing circumstances which result in the growth of a city. The section is primarily historically oriented with selected cities given as examples. The two cities reviewed are located in the Midwest. The instructor may wish to substitute alternative examples dependant upon the region where this unit is implemented.

Cities in Plains; The case of Wichita:

Cities of the world are most commonly found on low-lying plains. This setting is conducive to agricultural development and communications are easily attained. The critical factor, however, in city evolution in a frontier area is its situation, or relationship to the external world. As an example, the development of Wichita, Kansas, will be employed. Briefly, the following sketch is relevant which illustrates the role of site, or "near situation," and more distant spatial linkages, or situation, in the growth of the city.

Near the center of the United States, Wichita, Kansas, is situated on the flat banks of the Arkansas River. It provided a water route inland and

a source of water. A boost to the town's development was the entrance of the railroad in the 1870's. Also, the Chisholm trail crossed the site of Wichita. The railroad was extended to Wichita primarily to accommodate the cattle herds which came to Wichita from the south. In 1869, the town was the site of a blacksmithy, a saddlery, boarding houses, and a saloon. With the arrival of the first train to the town in May 1872, Wichita became a "cow capital." It was a successor to Abilene, Kansas. The Federal Government established a land office and local newspapers began printing. By 1880 barb wire crisscrossed the Chisholm trail due to the farmers and homesteaders. This resulted in the decline of cattle herds. The town became a market center for the farmed hinterland. Wichita evolved into a grain and milling center. The population grew from 5,000 in 1880 to 24,000 in 1890. "Where cattle had built dance halls and gambling houses, wheat built churches and schools."¹⁰ The population doubled to 54,000 in 1910. At this point, Wichita was a 'farmers city,' with farm-machinery plants, flour mills, and grain elevators. In 1915 oil was discovered. "The city which had begun as a cow town, turned into a farmer's market, and then into an agricultural processing and farm machinery center, was becoming also an industrial city with a national demand for her products."¹¹ Besides oil production, the aircraft industry was beginning. During the 1920's, expansion in airplane manufacturing began and continued growth was instrumental in producing a population of 114,000 by 1940. Wichita had, by this time, begun to achieve a balance between agriculture and industry.

¹⁰Constance McLaughlin Green, American Cities in the Growth of the Nation (New York: Harper & Row, 1965), p. 156.

¹¹Ibid., p. 161.

River Cities or Gateway Cities; The case of St. Louis:

Rivers were often corridors of advance into the unoccupied territory. In the United States, the French explored along the St. Lawrence and the Great Lakes, and also explored south down the Mississippi River. Mature rivers are associated with broad valleys, the absence of cliffs and gorges, and generally permissive topography. Both sides of the river rarely develop equally. Usually one side is more resistant to floods than the other. As an example, St. Louis serves both as a river and a gateway city.

St. Louis was founded in 1764 by a company of French traders from New Orleans. It is located on the west bank of the Mississippi River ten miles below the point where the Missouri River joins it. The site served as a point of departure for the wilderness to the West. Also, it represented a break in transportation from land to an inland waterway. In 1804, St. Louis was termed the 'gateway to the west.' The river was travelled by both steamboats and ferries. The city developed commercial ties with settlements in southern Illinois and the trade with New Orleans increased generously. St. Louis had a population of 6,000 in 1830. By 1840, its population had grown to 16,000. The town's first interest was river shipping. It supplied the necessities which the westward-bound settlers required. Other interests of the city included fur-processing, some flour-milling, and a little manufacturing of iron wares made from Missouri ores. St. Louis built a waterfront. Activity on the river front of the 1840's heightened yearly. St. Louis was at the crossroads of westward expansion. By 1860, the Mississippi river port had nearly 160,000 in population. Diversified manufacturing increased including beer-brewing. Apparently, linkages to distant places, or a favorable situation, was the dominant factor in the city's evolution and functional diversification.

Activities

Questions for discussion:

1. In the case of Wichita, suggest some reasons why the aircraft industry developed there.
2. In the case of St. Louis, name some of the first establishments which developed. Why would you expect these to appear first?
3. Name other reasons which might cause a city to develop or not to develop.
4. Does the above suggest we can classify cities by function?
5. Name some cities with special functions?

Group Assignment:

For the group assignment, a simulation model entitled "Portsville" would be introduced. It was conceived and developed as a portion of "Geography of Cities" by the High School Geography Project of the Association of American Geographers. Simply, it is a narrative which tells the story of the conception and growth of a city. The story is developed in four parts. Part I is the physical description of the area and tells how the first settlers chose a site for the new community. Part II sketches the development of Portsville between the years 1850 and 1880. Part III traces the development between 1880 and 1890, and Part IV, between 1890 and 1900.

The class of students would be divided into four groups, each with a chairman. Each group would be assigned to develop one part of the simulation. At the close of the second class period, the group chairman would present his group's decision on how and why Portsville developed in that group's particular time period. The rest of the group would act as defendants of their conclusions to the rest of the class. Simulating the evolution of Portsville will be of value in allowing the students to develop a city using their ideas and then be placed in a position of defending them. This should assist the student in understanding the growth and change of a city through time.

Classification of Cities

To aid the student in understanding towns and cities which are classified by function, two classification processes will be reviewed. According to C.D. Harris, a city in the United States can be classified by function. An example would be what Harris terms a 'wholesale city.' He indicates that in order to be classified as a 'wholesale city,' it must meet the following criteria. The number of persons employed in wholesaling is at least 20 percent of the total employed in manufacturing, retail, and wholesale, and at least 45 percent of the number employed in retail. An 'educational town' qualifies if the college enrollment is 25 percent or more of the total employed. If 15 percent of the employed are in mining, then the town is classified as a 'mining town.' Harris classified the towns and cities of the United States into nine groups:

- a. manufacturing
- b. retail
- c. diversified
- d. wholesale
- e. transport
- f. mining
- g. educational
- h. resorts
- i. others

Another classification of United States cities was made by H.J. Nelson. Some of his classifications are analogous with those of Harris's. Nelson dealt with 847 cities with a population of at least 10,000. He found the mean percentage for all towns for each of the nine activities, then he calculated the standard deviation. As a result, cities with more than 1 standard deviation (1 SD) in any activity were classified according to that activity. An example would be manufacturing 1 (Mf 1) would mean 1 standard deviation (1 SD) in manufacturing. The degree to which manufacturing

dominates is measured by the number of SD's which is added to the first standard deviation. Examples would be Mf2 or Mf3. With this classification, it is possible to show more than one function. An example would be a city might have 1 SD in manufacturing and 1 SD in professional services, this would be recognized by Mf1 Pr1. Nelson's classes of cities follows:

- a. mining
- b. manufacturing
- c. transport and communications
- d. wholesale
- e. retail
- f. finance
- g. personal service
- h. professional service
- i. public administration

Activities

After reviewing the two classifications of cities by functions, questions arise which, when discussed, may aid the student in understanding the two citations as well as issues in taxonomy.

1. A serious drawback of Harris's classification is readily apparent. What is it?
2. Does a city's functions change over time?
3. Both classifications are based on occupations. Is this data valid?
4. Name some shortcomings of Nelson's classification.

Suggested Readings:

1. C.D. Harris, "A Functional Classification of Cities in the United States," Geographical Review, Vol. 33, 1943.
2. H.J. Nelson, "A Service Classification of American Cities," Economic Geography, Vol. 31, 1955.
3. R.H.T. Smith, "Method and Purpose in Functional Town Classification," Annals of the Association of American Geographers, Vol. 55, 1965.

Aggregate Elements of Urban Development

I. Primate City:

"The Law of the Primate City" was introduced by Mark Jefferson. Simply stated, the law is that a country's leading city is always disproportionately large and exceptionally expressive of national capacity and feeling. The largest city shall be supereminent, and not merely in size, but in national influence. There are 28 countries in which one city is twice as large as the next city in population, and in 18 one city is thrice as large.

II. Rank Size Rule:

This rule was ascertained by G.K. Zipf. Based on empirical study, it indicates that populations in urban areas have been ranked in decreasing order of size. If all the cities of any country are arranged in descending order by population, then there is a regular ratio between the position of each and its size proportionate to the largest city. Therefore, the second city is half the size of the first, the fourth is one-quarter, the eighth is one-eighth and so on. Zipf stated the rank-size relationship mathematically as:

$$Pr = \frac{P_1}{r^q}$$

This equation indicates that the population of the r th ranking city P_r equals the population of the largest city P_1 divided by rank r raised to an exponent q which usually has a value close to unity.

Activities

Questions for discussion:

1. Suggest some areas where the Primate City is in existence.

2. Is there a correlation between Primate City countries and countries which are agricultural in nature?
3. Where can the Rank Size Rule be applied?
4. Are industrial countries examples where the Rank Size Rule can be applied?

Suggested Reading:

1. Mark Jefferson, "The Law of the Primate City," The Geographical Review, Vol. 29, 1939.

A Classic Model of City Systems: Central Place Theory

The unit will now introduce concepts which promote an understanding of the order present in the spatial structure of settlement systems. Walter Christaller developed central place theory in 1933. It is a "general purely deductive theory" to explain the "size, number, and distribution of towns" in the belief that "there is some ordering principle governing the distribution." Central places of higher order dominate larger regions than those of lesser order, exercise more central functions, and therefore have greater centrality. Order and centrality is based on two factors; threshold sales level and range of a good. Threshold sales level refers to a point where sales are large enough only for a firm to realize or earn normal profits. The range of a good is the farthest distance a dispersed population is willing to travel in order to buy a good or service offered at a place. Range is determined by:

1. size and importance of the center, and the spatial distribution of population
2. the price-willingness of purchasers
3. subjective economic distance
4. quantity and price of the good at the central place

3 Laws:

A. The first law, K-3, known as the marketing or supply principle, deals with lower order centers and their complementary regions. It suggests that these

centers and their complementary regions 'nest' within those of larger centers according to a rule of threes. By nest, one is referring to the placement of lower order centers and their complementary regions in groups. This is prevalent in agricultural areas.

B. The second law, K-4, is known as the principle of traffic. In this case, the complementary regions 'nest' according to a rule of fours. The regions are fundamentally linear, while those of marketing are spatial.

C. The third law, K-7, is known as administrative principles. It deals with the separation of complementary regions for protection and control. The regions 'nest' according to a rule of sevens.

The three principles determine, each according to its own laws, the system of central places. Two of them are economic, and one is political. The marketing principle is the chief law, and the transport and administrative principles are secondary laws of deviation. After reviewing the Central Place Theory, the instructor would employ a prepared visual aid to explain the three laws.

Activities

Questions for discussion:

1. Suggest some of the assumptions which are appropriate for the Central Place Theory.
2. What is the theory's usefulness?
3. Does each type of good have a different range?
4. Is the Central Place Theory applicable today?

Suggested Readings:

1. Emrys Jones, Towns and Cities (New York: Oxford University Press, 1966).

2. Brian J.L. Berry and William L. Garrison, "A Note on Central Place Theory and the Range of a Good," Economic Geography, Vol. 34, 1958.
3. William R. Siddall, "Wholesale-Retail Trade Ratios as Indices of Urban Centrality," Economic Geography, Vol. 37, 1961.

Models of Urban Morphology

The unit will now turn to an appraisal of the internal structure of cities. Three models will be reviewed which introduce concepts of urban morphology.

I. Concentric Zone:

The concentric zone model was developed by Ernest W. Burgess. It is probably the earliest and the best known of the classic models. The finding of the model is that as a city grows it expands radially from its center to form a series of concentric zones. He designed the zones as follows:

- I. Central Business District (CBD)--department stores, office buildings, banks, hotels, theaters, civic buildings, wholesale district
- II. Zone of Transition (residential deterioration, factories, rooming houses, blighted residences)
- III. Independent workingman's homes
- IV. Zone of better residences (satellite CBD's, single family dwellings)
- V. Commuter's Zone (encircling small cities, towns, hamlets, commuting to the CBD)

Burgess assumed a city with a single center, a heterogeneous population, and a mixed commercial and industrial base. See figure 1. Some distorting factors include site, situation, and barriers in radial expansion.

II. Sector Model:

The sector model was developed by Homer Hoyt in 1939. It is also known as the wedge concept. Hoyt examined the distribution of residential

neighborhoods of various qualities and rent levels. He found that high rental areas tended to be located in one or more pie-shaped sectors, and they did not form complete circles. The residential areas usually grew outward along distinct radii. In summary, Hoyt argued that "if one sector of the city first develops as a high, medium, or low rental residential area, it will tend to retain that character for long distances as the sector is extended outward through the process of the city's growth."¹² Hoyt reached some generalizations and one is that highest income families tend to be on high ground, or on a lake, river, or ocean shore, along the fastest existing transportation lines, close to amenities offered. Another is that lowest income residences located on least desirable land along railroad, industrial, or commercial areas; and live farthest from the high rent areas. Also, he concluded that rental areas are not stationary and that a migration of low income families out from city centers takes place. See figure 2.

III. The Multiple Nuclei:

This model was formulated by Chauncy Harris and Edward Ullman in 1945. It is a modification of the concentric zone and sector theories. See figure 3. Here, it is suggested that the land use pattern of a city does not grow from a single center, but around several distinct nuclei. The larger the city is, the more numerous and specialized are the nuclei. The rise of different nuclei and unlike districts is thought to result from a combination of four factors:

- a) specialized facilities are required for certain activities
(i.e. a retail district needs intracity accessibility)

¹²Bourne, op. cit., Howard J. Nelson, The Form and Structure of Cities: Urban Growth Patterns, p. 79.

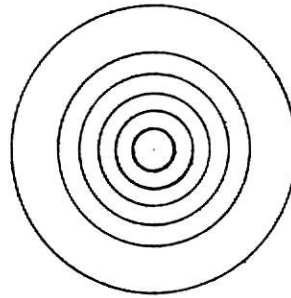


Figure 1
Concentric Zone

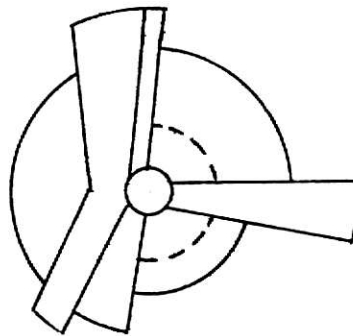


Figure 2
Sector

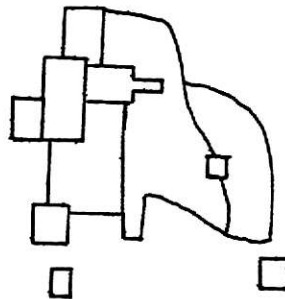


Figure 3
Multiple Nuclei

- b) like activities group together because they profit from linkages (decision makers)
- c) some unlike activities are detrimental to each other (warehouses and retail areas)
- d) some activities cannot afford the high rents of the most desirable sites

Activities

Questions for discussion:

1. What are the values of the Concentric Zone, Sector, and Multiple Nuclei models?
2. Are Burgess's Concentric Zones applicable today in metropolitan areas or are they outdated?
3. Does the Multiple Nuclei model seem more realistic today than the other two models? Why or why not?
4. Should the three models be viewed singly or together to realize their values?

Suggested Readings:

1. Brian J.L. Berry, "Internal Structure of the City," in L.S. Bourne (ed.), Internal Structure of the City (New York: Oxford University Press, 1971), pp. 97-103.
2. Homer Hoyt, "Recent Distortions of the Classical Models of Urban Structure," in L.S. Bourne (ed.), Internal Structure of the City (New York: Oxford University Press, 1971), pp. 84-96.
3. James E. Vance Jr., "Focus on Downtown," in L.S. Bourne (ed.), Internal Structure of the City (New York: Oxford University Press, 1971), pp. 112-120.
4. Howard J. Nelson, "The Form and Structure of Cities: Urban Growth Patterns," in L.S. Bourne (ed.), Internal Structure of the City (New York: Oxford University Press, 1971), pp. 75-83.

Urban Social Geography

Urban social geography includes the study of residential areas, their location and social characteristics. In essence, it is concerned with the social structure of the city. It is argued that three variables determine

the underlying social structure of our society. "These variables are: economic or social status; family status or composition; and ethnic status or segregation."¹³ In summation of E.W. Burgess's Concentric Zone Model, he indicated that socio-economic status varies directly with distance from the city center. This concentric zone hypothesis parallels other models. "In an article, Colby suggested that there are two opposing forces which act within a city."¹⁴ The centripetal or attractive forces tend to retain functions in the central area. This is accomplished by stressing the advantages of proximity. The centrifugal or disruptive forces cause functions to migrate from the center towards the periphery. This is often done in an attempt to avoid the congestion and the high rents of the core. In Hoyt's Sector Model, the central business district stays as a circular form at the center of the city. The residential areas of similar socio-economic status beginning near the center tend to migrate in sectors towards the urban fringe. Therefore, socio-economic status varies according to an angular measurement about the center of the city. It would be wise to combine theses to get an overview of social urban geography.

The concepts of social space is a useful device for ordering activities in urban areas. In social areas, action space alludes to a collection of places in an urban area. It is the individual's awareness level of places, including how he perceives them, and which urban places are desirable to him. Activity space identifies the area within which the individual interacts

¹³Bourne, op. cit., p. 274.

¹⁴C.C. Colby, "Centrifugal and Centripetal Forces in Urban Geography," Annals of the Association of American Geographers, Vol. 23 (March, 1933), pp. 1-20.

daily. Common action space is that space in which groups interact. It must be generalized in order to delimit the general action space of a given group. The concepts of social space will aid the student in understanding that the urban area is viewed or perceived by individuals or groups differently. One individual student may view the city entirely different than another student.

Ordering of Residences

Cities have differences in terms of residential characteristics. The urban geographer is interested in distribution patterns of residential characteristics. In considering the general structure of a city, residential land use is the largest single element which appears on the land-use map. Typically, few housing units may be found just inside the central business district. If any are found, they are usually located on upper floors. In the areas just beyond the central business district a belt of considerable density appears. Old residences are often located in portions of this belt. These old dwellings are in the minority, however. Mostly, the belt has tenements and other low-quality residences which may be considered the city's slums. If urban renewal policies are appropriate, this is where they are applied. As a consequence, clusters of modern apartments are placed in this belt. Space allocated to yards, garden plots, and the like are nonexistent in this residential area. Beyond the area bordering the central business district and expanding outward in all directions are vast areas of predominantly residential land use. A general rule is that density of housing tends to decrease with distance outward from the central core. In these areas yard space is developed.

It should be realized that the residential land use is not continuous. Secondary commercial areas and ribbons of commercial development along

important transportation routes interrupt the expanse of residences.

Industrial location interrupts the residential expanse land use as well.

Urban residential patterns are constantly changing. The changes in the residential pattern in the interiors of cities can occur in the form of urban renewal. However, perhaps the most impressive phenomenon associated with residential land use in recent decades has been the growth of suburbs. The suburban areas have been gaining rapidly in population. The terms suburb and suburban are popularly used to refer to all agglomerations of residential land in the transition zone that surrounds a city. Also, the suburb is alluded to as an urban cluster with a name and administrative identity. According to Harris and Ullman, "satellites differ from suburbs in that they are separated from the central city by many miles and in general have little daily commuting to or from the central city, although economic activities of the satellite are closely geared to those of the central city."¹⁵ The suburb could be considered as primarily a resting place for people who work in the nearby city or its satellites. It is characterized by greater per capita movement out of the area at the beginning of the working day and into the area at its close. It can be stated that the suburbs are the suppliers of labor and consumers of commodities. On the other hand, the nearby city or satellite is the consumer of labor and the supplier of commodities.

Activities

Beginning with this portion of the course outline, urban social geography, student interest and participation in activities would seem likely to

¹⁵Chauncy D. Harris and Edward L. Ullman, "The Nature of Cities," The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, Vol. 242 (1945), p. 16.

heighten. Thus, more time allocated to activities and questions would be appropriate. Therefore, more questions should be asked or entertained and more readings introduced.

Questions for discussion:

1. How does an individual increase his activity space?
2. Does an individual encounter more privacy by living in the inner city or by living in suburbia?
3. Why is the "American Dream" to live in suburbia?
4. What are some general characteristics of the populus which inhabit suburbia?
5. What are some reasons for the population density decreasing outward from the city center?
6. Is it a valid belief that socio-economic status varies directly with distance from the city center?

Suggested Readings:

1. Karl W. Deutsch, "On Social Communication and the Metropolis," in L.S. Bourne (ed.), Internal Structure of the City (New York: Oxford University Press, 1971), pp. 222-230.
2. Robert A. Murdie, "The Social Geography of the City: Theoretical and Empirical Background," in L.S. Bourne (ed.), Internal Structure of the City (New York: Oxford University Press, 1971), pp. 279-290.
3. Larry S. Bourne, "Apartment Location and the Housing Market," in L.S. Bourne (ed.), Internal Structure of the City (New York: Oxford University Press, 1971), pp. 321-328.
4. S. Cahill and M.F. Cooper (eds.), The Urban Reader (New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1971).

Residential Migration

The reasons for changing residence within the city varies with the characteristics of the mover. "The pressure of housing needs generated by life-cycle changes causes the majority of moves, producing high rates of

out-movement in all parts of the city."¹⁶ However, as in many questions, there is not one simple answer. The out-movement of residential occupation is a complex process. Besides life-cycle, other factors to consider would include: change through time, values and need temporally, environmental characteristics, the neighborhood and alternative locations. As it turns out, three major groups of social variables should be examined when considering residential mobility. They are the life-cycle, economic status, and segregation.

As was mentioned above, all evidence indicates that the most forceful factor influencing people to move is the life-cycle factor. The life-cycle stages account for the majority of the moves which might be expected in a lifetime. Most moves occur in quick succession during the age bracket 15 to 25. In a previous study, it was found that approximately one-third of the moves were involuntary. These moves came after major events such as eviction, marriage, death, or sudden loss of income. It was found of the voluntary moves, the most common pressure was the need for space for a growing family. Then, after the family was grown, there was a move to a smaller dwelling unit. Families with children often sought low-density dwellings, which characterize the suburb. Also, physical factors affect mobility. These include converted old houses into rooming and apartment houses in the central city. This, of course, increases the neighborhood density.

The second major social variable is economic status. Urban areas are strongly differentiated with respect to class. With this in mind, when a person changes his social status, he could be expected to change the location

¹⁶Brian J.L. Berry and Frank E. Horton, Geographic Perspectives on Urban Systems (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1970), p. 399.

of his residence. However, it has been found that only 30 percent of North Americans change from the social class in which they were raised. This would require residential relocation once in the lifetime of one-third of the population. The majority of moves are to a neighborhood of similar characteristics.

The third major social variable affecting mobility is segregation. At the present time, the Negro ghetto is larger and more permanent than those of any of the earlier groups. Many of the recent European immigrants avoid the ghetto stage entirely. Historically European immigrant ethnic minorities immigrated and were absorbed directly into the ghetto. While this occurred, the successful immigrant moved out socially and spatially from the ghetto. The ethnic factors act only as a constraint on the number of possible alternatives of residential location. In the case of the Negro ghetto, the highly segregated and rapidly growing Negro area can only expand into nearby white neighborhoods. This often times accelerates the out-migration of these white adjacent areas and leads to an accelerated mobility process. It should be mentioned that the number of moves stimulated by racial shifts is a small proportion of the total moves.

Activities

Questions for discussion:

1. What are some reasons which cause individuals to change residences within an urban area?
2. Is there a pattern to residential migration?
3. Can predictions be made as to where and when migration will occur?
4. Does the job location of an individual affect his choice of residential location?

Suggested Readings:

1. Ronald R. Boyce, "Residential Mobility and Its Implications for Urban Spatial Change," in L.S. Bourne (ed.), Internal Structure of the City (New York: Oxford University Press, 1971), pp. 338-344.
2. Lawrence A. Brown and Eric G. Moore, "The Intra-urban Migration Process: A Perspective," in L.S. Bourne (ed.), Internal Structure of the City (New York: Oxford University Press, 1971), pp. 200-209.
3. Andrei Rogers, "Theories of Intra-urban Spatial Structure: A Dissenting View," in L.S. Bourne (ed.), Internal Structure of the City (New York: Oxford University Press, 1971), pp. 210-215.

The Negro Ghetto

A common feature of American urban life is the ghetto. Realistically, ghettos are segregated areas occupied by Negroes and other minority groups. During the twentieth century a vast migration occurred when Negroes moved from the rural south to the urban north. Major cities affected included Philadelphia, New York, Chicago, and St. Louis. This migration forced the Negro densities to increase in the slums that had already been created on the periphery of business and industrial districts. It seems that the primary motivation for the Negro movement was economic opportunity, and secondarily, the reason was the hope of less discrimination.

The nature of the ghetto is important in understanding it. First of all, Negroes are alienated from white areas. On the other hand, whites are largely alienated from Negro areas. The recognized difference is purely white and purely black. Segregation is the key word. Without exception, the ghettos are always sharply inferior to white areas. This is most recognizable in the physical appearance of the residential dwellings. In material goods, the ghetto area is inferior. Initiative and ambition are stifled in these areas due to the feeling of rejection. Another factor is the location of the ghetto. It is almost always located in a zone peripheral to the central

business district. Often, the residences are intermingled with commercial and light industry. Unlike earlier ethnic groups, the Negro is a marked individual. He is black. The lighter-skinned ethnic groups were able to escape the ghetto as soon as their economic and educational achievements would allow. This is not the case with the Negro. His black skin constitutes a qualitative difference in the minds of whites. In reference to the deteriorated appearance of the ghetto in the city, it is caused not only by pure poverty, but also it is due to the mere influx of the population with nowhere else to locate. In many cases, multi-floored houses abandoned or owned by whites, have been divided and reddivided to accommodate the newcomers. In this case, maintenance is most difficult, and often, landlords are white. A spinoff of segregated residence is school segregation where separation is reinforced.

The future of American ghettos is of major concern. "From 1960 to 1966, all ghettos in the United States were growing in population at about 400,000 persons per year."¹⁷ A current migration pattern is whites to the suburbs and Negroes to the central city. As a result, a continued movement of this nature leads to a polarized society. When figures show a Negro faction in the suburbs, it is likely that this is just where the ghetto has spilled over into the suburb. The segregation is still present. In recent time periods, the migration into ghettos has slowed, but they are still growing in population. This discrepancy is explained by a higher birth rate in the ghetto.

A theory of white residential behavior could be interjected at this time. The theory, advanced by Anthony Downs, is termed "Law of Cultural Dominance."

¹⁷Kenneth J. Arrow, James G. March, James S. Coleman, Anthony Downs, Urban Processes (Washington D.C.; The Urban Institute, 1968), p. 55.

It is believed by Downs that "a vast majority of whites of all income groups would be willing to send their children to integrated schools or live in integrated neighborhoods, as long as they were sure that the white group concerned would remain in the majority in those facilities or areas."¹⁸ The key factor here is that the whites maintain a certain degree of "cultural dominance." It is the belief that people want to be sure that the social, cultural, and economic status and values of their group dominate their environment.

Once Negroes begin entering an all-white neighborhood near the ghetto, most of the white families become convinced that the area will eventually become all Negro. When this happens, it is difficult to persuade whites to move into this area. As a result, the area does begin to become predominantly Negro as the original white residents in the area, move out. Thus, a heavy Negro majority results. The whites who moved out of the area did so because they had lost their culturally dominant position. Whites failed to move into the area when Negroes were first diffusing into it and this is a key factor. There is no means by which whites can simultaneously achieve two objectives. "The first is living in an integrated neighborhood so that whites and Negroes can experience living together. The second objective is living in an area in which whites remain the dominant group."¹⁹

An overview of the possible alternative futures for American ghettos, as suggested by Downs, is appropriate at this time. He illuminates three basic alternatives. The first one of the alternatives is termed the present-policies alternative. This would involve the continued segregation in

¹⁸Ibid., p. 57.

¹⁹Ibid., p. 60.

housing and in schools. Also, it would involve continued concentration of Negro population growth primarily in central cities instead of elsewhere, and continued failure of society to transfer any really large economic aid to the most deprived portions of central cities. As one result of this alternative, several larger United States cities will become predominantly Negro in population if present trends continue, and this concentrated population would reflect all of the current undesirable attributes in a more intense fashion. An indication of the growing Negro dominance of central cities is noted by Downs: "About half of the ten largest cities in the United States already have more than a majority of Negro students in their public elementary schools."²⁰

A second alternative is termed the enrichment-only alternative. Like the present-policies alternative, this alternative would involve continued segregation and continued concentration of Negro growth in central cities. The difference lies in that massive economic transfer of income to the depressed areas in ghettos and other parts of central cities. These funds would be funneled by the various federal government agencies. Obviously, this alternative would prove to be a very expensive one. Also, the ghetto may become an enclave of welfare recipients. Other characteristics of this alternative include Negro involvement and Negro control of programs. Political support must be obtained from all American citizens, especially the white suburban middle class. The advocates of this alternative are many whites who see it as a payment to the Negroes to stop agitating while remaining segregated and also favored by Negroes who want to support Black Power. However,

²⁰Ibid., p. 63.

the main shortcoming of this alternative is that it still leaves the society polarized. When this happens, equality is difficult to attain.

The third alternative involves what is termed the enrichment-plus-dispersal. Again, it involves large-scale federal aid to deprived ghetto areas but it contains policies aimed at encouraging Negroes to move into white suburban areas and whites there to accept them peacefully. An advantage of this alternative would be to get the ghetto population closer to job opportunities. Most of the new jobs, particularly industrial, are appearing in suburban areas. This would help combat ghetto unemployment. Also, low-rent housing could be made available in vacant areas in the suburbs. The most important result of this alternative would be the avoidance of the continuance of two separate and unequal societies. Downs indicates that it is important to realize that dispersal is not the same as integration. "Dispersal of Negroes into suburban areas might result in the creation of many scattered 'mini-ghettos' or 'ghettolettes,' or even predominantly-Negro suburbs."²¹ However, this would make available to both Negroes and whites the opportunity to view the two different environments. Perhaps this would be an effective alternative in dealing with the cultural dominance theory. As a final result, possibly little by little, diffusion of Negro families out into white areas would take place. In reality, only two groups of persons support this alternative. They are the suburban industrialists who need workers and the white central-city politicians. Opposition to it has been raised by Black Power and Black Nationalist advocates.

At the present time, it appears that the society is incorporating the present-policies alternative. That is, nothing more is being done to stop

²¹Ibid., p. 67.

deterioration or counteract deprivation in central-city ghettos. Also, there is no encouragement of dispersal. A more permanent polarization of the black and white societies is taking place.

Activities

Questions for discussion:

1. What are some reasons for the migration of Negroes to the cities?
2. What is the process of "block-busting?"
3. Which one of Down's alternatives seems the most likely to succeed and why?
4. Can a polarized society exist in the United States?
5. What is a ghetto?
6. How is the ghetto bounded and how are the boundaries maintained?
7. Is the ghetto always a negative area of the city?

Suggested Readings:

1. David Ward, "The Emergence of Central Immigrant Ghettos in American Cities: 1840-1920," in L.S. Bourne (ed.), Internal Structure of the City (New York: Oxford University Press, 1971), pp. 291-299.
2. Harold M. Rose, "The Development of an Urban Subsystem: the case of the Negro Ghetto," in L.S. Bourne (ed.), Internal Structure of the City (New York: Oxford University Press, 1971), pp. 316-320.

Group discussion:

One panel for each of Down's alternatives. Also, the suggestion of other alternatives.

Planning and the Urban Future

City planning is the process of guiding the development of cities and towns. City and regional planners advise local governments on ways to improve communities and they also advise governments and real estate developers who are planning entirely new communities. The planners deal mainly

with the physical layout of communities. A planner views a community as a single system in which all the parts are interdependent. He creates a master plan and uses it as the basis for his work. This plan shows the entire community both as it is and as the planner believes it should be. The planner tries to predict the future. In order for him to do this, he should be well-versed in various disciplines. One of these is certainly geography. Planning involves both money and authority to carry out programs. The money is received from local and federal governments. As a result of this, politics exert a major control in planning. Major criticisms of city planning include the high cost and the government control.

"Planning has an inescapable geographical basis."²² Geography is essential to the planner's work. Put simply, the planner must understand the existing landscape before he tries to reform it. An example would be that the planner should have knowledge of such fundamental physical factors as relief. Physical factors have influenced the development of towns in many ways. Also, concepts and factors in the area of urban geography influence the planning profession. These factors range from land-use patterns, urban social patterns, the 'journey to work,' to sub-centers or secondary central business districts.

It can be expected that the metropolis will be the normal environment of the future. "Present estimates are that 80 percent of our population will be living in such regions by the year 2000, and that the largest of these metropolises will coalesce into four giant megalopolitan regions--on the Atlantic seaboard, along the lower Great Lakes, in Florida, and in

²²T.W. Freeman, Geography and Planning (London: Hutchinson & Co. LTD., 1964), p. 13.

California--four regions containing 60 percent of the United States's population on 7-1/2 percent of its land."²³ It is pointed out that this is not as frightening as it may sound. This type of result would leave a vast amount of land which could be utilized for both agriculture and recreation. Also, population concentrations of these magnitudes indicate thousands of square miles of steel and asphalt. This, again, may be a false conception. With proper guidance and planning, which would be a staggering task, an urban environment could become an enjoyable habitat for its denizens.

Efforts are being made to save the central business district as a dominant single center. At present, it is the container of commuter congestion and the ghetto. It may be that we should no longer have places of high density. An alternative would be to channel the intensive activities into an array of metropolitan centers. "Their range of activity and their physical character could be guided in a way which would be impractical over larger areas."²⁴ Perhaps central areas should be encouraged to open out. The future environment will possibly be an "open" one. That is, one in which the individual can easily penetrate and one in which the individual can act by his own choice. Concern for the individual should have a high priority.

Activities

Questions for discussion:

1. What are some of the problems in city planning, its procedure and application?
2. Is the future of the United States population entirely urban?

²³Kevin Lynch, "The Possible City," in L.S. Bourne, op. cit., p. 523.

²⁴Ibid., p. 525.

3. Should government play a major role in planning?
4. What are some proposals which would eliminate the traffic congestion of the central business district?
5. What type of training should a city planner accrue?
6. How can a planner be made responsible to the body politic without the disadvantages usually associated with political accountability?

Suggested Readings:

1. Melvin M. Webber, "The Post-city Age," in L.S. Bourne (ed.), Internal Structure of the City (New York: Oxford University Press, 1971), pp. 496-501.
2. Athelstan Spilhaus, "The Experimental City," in L.S. Bourne (ed.), Internal Structure of the City (New York: Oxford University Press, 1971), pp. 511-515.
3. Kevin Lynch, "The Possible City," in L.S. Bourne (ed.), Internal Structure of the City (New York: Oxford University Press, 1971), pp. 523-528.

Guest Speaker:

A city planner

This concludes the section on course curricula. The final section is devoted to evaluation and summation of the unit.

CHAPTER V

EVALUATION AND SUMMARY

Given the substantive material outlined above, an integral and ongoing part of unit preparation is the identification of the matters to be evaluated and means of evaluating the learner's accomplishments. Evaluation activities must be planned along with the rest of the unit preparation. These activities should be placed at appropriate points in the unit. "First, the teacher should consider behaviorally expressed objectives to determine what and how to evaluate."²⁵ Evaluation is based on objectives. Objectives are customarily placed near the beginning of a unit. Evaluation is placed at the end of a unit as this gives balance to the curriculum design of the unit.

Recent curriculum developments in geography show a change in objectives. These have changed from an emphasis on imparting knowledge towards a greater stress on involving students in solving geographic problems. With the new developments, the student is expected to develop generalizations by inductive methods. "If we plan to teach for inquiry and problem solving, then our tests should measure more than the recall of knowledge."²⁶ When preparing test items, the instructor needs to specify not only the content he wants to measure, but also the behaviors. The instructor must examine his evaluation device carefully to ensure he is not giving the students a false idea of what geographers consider important.

²⁵Nerbovig, op. cit., p. 62.

²⁶Janice J. Monk, "Preparing Tests to Measure Course Objectives," Journal of Geography, Vol. 70 (March, 1971), p. 162.

There are some points to keep in mind in the general construction of test items. The instructor should keep the goals of teaching in mind and think of the objectives of a particular test. The length of a test should be consistent with the purpose. Keeping in mind the level of the student, the test should be made readable. As the instructor teaches day-by-day, ideas for test items should be recorded. Ambiguities, give away expressions, and trick items should be avoided. Exact statements from a textbook should be avoided. Finally, long and involved statements should also be avoided.

For the purpose of the unit, it seems that the essay type of examination would be desirable. In considering essay questions, numerous advantages appear. They encourage good study habits and are relatively easy to prepare. The essay question allows for expression of depth of understanding and it permits creative and divergent thinking. From an instructor's viewpoint, it is good to evaluate reasoning and critical thinking. On the other hand, the essay question has some disadvantages. For the student, it may encourage bluffing and rambling. For the instructor, the scoring is difficult and time consuming. Also, the scoring may be highly subjective. However, it is felt that for the unit in urban geography, the advantages outweigh the disadvantages and the essay type of evaluation may be appropriately employed.

Suggestions for exam construction should be mentioned at this point. The essay question should be used only where it is appropriate. The directions should be made very clear and complete. Make the items specific and to the point. The number of points, value, or weight to be given for each item should be specified. Several questions should be used. Inform the students how to respond. The instructor should prepare in advance some possible and acceptable responses. Comments should be used to emphasize

strengths and weaknesses. One question should be scored throughout all papers before going to the next. Finally, it must be kept in mind that this evaluation is a small sample of the total material presented.

For the unit, examinations will be administered at appropriate points throughout the course curriculum. Three or four exams would seemingly suffice for proper evaluation. The length and weight of the exams would be equal. A testing time would not last longer than one class period. The exams would be prepared and distributed by the instructor and he would also monitor the testing period and be available for questioning by the students. The next class period after the exam would be spent in discussing questions and appropriate answers. It is imperative that the exam be returned to the students as soon as possible. Some sample exam questions follow:

Based upon your review of the American ghetto, identify some of the problems which Down's alternatives encounter. List other alternatives and defend them.

What is the appropriate limit for the size of an urban settlement in the United States? What form should it be? Defend.

The world is becoming increasingly urban. Will urbanization level off? Why or why not?

In addition to formal examinations, outside research done by the student would seem appropriate. This would be in the form of a written critique of references selected by the student. He would present his choice of readings to the instructor for approval. The idea of allowing the student a degree of choice should ensure selection of something of interest to him individually. Thus, the assignment could be more interesting and meaningful.

Besides the evaluation of the student, the instructor should also be evaluated periodically. This could be accomplished in various ways. One is

to be evaluated by the students themselves. Also, contemporaries of the instructor should be allowed to evaluate his knowledge of material and its presentation.

Simply stated, a teaching unit is a guide for the instructor. Hopefully, the unit presented will some day be used as a guide and be incorporated into an urban geography course. The material outlined above was presented because it seemed to be the important aspects of urban geography. It is believed that most of the material would be well-received by students as it is relevant in today's urbanized world. However, one must recognize that some of the material may not be well-received. This is to be expected. Realistically some of the material and activities will not work out and will have to be either revised or eliminated as an effective teaching unit should be a flexible document. The unit should be analyzed and updated continually.

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URBAN GEOGRAPHY: A TEACHING UNIT FOR USE
IN THE COMMUNITY COLLEGE

by

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AN ABSTRACT OF A MASTER'S REPORT

submitted in partial fulfillment of the

requirements for the degree

MASTER OF ARTS

Department of Geography

KANSAS STATE UNIVERSITY
Manhattan, Kansas

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A well-rounded educational program is certainly desirable if individuals are to adapt to our increasingly complex and rapidly changing world. One overriding feature, of the late, twentieth-century environment, is the growing urbanization of the world society. Consequently, the provision of insight into contemporary urban problems is a justifiable educational enterprise.

Urban studies include a diverse array of scholarly endeavors with associated course offerings. These range from urban planning to courses in history and the social sciences. Thus, a planned instructional unit in urban geography is warranted to insure that spatial dimensions of urban problems are explicitly incorporated into educational curricula. An urban geography unit is articulated in this work and is intended for use in the community (junior) college. It is basically composed of four distinct sections. They are: analyzing the learner, instructional objectives, course material and activities, and evaluation. The unit is to be employed primarily as a guide for the instructor. It is designed to allow for flexibility in application and it can be altered to adapt to a particular urban region. Continuous updating and revision of the unit should be facilitated by the format employed.

It is believed that urban geography is a relevant and meaningful course offering. The student today demands an educational experience that is a fruitful and useable experience. The student wishes to see benefits of his education in the near future, if not tomorrow. Therefore, it is felt that this unit in urban geography will partially enable the student to deal rationally with the urban world.