

1 Re-urbanizing the European City: a Multivariate Analysis of 2 Population Dynamics during Expansion and Recession Times

3 4 **Abstract**

5 After a long phase of suburbanization promoting economic decentralization
6 and uneven expansion of urban rings, re-urbanization has been observed in an
7 increasing number of European cities. However, a comprehensive analysis of
8 demographic dynamics identifying spatial patterns (and inferring factors of) re-
9 urbanization is still lacking for the European continent. The objective of this
10 study is to fill this knowledge gap proposing a comparative analysis of
11 population dynamics at two spatial scales ('inner cities' and 'large urban zones')
12 in 129 European metropolitan regions under economic expansion (2000-2007)
13 and recession (2008-2014). Non-parametric correlations, Principal Component
14 Analysis and step-wise multiple regressions were used to identify different
15 spatial patterns of population growth at continental and regional scale in
16 Europe. Cities showing a trend toward re-urbanization increased in the studied
17 sample from 36% in 2000-2007 to 47% in 2008-2014. Positive rates of population
18 growth in inner cities were found associated with high levels of disposable per-
19 capita income at the metropolitan scale. With recession, differential population
20 growth rates in the European cities have reflected a moderate spatial
21 rearrangement towards re-urbanization in northern and central Europe and less
22 polarized metropolitan regions with declining population in inner cities of
23 southern and eastern Europe. Based on peculiar demographic dynamics found
24 in the study area, the analysis performed brings useful insights on the debate
25 about the future development of European cities.

26 **Key words:** Population dynamics, Inner city, Large Urban Zones, Data mining.

27

1 1. Introduction

2
3 With half of the world's population living in urban areas, population dynamics
4 in metropolitan regions are becoming progressively more complex and less
5 dependent on economic dynamics (Cohen, 2006; Florida et al., 2008; Angel et al.,
6 2011). Multiple and contradictory demographic shifts from growth to decline
7 and *vice versa* have been observed for an increasing number of cities
8 (Hohenberg and Lees, 1985; Cheshire, 1995; Champion, 2001; Andersen et al.,
9 2011). Usually, the development of metropolitan regions has been described by
10 observing how population of the inner city and surrounding areas changes
11 through time, thus allowing the distinction between urban cycles (Buzar et al.,
12 2007; Beauregard, 2009; Bayona-Carrasco and Gil-Alonso, 2012). Cycle is the
13 period of time during which a demographic phase at a defined spatial unit
14 emerges and declines (Fielding, 1982). The life cycle theory of urban growth
15 introduced by Klaassen et al. (1981), and firstly adopted by van den Berg et al.
16 (1982), was suitable to exploring the relationship between urbanization and
17 population dynamics at local and regional scales (Hall, 1997).
18 Based on empirical analysis of changes in direction (i.e. growth or decline) and
19 rate of population in the urban core relative to ring areas, van den Berg et al.
20 (1982) identified four cycles, namely 'urbanization', 'suburbanization', 'counter-
21 urbanization' and 're-urbanization'. Although criticized for the extreme
22 simplification of urban patterns and poor connection with economic theories
23 (Nyström, 1992; Henderson and Venables, 2009; Haase et al., 2010; Kabisch and
24 Haase, 2011), the life cycle paradigm remains a reference framework to describe
25 growth and decline of contemporary cities (Hall and Hay, 1980; Cheshire and
26 Hay, 1989; Pacione, 2005).

1 Because of relatively modest empirical evidences, re-urbanization was likely the
2 less studied process among the four cycles mentioned above (Heikkilä and
3 Kaskinoro, 2009). Re-urbanization is observed when the core city starts re-
4 attracting population and economic activities after a long decline while suburbs
5 still experience demographic loss or particularly low rates of growth (Lever,
6 1993). This usually occurs when urban re-development projects take place in
7 inner cities, ameliorating housing conditions and the quality of the urban
8 environment and promoting a more dynamic local job market (Martinez-
9 Fernandez et al., 2012). Changes in the economic structure of metropolitan
10 regions are additional factors driving re-urbanization (Partridge et al., 2009).
11 Above all, the development of advanced services together with the rising cost of
12 energy and transportation brings the economic activity back to inner cities
13 (Rink et al., 2012). Re-urbanization is thus understood as a process of
14 populating and diversifying urban cores with a variety of residential groups of
15 different ages and socioeconomic backgrounds (Rérat, 2012).

16 According to Pacione (2005), early signs of a population reversal between urban
17 and rural areas after a long wave of suburbanization were first identified in the
18 United States during the 1980s, and similar trends have been subsequently
19 detected in other advanced nations, including Canada and Australia (Couch et
20 al., 2007; Bettencourt et al., 2007; Beauregard, 2009). Following suburbanization
21 and counter-urbanization, re-urbanization has been considered an emergent
22 expansion wave also in Europe (Buzar et al., 2007), intensifying after the 2007
23 global financial crisis (Buzakovski et al., 2010; Kabisch et al., 2010; López-Gay,
24 2014). The reasons for a reversal of long established trends differed between
25 European regions, leading to the conclusion that a unique explanation of the
26 factors determining this new urban phase would result inadequate and too

1 simplistic (Heikkilä and Kaskinoro, 2009; van Criekingen, 2010; Haase et al.,
2 2013).

3 However, consensus has been reached on the pivotal role of demographic
4 transformations as a factor of change in urban dynamics (Haase et al., 2010).
5 The demographic regime has changed (more or less rapidly) in European
6 regions being substantially different from the one observed in the immediate
7 aftermath of World War II and continuing to evolve (Leontidou, 1995; Longhi
8 and Musolesi, 2007; Hatz, 2009; Kroll and Kabisch, 2012). At the same time,
9 settlement systems have been altered significantly in spatial structure, with the
10 emergence of polycentric urban configurations reflecting a slow decline of
11 compact cities and a progressive lowering of urban-rural divides at the
12 metropolitan scale (Longhi and Musolesi, 2007; Turok and Mykhnenko, 2007;
13 Schneider and Woodcock, 2008; Marchetti et al., 2014; Bencardino, 2015).

14 Population redistribution along urban gradients in response to economic cycles
15 was relatively well studied in Europe, a region with more than 70% of the
16 population living in urban areas today, possibly increasing to 85% by 2050
17 (Kabisch and Haase, 2011; Kroll and Kabisch, 2012; Lang et al., 2013). Since
18 World War II, European cities were characterized by multiple growth paths
19 determining the proliferation of compact cities, with consolidated dense
20 settlements and radio-centric expansion up to the late 1960s (Kasanko et al.,
21 2006; Schneider and Woodcock, 2008; Salvati and Carlucci, 2015).

22 Suburbanization took place in the 1960s and 1970s with a time slicing between
23 western and northern Europe (early suburbanization) and eastern and southern
24 Europe (late suburbanization). Exurban development has reflected economic
25 de-concentration of inner cities, increased social inequalities and urban
26 continuums with mixed land-use (Catalàn et al., 2008; Arapoglou and Sayas,
27 2009; Salvati, 2013).

1 Although many cities in Europe have experienced a continuous process of
2 urban growth, a number of metropolitan regions underwent long periods of
3 shrinkage over recent decades and, in between these two groups, some cities
4 have displayed less pronounced or mixed expansion trajectories (Haase et al.,
5 2013; Salvati and Gargiulo Morelli, 2014; Dijkstra et al., 2015;). A 'turnaround'
6 from urban shrinkage towards stabilization and, possibly, recovery in
7 population numbers, has been increasingly observed in recent years (Andersen
8 et al., 2011). Leipzig in Germany and Liverpool in the United Kingdom are
9 probably the most studied cities that underwent a phase of long-term shrinkage
10 from the 1930s, reversed since the late 1990s by a moderate population growth
11 dependent on external public investments (Kabisch et al., 2010; Rink et al.,
12 2012). R erat (2012) addressed re-urbanization in Swiss cities, which gained
13 inhabitants since 2000 thanks to international migrants, young adults, non-
14 family households and some parts of the middle to upper class. Southern
15 European cities did not escape this general trend, with inner cities in Spain
16 experiencing signs of re-urbanization since the early 2000s (Serra et al., 2014)
17 because of internal migration and residential mobility (L opez-Gay, 2014).
18 Salvati and Carlucci (2016) reported some evidences of re-urbanization for
19 Rome, as an indirect response to economic crisis. Early evidence of re-
20 urbanization was also reported for Athens (Gargiulo Morelli et al., 2014).
21 Although the demographic dimension of such residential shifts is gradually
22 being acknowledged by urban scholars, empirical evidence for re-urbanization
23 processes in Europe is still sparse and, in some way, contradictory (Kroll and
24 Kabisch, 2012). Linkages between population dynamics and urban growth need
25 further specification, especially with regard to the role of household-driven
26 processes in the stabilization of inner-city neighbourhoods and the reshaping of
27 residential perceptions, wants and needs (Buzar et al., 2007). Among these

1 processes, distinct demographic factors seem to play a major role in inner-cities'
2 population growth (Van Gent and Musterd, 2016): internal and foreign
3 migration (Lopez-Gay, 2014), aging population (Lauf et al., 2012), and the
4 emergence of 'non-traditional' households (Bouzarovski et al., 2010), such as
5 single-parent households and cohabitant flat-sharers, or, more generally, the
6 increase in 'adult-centred' families, less attracted by space availability provided
7 by suburban settlements (R erat, 2012). Housing preferences expressed by elder
8 population, young migrants and new kinds of households 'foster the current re-
9 urbanization processes in inner-city residential area' (Lauf et al., 2012).

10 Based on the assumption that recent demographic dynamics for both inner
11 cities and ring areas are still underexplored in Europe, our study is aimed at
12 investigating re-urbanization patterns in a representative sample of European
13 metropolitan regions, linking knowledge on earlier urbanization waves with an
14 in-depth understanding of socioeconomic conditions at the base of the
15 progressive re-polarization of inner cities. This analysis benefits from a
16 comparison of population dynamics during economic expansion (2000-2007)
17 and recession (2008-2014). Although the 2007 financial crisis has had a
18 heterogeneous impact on western economies - heavier in southern Europe than
19 elsewhere in the continent - recession has undoubtedly influenced urban
20 growth altering building cycles and shaping house and labour markets, as a
21 consequence of social disparities and a polarized distribution of firms (Capello
22 et al., 2015). With comparative analysis of crisis' impact on population dynamics
23 being mostly occasional and restricted to local contexts (Salvati et al., 2016),
24 identifying similarities and differences in short-term population growth before
25 and during recession is meaningful to shed light on the most recent
26 transformations of European cities and regions.

27

1 **2. Methodology**

2

3 *2.1. Study area*

4

5 We studied a set of metropolitan regions from 23 European countries (see list in
6 Appendix 1). Metropolitan boundaries were identified according to the Large
7 Urban Zones (LUZs) delineated by Eurostat Urban Audit (UA). The UA
8 program was aimed at collecting homogeneous statistical data for a
9 representative sample of metropolitan regions > 100,000 inhabitants (Figure 1).
10 This program assures a diachronic and coherent data collection for comparisons
11 at continental, national and local scale (Salvati and Carlucci, 2015).
12 Demographic dynamics were studied using data on population residing in both
13 'inner cities' and LUZs during two time intervals (2000-2007 and 2008-2014) for
14 129 metropolitan regions with complete statistical data covering the study
15 period. A LUZ represents a functional urban area consisting of a city and its
16 commuting zone. An 'inner city' is a local administrative unit where the
17 majority of the population lives in an urban centre of at least 50,000 inhabitants.
18 Regional classifications of cities have been used extensively as a reference
19 framework for generalizing morphological patterns and discussing the
20 underlying socioeconomic trends (Angel et al., 2011). Although European cities
21 are generally difficult to be categorized because of their variable size and
22 specialized functions (Hall, 1997), we have partitioned the metropolitan areas
23 investigated in this study into five macro-regions following the classification
24 provided by Hall and Hay (1980) and subsequently used by Hohenberg and
25 Lees (1985), Cheshire and Hay (1989), Couch et al. (2007) and Salvati and
26 Carlucci (2015). This approach has identified European macro-regions with
27 similar attributes on the base of population and economic trends, housing

1 characteristics, urban planning and developmental policies. Based on this
2 classification, each city was grouped into one of 5 macro-regions (C: Central
3 Europe including Germany, for a total of 34 cities; E: Eastern Europe including
4 Bulgaria, Czech Republic, Estonia, Latvia, Leetonia, Romania, Slovakia and
5 Slovenia: 41 cities; N: Northern Europe including Sweden, Finland, Norway
6 and Denmark: 18 cities; S: Southern Europe including Portugal, Spain, Italy,
7 Malta, Greece and Cyprus: 20 cities; W: Western Europe including United
8 Kingdom, France, Luxembourg and Switzerland: 16 cities).

9

10 *2.2. Indicators*

11

12 Population growth (annual percent rate) at both 'inner city' and LUZ scales was
13 calculated for two time intervals reflecting different economic phases
14 (expansion: 2000-2007; recession: 2008-2014). To provide an in-depth assessment
15 of local contexts, a basic set of ancillary variables were calculated for each city:
16 (i) population density at LUZ scale (inhabitants/km²) by year (2000, 2007, 2014),
17 (ii) city-to-LUZ percent ratio of resident population by year, (iii) LUZ surface
18 area (km²), (iv) LUZ perimeter-to-area ratio (measuring regularity in the shape
19 of each metropolitan region), (v) a dummy indicating metropolitan regions with
20 > 500,000 inhabitants, (vi) a dummy indicating European capital cities and (vii-
21 xi) 5 dummies classifying cities into one of the 5 European macro-regions (see
22 section 2.1). A dummy variable (xii) indicating metropolitan regions with
23 population growth concentrated in inner cities (most likely experiencing re-
24 urbanization processes) was finally developed with the aim of identifying
25 regions that experience positive rates of population growth at the city scale and
26 a higher rate of population growth at the city scale compared with the rate
27 observed at the LUZ scale in a given time interval (expansion or recession).

1 Indicators evaluating changes in personal income (Euros) at local scale were
2 finally calculated as: percent annual growth rate of per-capita disposable
3 income at both 'inner city' and LUZ scale during expansion (2000-2007) and
4 recession (2007-2014), per-capita disposable income (LUZ scale) and city-to-
5 LUZ percent ratio of disposable income at the three investigated years (2000,
6 2007, 2014). Personal income indicators were derived for a sub-sample of
7 metropolitan regions due to lacking data for some cities in the Eurostat UA
8 database (Salvati and Carlucci, 2015).

9

10 *2.3. Data analysis*

11

12 The objective of this study was to provide a comparative analysis of recent re-
13 urbanization patterns in Europe based on individual cities' population
14 dynamics, distinguishing local-scale from regional-scale trajectories and
15 identifying the contribution of different socioeconomic contexts to urban
16 expansion. Annual rates of population growth at the spatial scale of inner city
17 and LUZ were considered as key variables assessing trends toward population
18 decline or recovery. A dummy variable considering together changes over time
19 in population growth rates at both spatial scales was also proposed to identify
20 cities with a specific trend towards re-urbanization. A data mining strategy
21 including descriptive statistics, Principal Component Analysis (PCA), non-
22 parametric Spearman correlations and step-wise multiple regression was
23 developed to provide a comprehensive profile of re-urbanizing cities compared
24 with the rest of European metropolitan regions.

25

26 *2.3.1. Descriptive statistics and spatial analysis*

27

1 Digital maps provided by Eurostat and representing boundaries of inner cities
2 and LUZs were used to illustrate population growth in European urban areas
3 (Figure 1). Descriptive statistics (average and coefficient of variation) were
4 calculated to assess basic patterns of population increase and decrease in
5 European cities under economic expansion and recession. Descriptive statistics
6 of percent annual rate of change in resident population were tabulated by
7 European macro-regions, population size classes (LUZs > 500,000 inhabitants)
8 and capital cities. Metropolitan regions were classified based on positive or
9 negative growth rates at spatial scales of 'inner city' and LUZ and frequency
10 tables were provided separately for expansion and recession times.
11 Convergence (or divergence) in population growth rate over time and space
12 was studied using scatterplots and Pearson linear correlation analysis testing
13 for a significant relationship ($p < 0.05$) between inner city and LUZ rates under
14 (i) expansion and (ii) recession, and comparing demographic rates
15 synchronically under expansion and recession times separately for (iii) inner
16 cities and (iv) LUZs.

17

18 2.3.2. *Principal Component Analysis*

19

20 A Principal Component Analysis was run on the data matrix composed of 15
21 variables (4 demographic rates and 11 background indicators numbered from
22 (i) to (xi) and presented in section 2.2) calculated for 129 metropolitan regions in
23 Europe. Relevant components were chosen according to the scree-plot criterion
24 fixing the minimum eigenvalue threshold to 1. Component loadings and scores
25 were used to profile spatial variability in population dynamics at the
26 metropolitan scale in Europe.

27

1 2.3.3. Regression models

2
3 Multiple linear regressions were developed with the aim of defining models
4 that describe the most relevant background conditions associated with
5 population growth (or decline) in European cities. Separate regression models
6 were run using 4 dependent variables (annual population growth rate at both
7 inner city and LUZ scale under expansion and recession times). As in the PCA,
8 11 background indicators (see section 2.2) were used as regression predictors.
9 Each model was run using a forward stepwise approach with the aim of
10 identifying (and ranking the importance of) the most relevant factors associated
11 with population dynamics using adjusted R^2 as model's diagnostic. A Fisher-
12 Snedecor's F-statistic testing for significant contribution of each indicator
13 entering the regression model was run prior to regression on a standardized
14 data matrix. Predictors were included in a regression model when the p -value
15 associated with the respective Fisher-Snedecor test was below 0.01. Results of
16 each regression model are presented using standardized coefficients and tests
17 of significance for each variable (an overall Fisher-Snedecor's F-statistic testing
18 for the null-hypothesis of non-significant model and a Student's t -statistic
19 testing for the null hypothesis of non-significant regression coefficient). A
20 Durbin-Watson (DW) statistic testing for the null hypothesis of serially
21 uncorrelated errors was applied separately to the residuals of each regression.
22 A DW statistic close to 2 indicates serially uncorrelated errors.

23 24 2.3.4. Non parametric correlations

25
26 Spearman non-parametric correlations were finally run in two separate
27 analysis' steps with the aim to identify (i) significant pair-wise relationships

1 between the dummy variable indicating metropolitan regions with growing
2 inner cities and 10 background indicators (dummies for northern, central,
3 southern, western, eastern cities in Europe, dummies for capital cities and cities
4 > 500,000 inhabitants, LUZ surface area, LUZ population density and city-to-
5 LUZ population share) and (ii) significant pair-wise relationships between
6 selected income indicators (per-capita disposable income at LUZ scale, percent
7 rate of change in disposable income at both city and LUZ scale, City-to-Luz
8 disposable income ratio) and 16 territorial and demographic variables
9 (background indicators (i) to (xii) *plus* 4 demographic rates, see section 2.2).
10 Significance was tested at $p < 0.05$ after Bonferroni's correction for multiple
11 comparisons.

12

13 **3. Results**

14

15 *3.1. Population distribution in the European metropolitan regions*

16

17 Population density at the LUZ scale was particularly high in southern Europe
18 and declined in western, central and eastern Europe, reaching the lowest values
19 in northern Europe (Table 1). Spatial variability in metropolitan population
20 density was relatively low in all European macro-regions. Conversely, the share
21 of population living in inner cities to population residing in LUZs was variable
22 across metropolitan regions, spanning from 39% (western Europe) to 69%
23 (eastern Europe), with values increasing over time in all regions except eastern
24 Europe. In this macro-region, inner cities concentrated, on average, 69% and
25 66% of total LUZ population respectively in 2000 and 2014.

26

27 *3.2. Population growth and decline in European cities (2000-2014)*

1
2 Population growth during the expansion period was higher in LUZ areas
3 compared with inner cities in 73% of the study regions. The reverse pattern was
4 observed during recession, with growth rates being higher in urban cores in
5 64% of the study regions. With economic expansion, population increased in 68
6 metropolitan regions (Table 2) at both city and LUZ scale (at a rate of
7 respectively 0.2% and 0.8% per year). In four metropolitan regions population
8 grew in inner cities (0.5%) while declining in the respective LUZ (-0.2%).
9 Population increased in the LUZ (0.3%) while declining in the respective inner
10 city (-0.4%) in 25 cases and, finally, a negative growth rate at both city (-0.4%)
11 and LUZ scale (-0.7%) was observed in 32 cases. With recession, population
12 increased in 83 metropolitan regions at both city (1.0%) and LUZ scale (0.9%).
13 Growing population in inner cities (0.5%) with declining population at the LUZ
14 scale (-0.5%) was observed in 11 metropolitan regions. Population grew in the
15 LUZ (0.2%) while declining in the respective inner city (-0.3%) in 17 cases and,
16 finally, a negative growth rate at both city (-0.9%) and LUZ scale (-0.9%) was
17 observed in 18 cases.

18

19 *3.3. Spatial variability in population dynamics over expansion and recession*

20

21 Population dynamics in the European metropolitan regions were investigated
22 on the base of a comparative analysis of growth rates over expansion and
23 recession waves at the spatial scale of inner cities and LUZs (Table 3).
24 Population growth rates were spatially heterogeneous at both city and LUZ
25 scale (Figure 1): with economic expansion, the highest growth rates were
26 observed in cities of northern and western Europe, declining slightly in
27 southern and central Europe and assuming the lowest values in eastern Europe.

1 A similar spatial pattern was observed for European LUZs, with the highest
2 growth rates observed in northern Europe. Population dynamics under
3 recession were similar to what was observed in the precedent time interval at
4 the city scale, with the highest growth rates observed in northern, western and
5 southern Europe. Population increase in European LUZs was spatially-
6 heterogeneous: eastern and central metropolitan regions experienced,
7 respectively the highest positive and negative growth rates in Europe.
8 Population growth rates during economic expansion were also highly
9 differentiated among European regions: the largest spatial variability was
10 observed at the city scale in both southern and central Europe and decreased
11 considerably under recession. Heterogeneity in population growth rates was
12 evident also at the LUZ scale with the highest spatial variability found in
13 metropolitan regions of central and eastern Europe.

14 The relationship between population growth rate at the spatial scales of inner
15 city and LUZ (Figure 2, upper panels) evidences a higher heterogeneity of
16 population dynamics over expansion than under recession time. Population
17 growth rates at the two spatial scales were positively correlated in both time
18 intervals, displaying increasing coefficients during recession. A scatterplot
19 comparing population dynamics over expansion and recession at both city and
20 LUZ scale illustrates a non-linear trend characterized by a substantial
21 heterogeneity in metropolitan growth rates among European macro-regions
22 (Figure 2, lower panel). Conversely, patterns of growth and decline were
23 similar at city and LUZ scale: western cities in Europe clustered in the first
24 quadrant indicating positive growth rates in both expansion and recession
25 times and at both spatial scales; the reverse pattern was observed for eastern
26 cities.

27

3.4. *Principal Component Analysis*

A summary analysis of the spatial variability of population growth rates in 129 European cities according to the spatial distribution of background indicators was developed using a Principal Component Analysis (Table 4). Three principal components were extracted explaining 58% of the total variance. PC 1 (26%) identified metropolitan regions with above-average rate of population growth at both city and LUZ scale during economic expansion. Our analysis indicates that the highest growth rates were associated with large LUZs characterized by regular morphology (low perimeter-to-area ratio) and medium-low population density. Urban regions with these characteristics were more frequently observed in northern Europe and less frequently observed in eastern Europe. PC 2 (17%) identified metropolitan regions with above-average rate of population growth at both city and LUZ scale during recession. The highest growth rates were observed for metropolitan regions < 500,000 inhabitants, mainly situated in central Europe. PC 3 (15%) identified cities along a population density gradient with the highest loading observed for southern European regions and showing no relationship with population dynamics. The score plot draws on components 1 and 2 classified cities according to positive (or negative) population growth rates during economic expansion (component 1) and recession (component 2). Two groups were identified along component 1 (Figure 3). A group of 15 cities situated in northern Europe (except for Luxembourg, Ioannina and Lefkosia) clustered along positive values of both components 1 and 2 indicating continuous population increase at both inner city and LUZ scales. Another group of cities situated in eastern Europe (except for Trieste) clustered along negative values of component 1 and positive values of component 2, being characterized by demographic decline during economic

1 expansion and a progressive population recovery during recession at both inner
2 city and LUZ scales. Large metropolitan regions such as Paris, Berlin and
3 Madrid clustered in the second quadrant and received positive and negative
4 scores respectively to component 1 and 2, evidencing rapid increase and
5 moderate decline of resident population respectively during expansion and
6 recession.

7

8 *3.5. Modelling population dynamics using step-wise regression*

9

10 The influence of background socioeconomic factors on population dynamics
11 was studied using step-wise multiple regressions (Table 5). With economic
12 expansion, population growth rates in inner cities decreased significantly with
13 population density (LUZ scale) and, more generally, in cities of eastern and
14 central Europe. At the LUZ scale, population growth increased significantly in
15 northern, southern and western Europe and in cities with > 500,000 resident
16 inhabitants, decreasing with population density (LUZ scale) and city-to-LUZ
17 population ratio. With recession, population growth rates at both inner city and
18 LUZ scales increased significantly in northern Europe and, more generally, in
19 capital cities, decreasing in central Europe and in metropolitan regions with >
20 500,000 inhabitants. A higher goodness of fit was observed for regressions
21 calculated for the expansion time compared with the subsequent recession time.
22 These results suggest that population dynamics under recession were
23 influenced by more complex factors of change compared with the expansion
24 wave.

25

26 *3.6. Characterizing metropolitan regions with growing inner cities*

27

1 A total of 46 metropolitan regions out of 129 (35.6%) displayed positive rates of
2 population growth (city scale) and a positive city-to-LUZ ratio of population
3 growth under expansion, increasing to 61 regions (47.3%) in the following
4 recession time (Figure 4). In these areas, annual population growth rates during
5 expansion were found relatively high at both inner city (0.8%) and LUZ scale
6 (0.5%), increasing in the following recession phase to 1.0% (inner city) and 0.6%
7 (LUZ). A pair-wise Spearman correlation analysis was run with the aim to
8 identify significant relationships between a dummy variable indicating growing
9 inner cities and 10 background variables (Figure 5). Under economic expansion,
10 growing inner cities were relatively common in central Europe and quite scarce
11 in eastern Europe. With recession, population of inner cities grew fast in large
12 metropolitan regions of northern Europe.

13

14 *3.7. Population dynamics and personal income*

15

16 Pair-wise correlations between population dynamics and selected indicators of
17 disposable income at both inner city and LUZ scale were carried out separately
18 for expansion and recession times (Table 6). Population growth at the city level
19 was positively correlated with average per-capita disposable income at LUZ
20 scale ($r_s = 0.49$ and 0.51 respectively during expansion and recession). In line
21 with these findings, the annual rate of population growth at LUZ scale
22 decreased with the share of city-to-LUZ per-capita disposable income ($r_s = -$
23 0.52). Population density (LUZ scale) increased with per-capita disposable
24 income at the same spatial scale during expansion ($r_s = 0.44$) and recession ($r_s =$
25 0.55). Population density (LUZ scale) was also negatively correlated with the
26 annual rate of income growth (LUZ scale) under recession ($r_s = -0.59$) and the
27 share of city-to-LUZ disposable income ($r_s = -0.45$). With recession, the share of

1 city-to-LUZ population increased together with the annual rate of income
2 growth at LUZ scale ($r_s = 0.47$) and decreased with per-capita disposable income
3 at the same spatial scale ($r_s = -0.54$).

4 **4. Discussion**

6
7 After having lost population for some decades, many cities in Europe are
8 recently experiencing a new growth wave characterized by demographic
9 recovery of inner cities and renewed socioeconomic polarizations along urban-
10 rural gradients. Based on empirical evidences outlining that inner cities are
11 increasingly regaining attractiveness after years of decline, this study looks at
12 the underlying dynamics of re-urbanization in a representative sample of
13 European metropolitan regions. Using demographic data from 2000 to 2014,
14 statistical evidences of diversifying population trajectories for core cities and
15 fringe areas were presented and discussed. We considered population
16 dynamics as a reliable proxy of differential speed and direction of urban growth
17 during expansion and recession, distinguishing local-scale from regional-scale
18 patterns of change and evidencing the contribution of spatially-varying
19 socioeconomic contexts to urban growth (Kabisch and Haase, 2011; Rérat, 2012;
20 Carlucci et al., 2016). Based on an exploratory approach, the results of this study
21 contribute to the implementation of policies facing the emergence of a new
22 urbanization phase in Europe (Andersen et al., 2011). In rapidly changing
23 socioeconomic contexts (Martinez-Fernandez et al., 2012), policies merging
24 sustainable development and containment of urban expansion with targets of
25 economic growth, attraction of skilled jobs, and reduction of social divides
26 between urban and rural areas may promote local competitiveness, re-
27 launching inner cities in global urban arenas (Storper and Scott, 2009).

1 While population redistribution along urban gradients has been investigated in
2 a number of theoretical models and empirical approaches (Henderson and
3 Venables, 2009; Dijkstra et al., 2015; Kazemzadeh-Zow et al., 2016), stability or
4 changes in population dynamics at different economic cycles were relatively
5 less studied in cities characterized by complex and non-linear patterns of
6 growth (Buzar et al., 2007; Haase et al., 2010; Kabisch et al., 2010). To support
7 these findings, our study was supplemented with multivariate statistics
8 investigating latent relationships between population dynamics and
9 background indicators, and assessing the specificity of each territorial context
10 studied at both urban and metropolitan scale (Mudu, 2006; R erat, 2016; Rontos
11 et al., 2016; Cuadrado Ciuraneta et al., 2017). Empirical evidence provided by
12 this study indicates that the number of metropolitan regions with growing
13 population in the core city increased during recession with a reduced spatial
14 heterogeneity in respect with the precedent expansion phase. Northern and
15 western European cities experienced re-urbanization patterns more frequently
16 than southern cities. Central cities showed a mixed pattern, alternating slight
17 decline to moderate growth during economic expansion and recession. Eastern
18 cities were less responsive to re-urbanization, showing a diffused decline of
19 inner cities and LUZs during the early 2000s; however, some of these cities
20 provided early signs of population recovery during the most recent years.
21 Multivariate analysis distinguished demographic dynamics during expansion
22 and recession: the former economic phase was characterized by population
23 increase in the largest metropolitan regions with medium-low settlement
24 density, discriminating northern and central European cities from eastern cities
25 under demographic decline. The latter phase resulted in population increases
26 concentrated in metropolitan regions < 500,000 inhabitants with a relatively
27 high city-to-LUZ population ratio. Correlation analysis indicated that positive

1 rates of population growth in inner cities were associated with high levels of
2 disposable income at metropolitan scale in both expansion and recession times.
3 However, the same relationship was not observed for population growth rates
4 at metropolitan scale. With recession, less dense urban regions experienced the
5 highest increase of disposable income. This result suggests that the densest
6 central cities were less resilient to crisis than smaller cities (Partridge et al., 2009;
7 Capello et al., 2015; Dijkstra et al., 2015). With economic expansion, the spatial
8 distribution of metropolitan regions with growing inner cities has reflected a
9 gradient distinguishing central from eastern European cities. Recession has
10 affected moderately this gradient, better separating northern from eastern
11 European cities. Large metropolitan regions are those concentrating the highest
12 proportion of growing inner cities in the sample.

13 Multiple, place-specific factors may explain the different population dynamics
14 observed under expansion and recession, including (i) a decline in housing
15 prices oriented along the urban gradient (Delladetsima, 2006; Perez, 2010;
16 Helbich, 2015), with the highest reductions likely observed in core cities, as
17 suggested by Salvati et al. (2016), (ii) a progressive reduction of wages with
18 impact on households' disposable income, limiting e.g. travel-to-work
19 movements, (iii) an intrinsic response to employment de-concentration
20 following delocalization of economic activities; (iv) a slow decline in anti-urban
21 location preferences of households and, finally, (v) improved technology and
22 specific urban rehabilitation programs, especially in western, central and
23 northern Europe (Allen et al., 2004; Buzar et al., 2007; Martin, 2011; Rink et al.,
24 2012).

25 In this line of thinking, the mutual interplay between economic and socio-
26 demographic factors is at the base of patterns and processes of re-urbanization
27 in the European cities (Rérat, 2016). Supply of new dwellings in central cities

1 was sustained by construction of new buildings saturating urban voids,
2 authorized enlargement of existing dwellings and buildings in residential areas,
3 transformation of industrial settlements into residential buildings, re-
4 structuring of abandoned settlements earlier used for residential purposes.
5 These factors are reinforced by socio-demographic factors including age
6 structure of native population, family and household characteristics, changes in
7 housing preferences, as well as migration.

8 Initially, re-urbanization processes were dominated by middle-class residents,
9 mainly one-person households attracted by urban ways of life, but other social
10 groups have gained an increasing role, including young families and even
11 retirees seeking for affordable housing (Lever, 1993). With the most recent
12 crisis, re-urbanization was seen as a result of changes in life-styles in response
13 to transformations in land prices, housing regimes and local labour markets
14 (Rérat, 2012). However, re-urbanization processes remain rather ambiguous
15 and sometimes difficult to explain given the mixed empirical evidence gathered
16 (van Criekingen, 2010). The contrasting results presented by Cheshire (1995)
17 and Pacione (2005) can be mentioned to illustrate the confusion over the true
18 nature of this process. Moreover, population re-densification of central cities
19 was frequently observed without a specific link with local or regional policies
20 aimed at promoting urban compaction and reversing urban dispersion (Salvati
21 and Carlucci, 2016).

22 In line with earlier studies, our analysis indicates that the demographic
23 evolution of European cities is not adequately explained by the 'stages of urban
24 development' model that tends to consider urban regions as closed systems
25 (Bettencourt et al., 2007; Heikkila and Kaskinoro, 2009; Bayona-Carrasco and
26 Gil-Alonso, 2012; Martinez-Fernandez et al., 2012). The present study pointed
27 out the existence of multiple evolutionary stages of urban development with a

1 coexistence of emerging re-urbanization and lowering suburbanization (Kroll
2 and Kabisch, 2012) in a socioeconomic context influenced more by place-specific
3 patterns of change than by traditional factors of growth reflecting common
4 mechanisms and system's properties (Haase et al., 2010). To interpret the
5 increasing heterogeneity in urban trajectories, theories describing metropolitan
6 growth as a response to movements of people in search of consumer or lifestyle
7 preferences should be integrated with an in-depth understanding of the
8 economic geography of production, focusing on the complex recursive
9 interactions between the location of firms and the movements of labour
10 (Capello et al., 2015). These evidences are in line with prominent approaches to
11 urbanization outlining the role of (individual) location choice in response to
12 amenity values as the engine of contemporary metropolitan growth (Hall, 1997;
13 Florida et al., 2008; Henderson and Venables, 2009). Reinforcing these
14 assertions, large urban centres have demonstrated to exert a positive growth
15 effect for more proximate places of less than 250,000 people (Storper and Scott,
16 2009). At the same time, contributions grounded on the New Economic
17 Geography paradigm outlined that the largest urban areas cast growth shadows
18 on proximate medium-sized metropolitan areas, enhancing competition among
19 small metropolitan areas at the same time (Partridge et al., 2009).

20 Based on these premises, re-urbanization should be analyzed by unfolding the
21 underlying mechanisms that include housing consumption and in-out
22 migration flows (Van Gent and Musterd, 2016). Earlier evidence indicates how
23 inner cities have gained inhabitants mainly thanks to international migrants,
24 young adults, non-family households and some parts of the middle to upper
25 class (Hatz, 2009; Lopez-Gay, 2014; Rérat, 2016). Although families' residential
26 behaviour remains the driving force of suburbanization even in re-urbanizing
27 cities (Rérat, 2012), the contribution of family households in inner city re-

1 growth was acknowledged in some cases, especially in cities experiencing rapid
2 decrease in house prices (Salvati and Carlucci, 2016). In this line of thinking,
3 overlaps and differences between re-urbanization and the concept of
4 gentrification could be better discussed (e.g. Mudu, 2006). Haase et al. (2010)
5 argued that, although they are partly driven by similar dynamics, the two
6 processes are, in a qualitative sense, distinctive (see also van Criekingen, 2010).
7 According to Bouzarovski et al. (2010), the term re-urbanization has been –
8 untruly – accused to have ‘been adopted by urban developers as a discursive
9 method of camouflaging the adverse social impacts of gentrification’. In this
10 view, re-urbanization encompasses more dimensions than the purely economic
11 processes through which middle-class ‘gentrifiers have increasingly come in
12 competition with lower class urbanites... [resulting] in replacement and
13 displacement of population segments and new patterns of segregation’ (van
14 Gent and Musterd, 2016). In other words, while gentrification characterizes
15 substitution processes leading towards the so-called ‘suburbanization of
16 poverty’ (Hochstenbach and Musterd, 2017), re-urbanization refers to real
17 growth processes, involving the complex interplay of population change, urban
18 renovation and housing markets (Bouzarovski et al., 2010).
19 Demographic growth is only one of the factors indicating re-urbanization
20 (Lopez-Gay, 2014), since an increase in resident population may be caused by
21 different processes (e.g. mortality, fertility, migration) and does not necessarily
22 imply a change in the attractiveness of an area, an important aspect at the base
23 of metropolitan recovery (Salvati et al., 2016). Studies integrating multi-source
24 data information that evaluate joint demographic dynamics, land-use,
25 construction and housing markets, and socioeconomic transformations at large,
26 are increasingly required to provide a comprehensive overview of re-
27 urbanization patterns and processes in Europe and, more generally, in

1 developed countries (Bettencourt et al., 2007; Beauregard, 2009; Angel et al.,
2 2011).

3 From a functionalist point of view, although large metropolitan regions
4 continue playing a role as economic attractors due to infrastructural
5 development, quality of production factors hosted and density of external
6 linkages and cooperation networks, inner city population growth has
7 concentrated in these areas during economic expansion (Rérat, 2012). With
8 recession, population growth in inner cities demonstrated to be spatially
9 decentralized and concentrated in medium- and small-size urban
10 agglomerations, irrespective of their geographical location and administrative
11 role (Garcia, 2010). Although capital cities are now central to the problems faced
12 by national economies in Europe, our results indicate that these agglomerations
13 are rarely 're-urbanization leaders', in line with the key vision provided by
14 Dijkstra et al. (2015): "a development strategy primarily focused on leading
15 metropolitan regions, as represented in many cases by capital cities, could lead
16 to more volatile and potentially lower growth, than a more spatially-balanced
17 development strategy".

18 Recession has undoubtedly stimulated re-urbanization in Europe, determining
19 subtle changes in the geography of growing cities. How this process may have
20 indirectly lowered the gap between leading and lagging metropolitan regions
21 (from both demographic and economic points of view) is an important research
22 issue that needs further investigation based on integrated analysis of long-term
23 social trends (Longhi and Musolesi, 2007). In this sense, urban pictures are
24 definitely complicated by heterogeneous population dynamics associated with
25 the 'second demographic transition', which involves new family relations, less
26 and later marriage, declining fertility rates, population ageing, postponement of
27 child-bearing and smaller households (Champion, 2001; Arapoglou and Sayas,

1 2009; Bayona-Carrasco and Gil-Alonso, 2012; Salvati, 2013). Such dynamics are
2 having a powerful transformative effect on inner cities, by diversifying and re-
3 densifying their social landscapes (Buzar et al., 2007). Analysis of population
4 dynamics in a sample of cities in Germany, Slovenia, Italy and Spain revealed
5 that cities are being populated with, and fragmented by, multiple migration
6 trends and new household structures connected with the second demographic
7 transition (Bouzakowski et al., 2010).

8 Based on these considerations, re-urbanization remains a heterogeneous
9 process both within and between metropolitan regions (Kabisch and Haase,
10 2011). Under both economic expansion and recession, the spatio-temporal
11 distribution of relevant indicators in selected case studies indicates a
12 stratification of different factors contributing to re-urbanization (Kabisch et al.,
13 2010). In contrast to a prevailing tendency to understand re-urbanization as an
14 expression of 'back-to-the-city' movements – relating more to housing than
15 lifestyle preferences – the role of changing socioeconomic and demographic
16 factors should be better investigated (Storper and Scott, 2009), identifying
17 driving forces and impacts on inner cities, housing markets and socioeconomic
18 structure at large (Bouzakowski et al., 2010).

19 Without effective tools promoting regional development, cities under recession
20 are increasingly competing for economic resources (Garcia, 2010) because of the
21 reduction of financial transfers from the state and the European Union and the
22 decline of private investments. However, Florida (2011) emphasized how the
23 global financial crisis allows revisiting 'sprawled' and 'polycentric' development
24 modes, by elaborating a more sustainable and (possibly resilient) way of
25 growth that promotes inner city rehabilitation, moderate densification with
26 urban containment and economic growth (Schneider et al., 2010). Spatially-
27 heterogeneous population dynamics may reflect a differential response to crisis

1 between cities. It was largely demonstrated how metropolitan regions hosting
2 financial activities have been severely hit during recession (Dijkstra et al., 2015).
3 However, hard and soft territorial capitals (physical accessibility, access to
4 information/knowledge, advanced functions, agglomeration economies)
5 distinguishing large metropolises from medium and small-size cities contribute
6 to adjust to the crisis in the near future (Capello et al., 2015).

7

8 **5. Conclusions**

9

10 A comprehensive analysis of population dynamics based on spatially detailed
11 and updated data integrating socioeconomic indicators, demographic variables,
12 settlement and land-use patterns, may be particularly useful to identify re-
13 urbanization as an emerging phenomenon in Europe. Analysis of re-
14 urbanization patterns and processes should take account of the increasing
15 evidence demonstrating that this phenomenon is now global and
16 multidimensional — but also little understood in all its manifestations. Future
17 research is required to match diversity of analytical perspectives and country-
18 based studies with the aim to profile distinct types of re-growing cities and to
19 understand the role urban policies have played in the regeneration of these
20 metropolitan regions. Distinguishing urban expansion fuelled by innovation
21 versus growth driven by economies of scale is crucial to understand conditions
22 for a sustainable development of cities. In this sense, a comparative analysis of
23 population dynamics under economic expansion and recession is particularly
24 useful to characterize re-urbanization processes driven by internal or external
25 factors and to predict future paths of urban expansion in contemporary cities.
26 An improved knowledge of socioeconomic factors influencing demographic
27 patterns definitely contributes to shed light in the complex linkage between

1 heterogeneous population dynamics and non-linear patterns of growth
2 typically observed in the European cities.

3

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