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Chapter 1 : Environmental issues in New York City - Wikipedia

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Policy and Planning coordinates the research, design and development of all HR-related initiatives that enable other departments to effectively manage their human capital. Through standardized policies and procedures, this office promotes consistency across a variety of employment issues, which contributes to quality customer relations and employee satisfaction. It also serves as a catalyst for the development of innovative ideas to enhance existing HR policies and keep pace with organizational changes by developing new policies and procedures. HRIS responsibilities include managing any and all personnel changes within the Oracle system, the production of reports that analyze employee personnel data, and processing all turn around documents TADs , new position creations and position updates. This DHR division is also responsible for maintaining an accurate account of the authorized workforce level. Labor Relations Labor Relations works to elevate employee consciousness and appreciation for the differences and similarities that employees bring to the work environment. As an equal opportunity employer committed to providing a work environment free of discrimination, City policy prohibits any form of discrimination based on race, color, religion, age, disability, gender, sexual orientation, national origin or veteran status. This office promotes a productive work environment by addressing real and perceived employee issues. It also annually conducts training sessions on sexual harassment, progressive discipline and the Fair Labor Standards Act for new employees and City departments. Such efforts facilitate federal non-discrimination compliance and help to attract non-traditional work. It is responsible for serving as the primary resource for health, dental, vision, life and supplemental insurance benefits offered to both active and retired employees. The Health and Wellness Initiatives provide services to retirees as well as active employees and their families. The division also sponsors health fairs, vision screenings, blood drives and monthly lunch and learn series that feature speakers who address a wide variety of health topics and complimentary nutritional lunches. Though pension calculations and related transactions are performed offsite, employees and retirees may speak directly to onsite Pension Division representatives. These representatives are versed in the complexities associated with each plan and can provide clarity in matters of concern. Organizational Development The HR Organizational Development Team is responsible for employee development, performance management, and succession planning. The Mission of the Organizational Development Team is to provide learning and development opportunities that support professional growth and employee engagement. Psychological Services The primary focus of Psychological Services is to assist employees and their families in solving a variety of personal and workplace issues such as domestic conflict, substance abuse, stress and traumas. Any employee or supervisor requesting assistance will receive prompt, confidential counseling from licensed mental health professionals. The services of the office are multi-faceted. It provides a unique service to the City by partnering with public safety in addressing critical incidents, including hostage calls, major traumas and deaths.

Chapter 2 : Environmental Health | Healthy People

The New York City Human Rights Law also applies to employment agencies and labor organizations. Reasonable Accommodations A reasonable accommodation is a change made to the work schedule or duties of an employee to accommodate their specific needs and allow them to do their job.

New York is one of the most energy efficient cities in the United States as a result. Gasoline consumption in New York is at the rate the national average was in the s. New York City has a larger population than all but eleven states, and consumes less energy per-capita than any. The city has introduced a series of environmental policies since the s to address these problems. The city replaced , "cobra head" street lights with new energy-efficient designs by Over , inefficient refrigerators in public housing projects have been replaced with new ones that use a quarter of the power of the old ones. By law, the city government can purchase only the most efficient cars, air-conditioners and copy machines. Two attempts to provide electricity to Roosevelt Island by installing underwater turbines in the East River failed when the turbine blades were torn off by currents. Under the license, Verdant Power expects to generate up to 1 megawatt after a staged installation of up to 30 turbines. Planning is also underway to construct windmills on a hill in the former Fresh Kills Landfill. The wind energy project would power 5, homes on Staten Island. Transportation in New York City New York is distinguished from other American cities by its extensive use of public transportation. New York saves half of all the oil saved by transit nationwide. The reduction in oil consumption meant Green building[edit] For years New York City was slow to embrace green building guidelines used in cities like San Francisco to promote environmentally friendly construction. In the post-World War II construction boom, changes in zoning regulations and the widespread use of air conditioning led to the design of sealed glass and steel towers. Without natural sources of light and ventilation, such buildings required large amounts of fossil fuels to operate. This phase of building style is rapidly changing in New York, which has become a leader in energy-efficient green office buildings like 7 World Trade Center , which recycles rainwater and uses it in toilets and for irrigation, and computer-controlled heating and lighting. Air pollution[edit] Prior to the passage of the federal Clean Air Act of and other local and state regulations in the late 60s, New York City suffered severe smog , with several instances of major smog events like the New York City smog. Bronx and Kings Counties rank 8th and 9th out of the 3, counties and county-equivalents in the United States, while Queens County ranks 13th nationwide. Emissions management[edit] New York has the largest hybrid bus fleet in the country, and some of the first hybrid taxis. A large percentage of the city-owned vehicle fleet, including the personal cars of top city officials, are required since to be fuel efficient hybrid vehicles like the Toyota Prius or Honda Accord gas-electric sedan that produce minimal particulates and carbon dioxide emissions. A biodiesel processing plant will soon open in Brooklyn that will process 2. The Department switched to using low-sulfur fuel in and uses corn-based ethanol in of its 1, light-duty trucks. Air pollution is an ongoing political issue in neighborhoods that contain bus depots. Because the watershed is in one of the largest protected wilderness areas in the United States, the natural water filtration process remains intact. As a result, New York is one of only five major cities in the United States with drinking water pure enough to require only chlorination to ensure its purity at the tap under normal conditions. Fluoride, at a concentration of one part per million, is added to help prevent tooth decay and has been added since in accordance with the New York City Health Code. Phosphoric acid is added to create a protective film on pipes that reduces the release of metals such as lead and copper from household plumbing. Air stripper facilities can be operated at several wells to remove volatile organic compounds VOCs. The only well in operation in had an air stripper in operation. The Croton system, the oldest and smallest section, sits in Westchester and Putnam Counties. The second oldest is the Catskill system. In the s and s, the city expanded again, tapping the east and west branches of the Delaware River and other tributaries to create the newest and largest of its three systems. The turbidity problem stems largely from conditions that have been present in the Catskill system from the beginning. Engineering studies in recognized that the clay of the steeply sloped Eastern Catskills turned the clear waters of the Schoharie and Esopus Creeks muddy after storms. Engineers decided to go ahead anyway, devising a

two-reservoir system with built-in turbidity controls. The city has sought to restrict development throughout its watershed. Daily consumption peaked at 1. Despite having grown to a population of 8. The city uses sonar and other equipment to more efficiently find and fix leaks in its millions of feet of water mains and has taken steps like installing sprinkler caps on fire hydrants during the summer, letting overheated kids cool off without torrents of gushing water. The City did not have a subsequent plan for garbage disposal. This generated an unacceptable amount of truck traffic in low-income neighborhoods, leading to exacerbated air pollution. Passage of the new legislation was delayed by opponents in a Manhattan neighborhood who protested the use of a marine transfer station in the Hudson River Park. Environmentalists and social activists argued the plan promoted environmental justice because no one borough or neighborhood would bear a disproportionate burden under the proposal, and they therefore supported it. Some parts of the city are also at risk if current global warming patterns continue and sea levels rise. The city is home to several thriving non-native species of plants and animals. A paper estimated the rat population of New York City proper to be about 2 million, or one for every four people.

Chapter 3 : The City and the Natural Environment

The relationship between the city and the natural environment has actually been circular, with cities having massive effects on the natural environment, while the natural environment, in turn, has profoundly shaped urban configurations.

Tarr Carnegie Mellon University While cities and their metropolitan areas interact with and shape the natural environment, it is only recently, as Martin Melosi and Christine Rosen have observed, that historians have begun to systematically consider this relationship. Geographers and urban designers such as Ian Douglas, Spencer W. Havlick, and Ann Spirin, however, had previously laid foundations for this work. Just as urban history developed as a field in reaction to a growing societal focus on and awareness of urban problems, so has urban environmental studies grown with the evolution of the environmental movement. During our own time, as Ian McHarg was one of the first to demonstrate, the tension between natural and urbanized areas has increased, as the spread of metropolitan populations and urban land uses has reshaped and destroyed natural landscapes and environments. The relationship between the city and the natural environment has actually been circular, with cities having massive effects on the natural environment, while the natural environment, in turn, has profoundly shaped urban configurations. Rather than being passive, the natural environment frequently played an active and even destructive role in the life of cities. Urban history is filled with stories about how city dwellers contended with the forces of nature that threatened their lives, their built environments, and their urban ecosystems. Nature not only caused many of the annoyances of daily urban life, such as bad weather and pests, but it also gave rise to natural disasters and catastrophes such as floods, fires, and earthquakes. In order to protect themselves and their settlements against the forces of nature, cities built many defenses including flood walls and dams, earthquake resistant buildings, and storage places for food and for water. At times, such protective steps sheltered urbanites against the worst natural furies, but often their own actions -- such as building on flood plains and steep slopes, under the shadow of volcanoes, or in earthquake prone zones -- exposed them, as Theodore Steinberg has recently written, to danger from natural hazards. Cities have always placed demands on their sites and their hinterlands. In order to extend their usable territory, urban developers often reshaped natural landscapes, leveling hills, filling valleys and wetlands, and creating huge areas of made land. On this new land, they constructed a built environment of paved streets, malls, houses, factories, office buildings, and churches. In the process they altered urban biological ecosystems for their own purposes, killing off animal populations, eliminating native species of flora and fauna, and introducing new and foreign species. Thus urbanites, as Ann Spirin has written, constructed a built environment that replaced the natural environment and created a local micro-climate, with different temperature gradients and rainfall and wind patterns than those of the surrounding countryside. City populations require food, water, fuel, and construction materials, while urban industries need natural materials for production purposes. In the nineteenth century, for instance, the demands of city dwellers for food produced rings of garden farms around cities and drove the transformation of distant prairies into cattle ranches and wheat farms; and, the many horses quartered in cities required feed, consuming the products produced by thousands of acres. In the twentieth century, as urban population increased, the demand for food drove the rise of large factory farms. The subject of the flow of food and other such commodities into 19th century cities and its subsequent marketing, however, still has to find its historian. Cities also require fresh water supplies in order to exist -- engineers, acting at the behest of urban elites and politicians, built waterworks, thrust water intake pipes ever further into neighboring lakes, dug wells deeper and deeper into the earth looking for groundwater, and dammed and diverted rivers and streams to obtain water supplies for domestic and industrial uses and for fire-fighting. In the process of obtaining water from distant locales, cities often transformed them, making deserts where there had been fertile agricultural areas. The most dramatic story of such water theft involves Los Angles, as graphically told by William Kahrl, Norris Hundley, jr. City entrepreneurs and industrialists were actively involved in the commodification of natural systems, putting them to use for purposes of urban consumption. The exploitation of water power from rivers and streams in New England, for instance, provided power for manufacturing cities, but, as Theodore Steinberg has argued, it also sharply altered river dynamics, destroying

fish populations and depriving downstream users of adequate and unpolluted supplies. For materials to build and to heat the city, loggers stripped millions of acres of forests, quarrymen tore granite and other stone from the earth, and miners dug coal to provide fuel for commercial, industrial and domestic uses. Urbanites had to seek locations to dispose of the wastes produced. They were, as I have written, seeking an "ultimate sink" for the wastes, but often ended up polluting downstream locales. Initially, they placed wastes on sites within the city, polluting the air, land, and water with industrial and domestic effluents and modifying and even destroying natural biological systems. In the post-Civil War period, as cities grew larger, they disposed of their wastes by transporting them to more distant locations. Thus, cities constructed sewerage systems for domestic wastes to replace cesspools and privy vaults and to improve local health conditions. They usually discharged the sewage into neighboring waterways, often polluting the water supply of downstream cities. In order to avoid epidemics of waterborne disease such as typhoid and cholera, downstream cities sought new sources of supply or used technological fixes, such as water filtration s or chlorination , but the choices were not simple. Industrial wastes also added to stream and lake pollution, and urban rivers often became little more than open sewers. The air and the land also became "sinks" for waste disposal. In the late-nineteenth century, bituminous or soft coal became the preferred fuel for industrial, transportation, and domestic use in cities such as Chicago, Pittsburgh and St. But while providing an inexpensive and plentiful energy supply, bituminous coal was also very dirty. The cities that used it suffered from air contamination and reduced sunlight, while the cleaning tasks of householders were greatly increased. The story of smoke pollution and attempts at control has been well told by David Stradling in his recent dissertation. Industry also used land surfaces for disposal of domestic and industrial wastes, and open areas in and around cities were marked with heaps of garbage, horse manure, ashes, and industrial byproducts such as slag from iron and steel-making or copper smelting. Such materials were often used to fill-in "swamps" wetlands along waterfronts. In the late-nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, reformers began campaigning for urban environmental cleanups and public health improvements. Many progressive reformers, according to the work of Paul Boyer, Stanley Schultz, and William Wilson, believed that the moral qualities of good citizenship were related to environmental improvements and to exposure to nature. Reformers pushed for reduction of pollution and for construction of urban parks and playgrounds as a means to acculturate immigrants and upgrade workingclass citizenship as well as to provide elite playgrounds. Coalitions of enlightened businessman, reformers, and urban professionals such as engineers and public health officials spearheaded drives for improvements in water supply and sanitary services. The replacement of the horse, first by the electric trolleys and then by the automobile and motor truck, as a prime means of power for urban transport, brought about substantial improvements in street and air sanitation. Campaigns for clean air, however, as Harold Platt and Christine Rosen have written in regard to Chicago, and reduction of waterway pollution, as I have written, were largely unsuccessful. On balance, urban sanitary conditions were probably somewhat better in the s than in the late-nineteenth century, but the cost of improvement often was the exploitation of urban hinterlands for water supplies, increased downstream water pollution, and growing automobile congestion and pollution. Environmental Politics in the United States, , city environments suffered from heavy pollution loads as they sought to cope with increased automobile usage, pollution from industrial production, new varieties of exotic chemical pesticides and herbicides such as DDT, and the wastes of an increasingly consumer-oriented economy. Cleaner fuels and smoke control laws largely freed cities during the s and s of the dense smoke that they had previously suffered from. Improved urban air quality resulted largely from the substitution of natural gas and oil for coal as urban fuels and the replacement of the steam locomotive by the diesel-electric. However, great increases in automobile usage in areas such as Los Angeles and Denver produced the new phenomena of photo-chemical smog, and air pollution replaced smoke as a major concern. By the s, however, it had become clear that the sanitary landfill often had substantial polluting qualities. In addition, some metropolitan areas ran out of land for landfills, beginning an expensive search for non-polluting and environmentally sound alternatives. During these decades, the suburban out-migration, which had begun in the nineteenth century with commuter trains and streetcars and accelerated because of the availability and convenience of the automobile, now increased to a torrent, putting major strains on the formerly rural and

undeveloped metropolitan fringes. To a great extent, suburban layouts, as Adam Rome has emphasized, ignored environmental considerations, making little provision for open space, producing endless rows of resource-consuming and pesticide-and fertilizer-dependent lawns, contaminating groundwater through leaking septic tanks, and absorbing excessive amounts of fresh water and energy. The growth of the edge or outer city since the s, reflected a continued preference on the part of Americans for space-intensive single-family houses surrounded by lawns, for private automobiles over public transit, and for greenfield development. Without greater land use planning and environmental protection, urban American will, as it has in the past, continue to damage and to stress the natural environment. The core cities themselves, especially in areas of the east and midwest where industries have vacated the regions and urban populations have decreased, suffer from the environmental burdens imposed by vacant, abandoned, and derelict sites. Many of these sites had formerly been used by industries and are contaminated, as Craig Colten, Hugh Gorman, and Andrew Hurley have discussed, with toxic wastes, which often require costly procedures to remove. Vacant lots and derelict structures in urban neighborhoods plagued by population loss and by poverty, also impose a human cost. In some of these cases, issues of environmental equity are involved. Chicago and the Great West New York: Davis, Margaret Leslie, Rivers in the Desert: Gorman, Hugh "Manufacturing Brownfields: Hoffman, Abraham, Vision or Villany: Hoy, Suellen, Chasing Dirt: Californians and Water, ss Berkeley, CA: Hurley, Andrew, "Fiasco at Wagner Electric: Environmental Justice and Urban Geography in St. Louis," Environmental History 2 Oct. An Environmental History of St. Long, James Allen, "Greening the City: Ogle, Maureen, All the Modern Conveniences: American Cities and City Planning, Philadelphia: Steinberg, Theodore, Nature Incorporated: Stradling, David, "Civilized Air: Coal, Smoke, and Environmentalism in America ," unpublished Ph. Te Brake, William H. Warner, Sam Bass Jr. Hirsch and Raymond A. Tarr is the Richard S. He is also President of the Urban History Association. His latest publications include The Search for the Ultimate Sink: Achievement and Emulation," in Andrew Hurley ed.

Chapter 4 : City of Chicago

The City's actions not only protect and improve our environment, but many also save businesses and residents money, enhance our quality of life and help position Chicago and its residents for future prosperity via the growing green economy.

Saturday, September 24, Human health; household wealth; biodiversity in Africa will be studied by CNH scientists. What links human and other animal populations in the Chobe River region of Botswana, and how is the microbe E. How and where has land use intensified over time around parks in eastern Africa? These are some of the questions asked by scientists funded through the CNH program. Coupled Dynamics in a Water-Scarce Environment Kathleen Alexander, Virginia Polytechnic Institute Researchers will evaluate links among human and other animal populations in the Chobe River region of Botswana using Escherichia coli as a model microorganism to track transmission of microbes among the river, wildlife, domestic animals and humans. When Strengths Can Become Weaknesses: Emerging Vulnerabilities in Coupled Natural Human Systems under Globalization and Climate Change John Martin Anderies, Arizona State University Scientists will examine small-scale irrigation systems whose infrastructure plays a critical role in resource provision to look at how biophysical and social systems have interacted to cope with new vulnerabilities. The Emergence of Adaptive Governance Arrangements for Tropical Forest Ecosystems Krister Andersson, University of Colorado-Boulder Scientists will study 56 community-managed tropical forest ecosystems in Bolivia and Uganda, with a special emphasis on the roles of local ecological knowledge, cultural values and beliefs and socioeconomic inequalities in individual and community decision-making about forest resources. Wetlands in a Working Landscape: The scientists will also study mosquito populations, the prevalence of West Nile Virus and the black rail, which is a threatened bird species in these California wetlands. People, Water, and Climate: Adaptation and Resilience in Agricultural Watersheds David Bennett, University of Iowa Scientists will investigate how coupled natural and human systems respond to changes in climate, economics and policies that operate over large geographic and time scales. They will study the agriculturally-based Iowa and Cedar River watersheds and their sustainability, resilience and adaptability. Causes and Consequences Patrick Bourgeron, University of Colorado-Boulder Researchers will analyze interactions among environmental, social and economic factors in the Colorado Front Range wildland-urban interface and work to forecast the effects of these interactions on future states of the landscape. They will identify the mechanisms by which such interactions occur, assess whether the landscape can experience disturbances while maintaining its functions, and evaluate the implications of environmental and growth policies. Interactive Dynamics of Wildlife Populations, Human Health and Household Wealth in Rural Africa Justin Brashares, University of California-Berkeley Scientists will integrate ecology, economics, sociology and public health to understand and predict how human health and household wealth affect human reliance on biodiversity. The research will take place at nine rural sites in Ghana, Kenya and Madagascar. The Collapse of the Ancient Maya: Interdisciplinary Research on Society and the Environment Nicholas Brokaw, University of Puerto Rico-Rio Piedras Researchers will examine the collapse of an ancient civilization, and the consequences of deforestation in the tropics by exploring interactions between the Maya and their environment. The scientists will also assess the impact of ancient Maya land use, from the period 1, years ago to the present. Through this information, the researchers will identify patterns of climate, land use and population change over the last decade. Political Fragmentation in Local Governance and Water Resource Management Jae Hong Kim, Kansas State University Researchers will analyze land-use changes and shifts in water quantity and quality in the Interior Plains of the United States examining the influence of institutional settings on the effectiveness of water resource management, with special attention to political fragmentation in local governance. Understanding the Consequences of Water-Use Decisions in a Dynamic Environment Richard Lammers, University of New Hampshire The social and environmental factors that contribute to the resilience and vulnerability of Arctic communities are the focus of this project. Researchers will work to forecast potential water-resource consequences in a cultural and biophysical context, placing emphasis on technology-induced

environmental distancing--the loss of awareness of change in natural resources due to increasing reliance on modern technology. Co-Evolution of Upstream Human Behavior and Downstream Ecosystem Services in a Changing Climate Jay Martin, Ohio State University Researchers will use the Maumee River watershed and western Lake Erie to model how public attitudes co-evolve with downstream ecosystem conditions and shape support for policies that affect agricultural management practices and how farmers respond to these policies. The Complexities of Ecological and Social Diversity: A Long-Term Perspective Margaret Nelson, Arizona State University Scientists will study configurations of diversity in ecological landscapes and in forms of social organization that influence system capacity to cope with significant environmental or social changes. Institutional Dynamics of Adaptation to Climate Change: Longitudinal Analysis of Snowmelt-Dependent Agricultural Systems Elinor Ostrom, Indiana University-Bloomington Researchers will examine how climate change and changes in seasonal rainfall, streamflow and drought--as well as the capacity of water users in glacier-irrigated agricultural systems--affect human populations. The scientists will focus on semi-arid agricultural systems that are dependent on snowmelt in contrasting settings in eastern Kenya and the Western United States. Theoretical Debates Over Infrastructure Impacts on Livelihoods and Forest Change Stephen Perz, University of Florida Scientists will use a systems approach that features resilience as a concept to bring together economic, ecological and social science perspectives to better understand infrastructure impacts. They will study the Southwestern Amazon, a region with high biodiversity and in which highway-paving is underway. A Global Sustainable Soundscape Network Bryan Pijanowski, Purdue University Scientists will organize a research coordination network on "soundscapes" to facilitate interaction among ecologists, cognitive psychologists and scholars in the humanities, as well as those from other fields, to explore perspectives on human and natural system interactions. Soundscapes, the cacophony of sounds in the environment, play important roles in ecosystems. Diversification, Portfolio Effects, and the Sustainability of Fishing Communities Daniel Schindler, University of Washington Researchers will investigate how the biocomplexity of fisheries ecosystems translates into social and economic attributes in the human communities that exploit these ecosystems. The scientistsn will examine salmon ecosystems and the social and economic benefits to people who rely on salmon for their livelihoods in Western Alaska. Long-Term Vulnerability and Resilience of Coupled Human-Natural Ecosystems to Fire Regime and Climate Changes at an Ancient Wildland Urban Interface Thomas Swetnam, University of Arizona Scientists will test alternative hypotheses about how human activities at the wildland-urban interface affect the response of fire-adapted pine forests to climate change and how humans respond to these changes over centuries by combining archaeological and paleoecological evidence. The evidence is from an ancient wildland-urban interface in Northern New Mexico, where large communities of Native American farmers lived in ponderosa pine forests through varying climate episodes over the last 1, years.

Chapter 5 : In The Workplace - CCHR

Another is the building of Panama city. The building of Panama City caused many animals to leave and trees to cut down. People in Panama have made changes to its environment.

However, nanotechnology may also present unintended health risks or changes to the environment. It is presumed that some of these chemicals may present new, unexpected challenges to human health, and their safety should be evaluated prior to release. These cross-cutting issues are not yet understood well enough to inform the development of systems for measuring and tracking their impact. Further exploration is warranted. The environmental health landscape will continue to evolve and may present opportunities for additional research, analysis, and monitoring. Blood Lead Levels As of , there are approximately 4 million houses or buildings that have children living in them who are potentially being exposed to lead. Nearly half a million U. Since no safe blood lead level have been identified for children, any exposure should be taken seriously. However, since lead exposure often occurs with no obvious signs or symptoms, it often remains unrecognized. References 1 World Health Organization. Preventing disease through healthy environments. Status and trends through Impact of regional climate change on human health. Climate change, air quality, and human health. Am J Prev Med. Environmental health, from global to local. Biological interactions of carbon-based nanomaterials: From coronation to degradation. Health and the Built Environment: Am J Public Health.

Chapter 6 : Atlanta, GA : Human Resources

Vatican City (5 themes of geography) by: Grace Drexel and Becca Geron Place Human Environment Interactions Location The Location of Vatican city has relative and absolute location.

Are you sure you want to delete this answer? Yes Sorry, something has gone wrong. Human-environment interaction also known as H. Examples of human-environment interaction include bridges, dams, the mining industry, and any structures built by or destroyed by humans. Skyscrapers - Humans built upward because of lack of land. The building form most closely associated with New York City is the skyscraper. As of August , New York City has 5, highrise buildings, with 50 completed skyscrapers taller than feet. Skyscrapers are both commercial and residential buildings. Parks - Humans built parks to provide space from the congested city. New York City has over 28, acres of municipal parkland and 14 miles of public beaches. Central Park, in the heart of New York City, is acres. Subway, Bus and Railroad - Provides transportation for millions each day. New York City could not function without this transportation system. They are environmentally friendly because they save gas and allow people to travel efficiently. Highways are used by taxi cabs, vans and other cars. Underwater tunnels are used as alternatives to bridges. Ferries are used to transport cars and people across the rivers. Airports transport people from all over the world every day. New York City has done well in building the city while maintaining the environment. The city has provided parks, short work commutes, and a very good overall infrastructure.

Chapter 7 : Are Cities Bad for the Environment? | calendrierdelascience.com

The city's carbon monoxide levels sometimes get too high which can possibly damage the historical sites. Breathing in the polluted air might also cause negative health conditions. At times, it results in emergency situations.

Chapter 8 : City of Chicago :: Environment and Sustainability

Environmental issues in New York City are affected by the city's size, density, abundant public transportation infrastructure, and location at the mouth of the Hudson River. New York's population density has environmental pros and cons.

Chapter 9 : Human Environment Interaction - Panama by Smileyzz(:

Examples of human-environment interaction include bridges, dams, the mining industry, and any structures built by or destroyed by humans. Skyscrapers - Humans built upward because of lack of land. The building form most closely associated with New York City is the skyscraper.