

Critical Appraisal of Ideological Differences between Patrick Geddes & Frederick law Olmsted Theories of Urban Planning

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Abstract – Urban designing could be a technical and political method involved with the management of the utilization of land and style of the urban setting, as well as transportation networks, to guide and make sure the orderly development of settlements and communities. It considerations itself with analysis and analysis, strategic thinking, design, urban style, public consultation, policy recommendations, implementation and management. an idea will take a range of forms as well as strategic plans, comprehensive plans, neighborhood plans, restrictive and incentive ways, or historic preservation plans. Planners area unit typically conjointly liable for implementing the chosen policies. The trendy origins of urban designing dwell the movement for urban reform that arose as a reaction against the disorder of the commercial town within the mid-19th century. Urban designing will embody rehabilitation, by adapting urban designing strategies to existing cities affected by decline. Within the late-20th century, the term property development has return to represent a perfect outcome within the sum of all designing goals.

The urban planning concept have various theories to itself, similarly there are various planning perspectives which differ from Planners to planners, this paper discusses the critical ideological differences between two of the greatest eminent planners Patrick Geddes And Frederick Law Olmstead

Key Words: urban planning1, Patrick gedess2, Fredrick Law Olmstead

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 Evolution of Urbanization in India

Before we examine recent trends in India's urbanization, it is important to set out how India defines urban areas and the consequences of this for empirical analysis. India has a stringent definition of "urban", which was first set out during the 1961 census. Three measures are used to define an urban area: (1) a population of 5,000 or more; (2) a density of at least 1,000 persons per square mile; and (3) at least 75% of workers engaged in non-agricultural employment. The transition from an agrarian society to a modern economy is typically described as involving three structural transformations. First, workers move from the agricultural sector into industrial production and services. Second, there is a gradual shift from the informal to the formal sector. Finally, there is an increase in urbanisation in response to the shift towards formal-sector manufacturing and services,

which are likely, though not necessarily, located in urban areas. Even in cases where industry locates in or around rural areas, this results in urbanisation through the expansion, rather than the intensification, of urban areas. Despite a significant decline in the agricultural share of GDP, the employment share of agriculture has remained very high in India. Furthermore, while there has been an expansion 5 in the output and employment share of industrial production and services, this is driven for the most part by the informal sector. Consequently, it is reasonable to conceive that urbanisation would have also proceeded slowly. Drawing on data from the official population census, we can track the expansion of the urban populace since the colonial era, through India's independence in 1947 and the economic reforms of the early 1990s, until the present day. Figure 1 provides a graphical representation of India's demographic trends since 1901.4 Between 1901 and 1951 the urban population of India nearly doubled, growing by 88%. By contrast, it took the rural population until 1991 to double in size. Interestingly, we observe that the growth rate of the rural population is slowing, having peaked during the 1960s at around 20% per decade before falling to its present rate of 11% per decade. Meanwhile, the urban population growth rate peaked in the 1970s at 38% per decade before slowing to 27% per decade in 1991. Between 2001 and 2011 the urban population growth rate increased slightly to 28%. An extrapolation based on the population growth rates observed between 2001 and 2011 for urban and rural areas indicates that the number of people living in urban-classified areas will exceed the number of people living in rural-classified areas sometime between 2040 and 2050. In reality, this demographic transition may be reached much sooner as rural areas urbanise and change in classification.

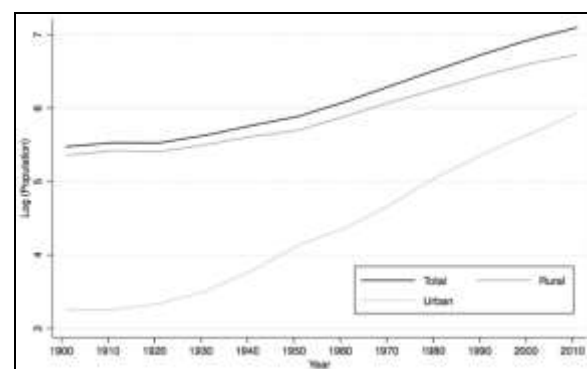


Figure 0.1 Population Growth in India (1901-2011) Source: Adapted from Bairoch

Table 1 presents the evolution of India's urban population share. Between 1901 and 2011, the urban share of India's population tripled from 10.84% to 31.15%. In the last 40 years India's urbanised population share increased by less than 30%, with over one third of this change happening in the last decade. This indicates that India's pace of urbanisation is picking up as a reflection of the economic and demographic changes that have been observed in recent decades; however, relative to other countries at similar stages of economic development, India lags behind.

Table 0.1 The Urban Population

	1901	1951	1991	2001	2011
TOTAL POPULATION (Millions)	238	361	846	1,028	1,211
URBAN SHARE (%)	10.84%	17.30%	25.72%	27.71%	31.15%

Sources: Adapted from Bairoch

1.2 History of Urban Planning from 18th Century to 19th Century

The 19th century, and particularly the period between 1820-30 and 1914, constitutes a turning point between a society still essentially rural and a developed, urbanised society prefiguring that of the end of the 20th century, a society in which over 90 per cent of the population would no longer be involved in agriculture, even if some of these might still live in the countryside. It is no exaggeration to say that, with the exception of the USSR and also Japan, the present urban system was almost in place at the eve of World War I. The England of the 1830s was certainly no longer a region with a surplus of cereals despite being called the 'breadbasket' of Europe by contemporaries in the middle of the 18th century. However, with its imports constituting 4-6 per cent of its food needs, it was also not the England of the end of the 19th century which, like the Netherlands of the 17th century or certain Italian city-states of the 13-14th century, fed its urban population largely with imported cereals. Around 1700, London with its 550,000 inhabitants was along with Paris, one of the largest cities of Europe, but that continent and even more so Asia had known cities twice as large. However, towards 1830 London or Greater London (the metropolitan area of London) already had 1.5 million inhabitants, which made it the largest city of the period and maybe the largest in history up to that time. This was certainly the case by 1851 when a census reported that London had 2.4 million inhabitants.

	Total population (millions)	Urban population (millions)	Level of urbanisation (%)
1300	80-100	7-9	7.0-9.0
1500	85-105	8-9	7.0-9.0
1700	135-160	14-17	10.0-11.0
1800	211	23	10.7
1830	255	31	12.3
1880	405	95	23.6
1914	600	215	35.7
1950	749	353	47.1
1980	992	659	66.4

Figure 0.2 Long term evolution of urbanisation of the developed countries Sources: Adapted from Bairoch

If these changes are essentially the result of the growth of the size of the city, the 19th century is also the period in urban history which saw the birth of the largest number of new cities. However, being created largely in order to alleviate the congestion of large existing urban agglomerations. It is also important to examine the various factors both economic and non-economic which led to the urbanisation of 19th century Europe as well as those other countries now qualified as developed. It is in the period 1830-1914 that Europe undertook urbanisation at its fastest rate

2. Planning Concept of Fredrick Law Olmstead

2.1 Introduction

Frederick Law Olmsted was the father of American landscape architecture. He is credited with planning, designing, and constructing public parks throughout America, including New York City's Central Park, and for designing the landscaping of the grounds for the Biltmore Estate in Asheville, North Carolina, for the U.S. Capital in Washington, D.C., and for the World's Columbian Exposition in Chicago. Malcolm Jones, Jr., in Newsweek commented that "Olmsted not only designed the nation's most famous public spaces, he introduced America to the whole idea of public parks." In addition to championing the idea of public parks within the nation's cities, he was instrumental in promoting the idea that the Yosemite reservation in California be set aside as a national park. More than any other American of his generation, Olmsted represented a belief in the power of landscape to provide a refuge for urban residents. At a time when most urban land was in the hands of private speculators, he symbolized a belief in the civic good and the necessity of urban planning. According to Charles Beveridge, writing in Natural History, Olmsted was "the most influential landscape architect in the history of the United States."

Olmsted was born in Hartford, Connecticut, on April 26, 1822, the son of a prosperous dry-goods merchant. He attended lectures at Yale University intermittently, studying agricultural science and engineering, and then undertook practical training as a farmer on 130 Staten Island acres purchased by his father. As he became absorbed with scientific agriculture, Olmsted began to publish articles on rural subjects and drifted toward a career as a writer.

2.2 Central Park

In 1857, because of his continuing interest in landscape, Olmsted accepted the position of superintendent of the preparatory work on Central Park in New York City. Soon after, with his partner Calvert Vaux, Olmsted won the competition to provide a new design for the park. He signed his plans with the title "Landscape Architect" under his name, supposedly becoming the first to use this title formally. In 1858, he became the park's chief architect and began to implement his and Vaux's plan to make the park both materially and artistically successful. His work was interrupted during the Civil War as Olmsted received an

appointment as general secretary of the U.S. Sanitary Commission, a forerunner of the American Red Cross, then went to California as administrator of the forty-four-thousand-acre Mariposa Estate. While there he became a leading figure in the movement to set aside the Yosemite and Mariposa "big tree" reservations which culminated in the establishment of Yosemite Park. Yosemite eventually became part of the national park system. When he returned to New York in 1865, he and Vaux were reappointed landscape architects for Central Park.

In his design for Central Park, Olmsted started from the premise that it is essential for man to maintain a balance between civilization and nature in his life and that for the city dweller, particularly, it is imperative that places should be provided as a retreat from the pressures of overcrowded, overly civilized urban existence. While he had an appreciation for nature in the raw, "wilderness," Olmsted's real preference was for the pastoral, a natural environment which was ordered, designed, structured, but which provided the illusion of nature's own handiwork. Central Park "represented a major shift from the traditional style of landscape gardening," explained Vicky Hallett in U. S. News and World Report. "Instead of the manicured lawns and orderly rows of flowers found in European gardens, Olmsted and Vaux insisted that every detail from shrubs to stones appear as if it were untouched from the beginning of creation." When the project was begun, the site was an area containing pig farms and squatters' shacks which had no distinguishing physical features. Thus, the construction of Central Park would involve the movement of tons of dirt, the creation of lakes, sunken roads, bridges, and other features to manufacture the illusion of nature for the city dweller. More than thirty-eight hundred workers were required for the project. "Some 5 million cubic yards of rock and soil were moved during the construction," Hallett noted.

At Central Park Olmsted demonstrated that even undistinguished sites could be completely transformed to create the illusion of naturalistic landscapes; that parks had an important social function in offering places of release for urban residents with no access to the countryside; and, of great interest to politicians, that these ends could be achieved without cost to the city, since parks generated more in increased tax revenues from surrounding property than their actual cost. Central Park established Olmsted's reputation and became the prototype for urban parks across the United States. His services were now much in demand, and he moved on to design additional parks for New York City and other cities across the nation: the Capitol grounds in Washington, DC; a preservation plan for the Niagara Falls area; the Emerald Necklace in Boston; Prospect Park in Brooklyn; South Park in Chicago; Belle Isle Park in Detroit; Mount Royal Park in Montreal; and the Boston and Buffalo park systems. Olmsted's other projects included the Stanford University campus and the Biltmore Estate outside Asheville, North Carolina. Some consider his design for the system of lagoons, wooded islands, and plantings in Chicago's Jackson Park for the Columbian Exposition in 1893 his crowning

achievement. He also became a fervent advocate of suburban living, balancing the features and values of both city and country in new planned communities on the borders of older urban centers. Olmsted and Vaux designed suburbs for several cities, the most famous being Chicago's Riverside, which opened in 1869.

As a leader in the new and often misunderstood profession of landscape architecture, Olmsted sought to define its philosophy through his work and writing, while his quandary regarding the identity of the profession was clearly revealed in correspondence with Vaux. There he pondered an appropriate name for this innovative discipline, which combined aspects of fine art, horticulture, natural science, social science and architecture, but surpassed them all in scope. The diversity of projects in which Olmsted engaged during his professional life attests to his devotion to those social and environmental missions that remain the philosophical underpinnings of landscape architecture. Parks planning was to him a form of progressive city planning through which human moral character could be uplifted, while improving urban health and safety. His scheme for the park system in Boston, the famed Emerald Necklace, best illustrated this twin mission. Originally intended to form a continuous crescent from the Common to the Neponset River, this system located recreational areas close to neighborhoods throughout the city, while at the same time managing problems of flooding and sewage pollution. The most important gem on the necklace, Franklin Park, was to be a bit of country in a stressful city.

3. Planning concepts of Patrick Geddes

3.1 Introduction

Sir Patrick Geddes FRSE (2 October 1854 – 17 April 1932) was a Scottish biologist, sociologist, geographer, philanthropist and pioneering town planner. He is recognised for his modern wondering in the fields of city planning and sociology. He delivered the thought of "region" to structure and planning and coined the time period "conurbation". Later, he elaborated 'neotechnics' as the way of remaking a world apart from over-commercialization and money dominance.

An full of life Francophile, Geddes was the founder in 1924 of the Collège des Écossais (Scots College), an worldwide educating institution in Montpellier, France and in the Nineteen Twenties he offered the Château d'Assas to set up a centre for urban studies.

3.2 "Conservative surgery" versus the gridiron plan

Geddes championed a mode of planning that sought to consider "primary human needs" in each intervention, enticing in "constructive and conservative surgery" as an alternative than the "heroic, all of a piece schemes" famous in the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. He persisted to use and suggest for this strategy all through his career.

Very early on in his career Geddes proven the practicality of his ideas and approach. In 1886 Geddes and his newly married wife bought a row of slum tenements in James Court, Edinburgh, making it into a single dwelling. In and round this region Geddes commenced upon a challenge of "conservative surgery": "weeding out the worst of the houses that surrounded them...widening the narrow closes into courtyards" and for this reason enhancing daylight and airflow. The exceptional of the houses have been saved and restored. Geddes believed that this strategy was each more within your means and greater humane.

In this way Geddes consciously worked towards the culture of the "gridiron plan", resurgent in colonial city plan in the nineteenth century:

"The heritage of the gridiron plans goes returned at least to the Roman camps. The basis for the grid as an enduring and appealing city form rests on five major characteristics: order and regulatory, orientation in area and to elements, simplicity and ease of navigation, pace of layout, and adaptability to circumstance."

However, he wished this policy of "sweeping clearances" to be recognized for what he believed it was: "one of the most disastrous and pernicious blunders in the chequered records of sanitation".

Geddes criticised this way of life as much for its "dreary conventionality" as for its failure to tackle in the long time period the very troubles it purport to solve. According to Geddes' analysis, this approach used to be not only "unsparing to the historic houses and to the neighbourhood existence of the area" but also, in "leaving fewer housing web sites and these typically narrower than before" expelling a giant population that would "again as usual, be driven to create worse congestion in different quarters"

4. Critical Analysis of both Planner's Approach

Both the planners were having a contrast approach towards planning, but had one term in common that was conservation of the natural entities, Frederick Olmsted was more of a landscape planner, whereas Patrick Geddes was more of a community planner, Frederick Olmsted was more of a conservationist and his ideas of designing put more emphasis on building a green or natural aesthetic beauty, on the other hand sir Patrick geddes had an ideology of developing folk in reference to their work place, Geddes encouraged instead exploration and consideration of the "whole set of existing conditions", studying the "place as it stands, seeking out how it has grown to be what it is, and recognising alike its advantages, its difficulties and its defects"and Sir Frederick Olmsted designed primarily in the pastoral and picturesque styles, each to achieve a particular effect. The pastoral style produced a soothing, restorative effect on the viewer. The picturesque style played with light and shade to lend the landscape a sense of mystery.

Here I observe both of them believed in maintaining the originality of a substance but the same time both are contrary to each other because Fredrick Olmsted had an ideology to keep things Greener by developing it in a way such that It's reality is not vanished, and Sir Patrick Geddes believed in the development of Folk and there Work place relationship, By maintaining the real Elements of community and not Working on changing the whole community

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