

Chapter 1 : Urban History Association - History

American urban history is a branch of the history of the United States and of the broader field of Urban history. That field of history examines the historical development of cities and towns, and the process of urbanization.

Urban biography[edit] Urban biography is the narrative history of a city, and often reaches a general audience. Urban biographies cover the interrelationships among various dimensions, such as politics, demography, business, high culture, popular culture, housing, neighborhoods, and ethnic groups. It covers municipal government as well as physical expansion, growth and decline. Historians often focus on the largest and most dominant city—usually the national capital—which geographers call a "primate city. Burrows and Mike Wallace. *Checkland*, *The Upas Tree: Biography of a City* Blake McKelvey. Roy Porter, *London: A Historical Portrait*, considers literature, music, theater, painting, and decorative arts. Historians have developed typologies of cities, emphasizing their geographic location and economic specialization. In the United States Carl Bridenbaugh was a pioneer in the historiography. He emphasized the major port cities on the East Coast, the largest of which were Boston and Philadelphia, each with fewer than 40, people at the time of the American Revolution. Industrialization began in New England, and several small cities have scholarly histories. Blake McKelvey provides an encyclopedic overview of the functions of major cities in *The Urbanization of America*, and *The Emergence of Metropolitan America*, Large scale reference books[edit] Peter Clark of the Urban History Center of the University of Leicester was the general editor and Cambridge University Press the publisher of a massive history of British cities and towns, running pages in 75 chapters by 90 scholars. The chapters deal not with biographies of individual cities, but with economic, social or political themes that cities had in common. These books made a significant contribution to the bibliographic review of urban history research and literature in both Eastern and Western Europe. In the United States a very different approach was sponsored by the National Endowment for the Humanities has sponsored large historical encyclopedias for many states and several cities, most notably the *Encyclopedia of Chicago*; also online edition and *The Encyclopedia of New York City*, 2nd ed. Suburb A new subgenre is the history of specific suburbs. Historians have concentrated on specific places, typically focusing on the origins of the suburb in relation to the central city, the pattern of growth, different functions such as residential or industrial, local politics, as well as racial exclusion and gender roles. Many suburbs are based on a heterogeneous society of working-class and minority residents, many of whom share the American Dream of upward social status via home ownership. Sies argues that it is necessary to examine how "suburb" is defined as well as the distinction made between cities and suburbs, geography, economic circumstances, and the interaction of numerous factors that move research beyond acceptance of stereotyping and its influence on scholarly assumptions. Much of the attention is devoted to individual behavior, and how the intermingling of classes and ethnic groups operated inside a particular city. Smaller cities are much easier to handle when it comes to tracking a sample of individuals over ten or 20 years. *Social Mobility in a Nineteenth Century City*, which used census records to study Newburyport, Massachusetts, A seminal, landmark book, it sparked interest in the s and s in quantitative methods, census sources, "bottom-up" history, and the measurement of upward social mobility by different ethnic groups. *Town in the Ruhr: The Industrial Revolution in Lynn*; 2nd ed. Monkkonen, *The Dangerous Class: Crime and Poverty in Columbus Ohio* There were no overarching social history theories that emerged developed to explain urban development. Historians now view the contending groups within the city as "agents" who shape the direction of urbanization. The spatial patterns of residential and business areas give individual cities their distinct identities and, considering the social aspects attendant to the patterns, create a more complete picture of how those cities evolved, shaping the lives of their citizens. Historians have explored the social bases of political factionalism, histories of elites and commoners, different family structures and gender roles, marginalized groups such as prostitutes and slaves, and relationships between Muslims and Christians and Jews. A representative class is Carl E. *Politics and Culture* The basis for some of this approach stems from a post-modern theory including the cultural anthropology of Clifford Geertz. *Newspaper Representation in Three Cities*, a study of how slums were represented in the newspapers in Sydney, San

Francisco, and Birmingham. The accounts provided dramatic life stories but failed to integrate the agendas and animosities of city officials, property owners, residents, and local businessmen. As a result, they did not reveal the true inner-city social structures. This signification has almost always been shaded with ambivalence. In old legends, epics, and utopias, cities both actual and symbolic appeared as places of exceptional but also contradictory meaning. The histories of Troy, Babel, Sodom, Babylon, and Rome were viewed, in Western cultures, as standing for human power, wisdom, creativity, and vision, but also for human presumption, perversion, and fated destruction. Images of the modern city restated this ambivalence with fresh intensity. Great modern cities like London, Paris, Berlin, and New York, have repeatedly been portrayed as sites of opportunity and peril, power and helplessness, vitality and decadence, creativity and perplexity. The Urban History Association was founded in 1978 with 100 members; it now has over 1,000. It awards prizes for the best book prize, best article, and best PhD dissertation. Dyos at the University of Leicester was the leading promoter of urban history in Britain, leading the way especially into the study of Victorian cities. His edited volume on *The Study of Urban History* opened up the methodology and stimulated young scholars, as did the conferences he organized and the book series he edited. Dyos rejected the quantitative methods of the New Urban History because he was not interested in the individual people in the city, but in the larger social structure, such as the slum or the entire city. The logs are open to searches, and membership is free. It commissions its own book reviews. H-Urban has 2,000 subscribers as of 2000 and is the oldest of the H-Net network of discussion lists.

Chapter 2 : The Story Of The Davison, America's First Urban Freeway

Download The Evolution Of American Urban History S2pcl written by Howard P. Chudacoff and has been published by Routledge this book supported file pdf, txt, epub, kindle and other format this book has been release on with categories.

Twitter Opening of the freeway in That was especially the case for motorists who wanted to cross Highland Park and enter Detroit. Everyone piled onto Davison Avenue, the only large street that ran through Highland Park and connected to Detroit running roughly east to west. The avenue and freeway was named after an English immigrant from the s that settled in the area, Jared Davison it was then Hamtramck Township. His farm was approximately between Woodward and Oakland avenues along the south side of the street. The goal was usually to get to Detroit. By early , the Highland Park City Council, which controlled Davison Avenue, proposed to rebuild the street as a six-lane, limited-access highway. Construction started later in Reuther Library, Archives of Labor and Urban Affairs, Wayne State University To build the freeway, the south side of Davison Avenue needed to be expanded, leading to the demolition of 69 homes and the removal of an additional 63 homes. The defense plants near the freeway needed access to it. Workers coming out of the Highland Park Chrysler Plant in Library of Congress Prints and Photographs Division. By November , the five and a half mile long Davison Freeway was finished. It opened without a dedication ceremony, probably due to the desperate need the defense plants had for a functioning freeway. Despite its lack of dedication, the freeway became the first one of its kind " an urban freeway meant to connect one part of a metro area with another with as little interruption as possible. Travel time to and from Detroit was drastically reduced. Instead of spending fifteen minutes in traffic, and more during rush hour, motorists zipped to Detroit in as little as three or four minutes. Davison widening, looking at South 3rd near Wildemere, This extension happened because of the opening of I, the Chrysler Freeway. In , the freeway was transferred to the Michigan Department of Transportation and renamed M At that time, the freeway still had its original concrete surface from the s. It also had three narrow lanes in each direction, no shoulders, and a small median. It was in desperate need of updates and repair. In , the freeway reopened and once again became an important road for Detroiters, especially those looking to quickly switch from I to the Lodge M Ironically, the invention from Highland Park eventually played a key role in emptying the city out.

Chapter 3 : American Urban History I | Urban Studies and Planning | MIT OpenCourseWare

This course is a seminar on the history of institutions and institutional change in American cities from roughly to the present. Among the institutions to be looked at are political machines, police departments, courts, schools, prisons, public authorities, and universities.

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Chapter 4 : Download [PDF] the evolution of american urban history s2pcl

John F. Kasson, Rudeness & Civility: Manners in Nineteenth-Century Urban America (New York,), chapter 5. David A. Schuyler, The New Urban Landscape (Baltimore,), chapter 3.

The country became increasingly urban, and cities grew not only in terms of population but also in size, with skyscrapers pushing cities upward and new transportation systems extending them outward. Part of the urban population growth was fueled by an unprecedented mass immigration to the United States that continued unabated into the first two decades of the twentieth century. Meanwhile, ongoing industrialization and urbanization left their mark on how people spent their daily lives and used their leisure time. In 1800, there were only two American cities with a population of more than 100,000; by 1850, there were six, and three of these — New York, Chicago, and Philadelphia — boasted over one million inhabitants. Roughly 40 percent of Americans lived in cities and the number was climbing. Although much of the urbanization occurred in the industrial regions of the Northeast and Midwest, it was a national phenomenon that often corresponded to the presence of railroads. For example, Atlanta experienced a rapid economic recovery in the last quarter of the century, and Los Angeles became a boomtown in the 1850s due to the Southern Pacific and Santa Fe railroads. Because the birth rate in the United States declined in the late nineteenth century, urban growth reflected an internal migration of Americans from farms and small towns to the larger cities and the overseas migration that brought millions of people to U.S. In the 1850s, however, the origin of immigrants shifted to Southern and Eastern Europe. Another popular misconception is that all immigrants found permanent homes in the United States. In fact, perhaps as many as three out of every ten new arrivals most of them single young men returned to their homeland after they earned enough money to buy land or set up their own business. Seeking familiar surroundings, they tended to live and work with people from their native country. Although their children attended public schools and quickly learned English, immigrant parents continued to use their native tongue, transplanting a bit of the Old World into the new. Whether nicknamed Little Italy, Little Bohemia, or Chinatown, immigrant neighborhoods were rich with Old World languages, from the words printed in the newspapers and on the signs in store windows to the voices heard on the streets. These neighborhoods, which helped ease the transition from greenhorn as newcomers were often called to citizen, were terribly overcrowded, with upward of 40 people housed on a single block. Such overcrowding contributed to poverty, crime, and disease. Moreover, new immigrants were often portrayed as dangerous radicals ready to undermine the American political system or as threats to the jobs of American workers because of their willingness to settle for lower wages. Given these attitudes toward foreigners, it is not surprising that calls for restrictions on immigration began to sound. In 1875, Congress denied convicts, paupers, and the mentally ill the right to enter the United States and three years later prohibited contract laborers immigrants whose passage was paid in return for working for a certain period of time. Neither law had much affect on what was essentially an open immigration policy. The Chinese Exclusion Act of 1882, on the other hand, suspended immigration from China for ten years; it was extended for another decade in 1892 and then was made permanent in 1902. The law was not repealed until 1943. Skyscrapers and mass transit. As more and more people crowded into the large cities, the value of urban land increased. The solution to rising costs of real estate and the need to maximize the use of available space was to build up. The availability of cheap cast iron and, later, structural steel, improved fireproofing, and the electric elevator allowed for the construction of taller and taller buildings. Chicago became the home of the skyscraper because of the disastrous fire of 1889 that destroyed most of the central business district. The building codes that went into effect after the fire required that all new construction use noncombustible materials. Office buildings of 20 or more stories were common in large cities throughout the country by the end of the nineteenth century. One attempt at improving housing for the poor actually had the opposite effect. When two tenements were built next to each other, the indentations created an airshaft that provided limited ventilation and light to the interior apartments. A block lined with dumbbell tenements housed more than 40 people, significantly adding to overcrowding in poor neighborhoods; future construction was banned in New York in 1899. Improved urban transportation helped shape the modern city. Mass transit helped to change living patterns. As

trolley or subway lines extended beyond what used to be the city limits, the first suburbs were created, resulting in residential segregation by income. While immigrants and the poor remained in the central city, the middle class could live further away from their jobs and commute to work. Bridges also contributed to the outward expansion of cities. Brooklyn Bridge, completed in and the longest suspension bridge in the world at the time, linked the then city of Brooklyn with Manhattan. Urban politics and reform. In the late nineteenth century, municipal government often failed to meet the needs of its constituents – citizen and immigrant alike. In many cities across the country, power rested not in the hands of elected officials but with the boss who handpicked the candidates for office and controlled the vote through the political machine, or organization, that he ran. Although reformers bitterly attacked the corruption and inefficiency that went along with boss politics, the system did provide valuable services. Bosses also provided the poor with money and food and helped them work out problems with the police or other city agencies. Charitable assistance was encouraged by the Social Gospel, a philosophy embraced by a number of Protestant ministers, which noted that personal salvation came through the betterment of society and that churches could help bring this about by fighting poverty, slum conditions, and drunkenness. Churches built gymnasiums, opened libraries, set up lectures, and took on social programs in the hope of attracting the working poor. The settlement house movement was a nonsectarian approach to the same problems addressed by the churches. Established in the poorest neighborhoods, settlement houses served as community centers whose primary function was to help immigrant families adjust to life in the United States. They offered a variety of services, including nurseries and kindergartens, classes on sewing, cooking, and English, and a range of sports and recreation programs. As professionals, they were interested in gathering information on a wide range of urban problems. The data they collected helped bring about changes in building codes, improved health care and factory safety, and highlighted the need for new child labor laws.

Chapter 5 : SAGE Reference - Encyclopedia of American Urban History

Now, after a generation of pathbreaking scholarship that has reoriented and enlightened our perception of the American city, an interdisciplinary group of scholars offers both a summary and a prospectus of the field in this Encyclopedia of American Urban History.

Wilmington The cities played a major part in the Civil War, providing soldiers, money, training camps, supplies, and media support for the Union war effort. In the North, discontent with the draft law led to riots in several cities and in rural areas as well. Initially focused on the draft, the protests quickly expanded into violent attacks on blacks in New York City, with many killed on the streets. However, by the casualties were mounting and the war was increasingly focused on freeing the slaves in addition to preserving the Union. When the war started the largest cities in slave states were seized in by the Union, including Washington, Baltimore, Wheeling, Louisville, and St. The largest and most important Confederate city, New Orleans, was captured in early , and Nashville in . All these cities became major logistic and strategic centers for the Union forces. All the remaining ports were blockaded by the summer of , ending normal commercial traffic, with only very expensive blockade runners getting through. The largest remaining cities were Atlanta, the railroad center which was destroyed in , in the national capital in Richmond which held out to the bitter end. When bacon reached a dollar a pound in , the poor white women of Richmond, Atlanta and many other cities began to riot; they broke into shops and warehouses to seize food. The women expressed their anger at ineffective state relief efforts, speculators, merchants and planters. As wives and widows of soldiers they were hurt by the inadequate welfare system. However, they produced uneven wear, opened new hazards for pedestrians and made for dangerous potholes for bicycles and for motor vehicles. Manhattan alone had , horses in , pulling streetcars, wagons, and carriages, and leaving their waste behind. They were not fast, and pedestrians could dodge and scramble their way across the crowded streets. Small towns continued to rely on dirt and gravel, but larger cities wanted much better streets, so they looked to wood or granite blocks. Brick surfacing was a good compromise, but even better was asphalt paving. With London and Paris as models, Washington laid , square yards of asphalt paving by , and served as a model for Buffalo, Philadelphia and elsewhere. By the end of the century, American cities boasted 30 million square yards of asphalt paving, followed by brick construction. Street-level trolleys moved passengers at 12 miles per hour for 5 cents a ride with free transfers , They became the main transportation service for middle class shoppers and office workers until they bought automobiles after and commuted from more distant suburbs in privacy and comfort. The working-class typically walked to nearby factories and patronized small local stores. Big-city streets became paths for faster and larger and more dangerous vehicles, the pedestrians beware. Underground subways were a solution, with Boston building one in the s followed by New York a decade later. They built service towns to handle the needs of railroad construction and repair crews, train crews, and passengers who ate meals at scheduled stops. The violence was often exaggerated in dime novels. Railroads finally arrived in the s and they shipped the cattle out; cattle drives became short-distance affairs. However the passenger trains were often the targets of armed gangs. Denver had always attracted miners, workers, whores and travelers. Saloons and gambling dens sprung up overnight. The city fathers boasted of its fine theaters, and especially the Tabor Grand Opera House built in Denver gained regional notoriety with its range of bawdy houses, from the sumptuous quarters of renowned madams to the squalid "cribs" located a few blocks away. Business was good; visitors spent lavishly, then left town. As long as madams conducted their business discreetly, and "crib girls" did not advertise their availability too crudely, authorities took their bribes and looked the other way. Occasional cleanups and crack downs satisfied the demands for reform. It was an ethnic stronghold, with the Irish Catholics in control of politics and of the best jobs at the leading mining corporation Anaconda Copper. Construction required several major innovations, the elevator, and the steel beam. The steel skeleton, developed in the s, replaced the heavy brick walls that were limited to 15 or so stories in height. The skyscraper also required a complex internal structure to solve difficult issues of ventilation, steam heat, gas lighting and later electricity , and plumbing. The apartment building came first, as middle-class professionals, businessmen, and white-collar workers

realized they did not need and could scarcely afford single-family dwellings of the type that low land costs in the towns permitted. Boarding houses were inappropriate for family; hotel suites were too expensive. In smaller cities, there were many apartments over stores and shops, usually occupied by proprietors of small local businesses. The residents paid rent, and did not own their apartments until the emergence of cooperatives in New York City in the 20th century, and condominiums around the country after World War II. Turnover was very high, and there was seldom was a sense of neighborhood community. They were modern well-equipped buildings with a single large apartments on each floor. Chicago built thousands of apartment buildings, with the upscale ones close to the lake, where it was warmer in the winter and cooler in the summer. The working class crowded into tenement houses, with far fewer features and amenities. They were cheap and easy to build, and filled up almost the entire lot. There were typically five story walk-ups, with four separate apartments on each floor. There was minimal air circulation and sunlight. Until the reforms of the 1850s, New York tenements lacked running water or indoor toilets. Garbage pickup was erratic until late in the 19th century. Rents were cheap for those who could endure the dust, clutter, smells and noises; the only cheaper alternatives were squalid basement rooms in older buildings. Most of the tenements survived until the urban renewal movement of the 1950s. As paraphrased by historian Bayrd Still, the editor painted a grim contrast: Pure milk, wholesome water, mellow fruit, vegetables, and proper sleep and exercise are lacking in the city; and the "dense centers of population are unfavorable to moral growth as they are to physical development. How different is the situation of the "sturdy farmer removed from the dust and smoke and filth and vice of the crowded city Content in his cottage The young man in the country no sooner elects for himself his course, than he makes for the nearest town. Scarcely has he grown familiar with his new surroundings, when the subtle attractions of the remoter city begin to tell upon him. There is no resisting it. It draws him like a magnet. Sooner or later, it is tolerably certain, he will be sucked into one of the great centers of life. They typically focused on urban sanitation, better schools, and lower trolley fares for the middle-class commuters. They especially demanded a nonpolitical civil service system to replace the "spoils of victory" approach by which the winners of an election replaced city and school employees. They sometimes won citywide elections, but were rarely reelected. Party regulars laughed at them for trying to be independent of the political party machines by forming nonpartisan tickets. The ridicule included suggestions that the reformers were not real men: They used national organizations, such as the National Municipal League, and focused on broader principles such as honesty, efficiency, economy, and centralized decision-making by experts. Protestant churches promoted their own group of reformers, mostly women activists demanding prohibition or sharp reductions in the baleful influence of the saloon in damaging family finances and causing family violence. Rural America was increasingly won over by the prohibitionists, but they rarely had success in the larger cities, where they were staunchly opposed by the large German and Irish elements. Moving relentlessly from West to East, became the vote for women in state after state, and finally nationwide in 1919. After examining late 19th century reform movements in New York, Philadelphia, St. History of water supply and sanitation Sanitary conditions were bad throughout urban America in the 19th century. The worst conditions appeared in the largest cities, where the accumulation of human and horse waste built up on the city streets, where sewage systems were inadequate, and the water supply was of dubious quality. The older theory of contagion said that germs spread disease, but this theory was increasingly out of fashion by the 1850s or 1860s for two reasons. On the one hand it predicted too much-- microscopes demonstrated so many various microorganisms that there was no particular reason to associate any one of them with a specific disease. There was also a political dimension; a contagious theory of disease called for aggressive public health measures, which meant taxes and regulation the business community rejected. It indicated the need for regular garbage pickup. By the 1850s, however, European discovery of the germ theory of disease proved decisive for the medical community, although popular belief never shook the old "bad air" theory. Medical attention shifted from curing the sick patient to stopping the spread of the disease in the first place. It indicated a system of quarantines, hospitalization, clean water, and proper sewage disposal. Chapin, head of public health in Providence Rhode Island, was a tireless campaigner for the germ theory of disease, which he repeatedly validated with his laboratory studies. Chapin emphatically told popular audiences germs were the true culprit, not filth; that diseases were not

indiscriminately transmitted through the smelly air; and that disinfection was not a cure-all. He paid little attention to environmental or chemical hazards in the air and water, or to tobacco smoking, since germs were not involved. They did not become a major concern of the public health movement until the s. Their expertise was welcomed, and many became city managers after that reform was introduced in the early 20th century. The skyscrapers and tourist attractions were widely publicized. Suburbs existed, but they were largely bedroom communities for commuters to the central city. More than a fourth of the largest corporations in were headquartered in New York City. Pingree first put together the reform coalition. In Illinois, Governor Frank Lowden undertook a major reorganization of state government. His Wisconsin Idea used the state university as a major source of ideas and expertise. Reformers abolished political parties in municipal elections, and set up a five-man commission of experts to rebuild the city. The Galveston idea was simple, efficient, and much less conducive to corruption. It lessened the Democratic influences of the average voter, but multiplied the influence of the reform-minded middle-class. By 1900, over 100 cities had nonpartisan elected commissions. History of urban planning The Garden city movement was brought over from England and evolved into the "Neighborhood Unit" form of development. In the early 1900s, as cars were introduced to city streets for the first time, residents became increasingly concerned with the number of pedestrians being injured by car traffic. The response, seen first in Radburn, New Jersey, was the Neighborhood Unit-style development, which oriented houses toward a common public path instead of the street.

Chapter 6 : Urban history - Wikipedia

Urban biography. Urban biography is the narrative history of a city, and often reaches a general audience. Urban biographies cover the interrelationships among various dimensions, such as politics, demography, business, high culture, popular culture, housing, neighborhoods, and ethnic groups.

See Article History Latin American architecture, history of architecture in Mesoamerica, Central America, South America , and the Caribbean beginning after contact with the Spanish and Portuguese in and , respectively, and continuing to the present. For centuries before about , indigenous American peoples had civilizations with unique architectural traditions; for these traditions, which continue to the present day, see Native American arts. After about , these traditions often became intertwined with those of Europe and North America ; for these European and North American histories, see Western architecture. The technical and theoretical aspects of architecture are treated elsewhere; see architecture. For a thorough treatment of the often-related visual art traditions of Latin America after about , see Latin American art. The colonial period, c. Over the course of the next 30 years, Spanish explorers encountered several Native American cities as large and as complex as any in Europe. Before returning, Columbus ordered his men to build a fort—the first European building constructed in the Americas. The Santa Maria , being no longer seaworthy, was turned upside down on the beach, dragged up the coast, and recycled into a fort housing the first Spanish settlers. Though political governance was absolute and centralized in Madrid—via Sevilla —the cultural landscape of the New World remained decentralized and open to influence from Flanders , Germany , and Italy. In some cases Jesuit, Dominican, and Franciscan priests and architects imported knowledge from Europe to the Americas even before it reached Spain. Architectural and artistic production in the New World emerged as a creative product of this new cultural and geographical freedom. There are in the city many large and beautiful houses. These people live almost like those in Spain and in as much harmony and order as there, and considering that they are barbarous and so far from the knowledge of God and cut off from all civilized nations, it is truly remarkable to see what they have achieved in all things. The first Spanish viceroalties and their capitals Spain initially organized its management and governance of the New World according to viceroalties—geographical regions administered by a viceroy , a direct representative of the Spanish crown vested with executive, legislative, judicial, military, and ecclesiastical power. This transformation established Mexico City as a continuing locus of power for the Viceroyalty of New Spain. Cuzco , the ancient capital of the Inca empire, and Lima , a new city founded by the Spanish in , functioned as the two great cities of colonial Peru, and governance shifted between them. The original layout of the Inca city was also preserved. The city has long wide streets and very large squares. For Cuzco, with regard to the Inca Empire, was another Rome and the one city may be well compared to the other. Its rectilinear plan, with three naves of equal height, is Renaissance in its spatial characteristics, but the stone reinforcements in the vaults are similar to those of late Gothic Spanish churches. The austere character of the almost fortresslike walls of the exterior is reinforced by symmetrical bell towers on the corners and an elaborately articulated entrance portal. It was the first new city in Spanish America to apply a regular orthogonal grid system , an urban design model that became the norm for all the Americas. Origins of this grid-based urban plan had previously been found in varied sources dating back to the colonies of the Greek empire and then in Renaissance treaties. Such sources may have been relevant, but it is also important to understand that the orthogonal grid was used in pre-Columbian America long before these sources were known. By the end of the 16th century, many of the major cities now existing in Latin America had been established. Spanish and Portuguese settlers created and developed Amerindian cities according to the preestablished Renaissance grid system. Generally speaking, these cities shared a grid plan featuring large, open squares defined by a cathedral and other institutional buildings. By contrast, architects and planners in European cities were often limited by the existing medieval urban fabric in the application of this model. The application of this grid system in Latin America was eventually enforced by the Laws of the Indies , a series of guidelines formulated by Spain for the planning and development of all new American cities as well as for the adaptation of the old Amerindian capitals. These

laws promoted the ideal of the pure geometry of the Renaissance city. This strategy was reinforced by the architecture of cathedrals that adapted prevailing innovations by European Renaissance and Mannerist architects see below to the vernacular and local conditions found in the New World. The founding of new towns and the construction of large monasteries in Mexico provided an opportunity for enlightened European settlers to realize some of the utopian ideals of Renaissance planning. Antonio de Mendoza , the first viceroy of New Spain, oversaw the creation of mission establishments. Representing different religious orders, these missions were inspired by the theories of Europeans such as Leon Battista Alberti , Erasmus , and Sir Thomas More. The plan usually included a single nave church , a convent around a patio, a large walled atrium or churchyard with an open-air chapel for outdoor masses, and small corner chapels called posas. By more than churches had been built in Mexico alone. The transmission of this influence from Spain was catalyzed by the publication in Toledo of the first Spanish translation of the treatises of the Italian Mannerist architect Sebastiano Serlio. As evidenced by their extensive use of these treatises, local architects in the New World were undoubtedly aware of developments in European architecture. The ability of these New World architects to combine elements from Italian, Flemish, German, and Spanish sources with the local craft traditions and materials would result in an architecture that was unique to the Americas. It is estimated that 15, churches were built in Latin America between and Works inspired by the doorway designs of Italian architect Giacomo da Vignola or the forms of Andrea Palladio , Michelangelo , Alberti, Bramante, and, in particular, Serlio, appeared from Mexico to Argentina from the 16th to the 18th century. The influence of Italian Mannerism is evident in the facade of the cathedral of Santo Domingo Dominican Republic , completed in and probably built by the first bishop of Santo Domingo , Alessandro Geraldini. The circular cloister of the College of Saint Thomas in Lima , built beginning in , makes reference to both the Cloister of St. Military architecture By the 17th century the principal ports of the Caribbean were protected by military fortifications, which became necessary because of widespread piracy and the colonial ambitions of the Netherlands , England, and France for the territories controlled by Spain and Portugal. These fortifications can be classified into five categories: Philip II , the king of Spain, commissioned Tiburcio Spanoqui and Bautista Antonelli to design and execute a defensive system that would protect the Spanish fleet. This entailed the building of forts from the coast of Florida to the Strait of Magellan. Castillo de San Marcos, St. Augustine Castillo de San Marcos, a massive stone fortification built by the Spanish between and in St. This style is characterized by the transformation of Renaissance rectilinear spaces that were clearly defined and modulated toward more-complex curvilinear geometries based on the circle, oval, or spiral. These Baroque elements were primarily limited to planar decorative treatments on facades or interiors. This influence emerged in numerous buildings throughout Latin America. It was installed in the new cathedral of Puebla in The use of the twisted column became emblematic of Baroque facades and altarpieces of 17th-century Mexican churches. The cathedral of Cuzco , built in the mids, includes a complex and ornate portal applied to an austere surface flanked by two bell towers. The project, which was attributed to Juan Bautista Egidiano, a Flemish Jesuit active in Cuzco from to , created a typology that was the origin of what was later designated the Cuzco style. This style is defined by the placement of twin bell towers on an austere square base that frames the elaborately articulated central portal and by the interior space being organized by three rectilinear naves, with elaborate Baroque decoration only on the altarpiece. In this case, it is important to note that, although the architects were indigenous, their artistic character was European. It was built on the site of the Inca palace of Viracocha Huiracocha , which had suffered extensive damage in an earthquake in , and was consecrated in While this influence in Mexico and Peru remained limited to planar decorative treatments, Pucallpa instead presents a complex interweaving of Baroque spaces much like the work of Italian architect Francesco Borromini. This chapel and the Church of Santa Teresa of Cochabamba, an unfinished project begun in in Bolivia, present rare examples of Baroque spaces built in colonial Spain. Seventeenth- and 18th-century architecture in Ecuador , Colombia , and Cuba In addition to importing formal and decorative aspects of European architecture, the ecclesiastical architecture of the New World also borrowed European construction methods, specifically adopting a phased approach to building that often spanned decades or even centuries. The interior shows a decorative exuberance in the elaborate carving of the altars, pulpits, and chapels that is typical of the Quito school. The Mannerist elements

taken from Serlio and others that were prevalent in Latin American architecture—where columns, friezes, arches, bases, and other elements once used to convey a sense of gravity were transformed into decorative elements—reflect both modernization and the continuation of the Renaissance. The Chapel of Rosario c. In both chapels the space itself is not complex, yet the perception of these highly articulated surfaces creates a unique sensation that overwhelms the original space, collapsing the floors, walls, and ceilings into a single tapestry-like surface. In the Caribbean the Cathedral of Havana —the old church of St. Three columns that are turned outward from the centre give the facade structure, creating concave and convex rhythms reminiscent of the work of Borromini. The facade is centred on an intimate square that is regarded as one of the best-proportioned urban spaces in the Americas. Eighteenth-century architecture in Mexico The Metropolitan Cathedral of Mexico in Mexico City , begun in the 16th century by Claudio de Arciniega, is Classical in its layout, with extraordinary fragments of an exuberant Baroque decoration applied on the surface. The altar , which covers the entire end of the central nave of the cathedral , is a vertical composition that is framed by the use of foreshortened columns called estipes and a profuse use of small-scale decorative elements that create an unreal appearance meant to elicit a trancelike effect that would enable a worshipper to imagine the glory of heaven. The Ultrabaroque decorative style was for the most part a surface treatment that did not propose a new spatial organization but rather worked best when the spaces were straightforward. This Baroque sensibility had two fields of intervention: Metropolitan Cathedral, Mexico City. These local craftsmen interpreted the European tradition for the express purpose of creating a total environment that was at once Baroque and animistic. This decorative excess was instrumental in creating a sense of rupture from the vernacular to a new, marvelous realm. The two elongated towers of Santa Prisca are the most impressive expression of this new verticality. Indigenous influences The influence of the local indigenous cultures on Latin American architecture is most notable in the craftsmanship of the decorative carving and plasterwork. The violence of the conquest was such that there could not be a synthesis of the pre-Columbian cultures with the new European-Christian model. Yet the pervasiveness of the original cultures is manifest in the spirit of the decorative planar relief and the animistic renderings of vegetation and Classical motifs that are closer in spirit to early Romanesque carving. The stone for this latter church was cut by the mason Eugenio de Mota in Portugal and then shipped to Brazil. The most extraordinary Baroque churches in all of the Americas were built in the region of Minas Gerais beginning in the 18th century. The discovery of gold and diamonds in these highlands created an economic force that was independent of the coasts and that produced a unique culture. The exterior of the church is rectilinear, while the interior is polygonal—a faceted oval that is the precursor of the oval plan. This church was the first of a group of extraordinary Baroque churches designed by the Lisboa clan. He suffered from what may have been leprosy as a youth, and, after a time, in order to work he was forced to have his sculpting tools strapped to his forearms. He sculpted, did carpentry, and created complete architectural designs. In the latter church the towers are bowed from each corner and visually interact with a facade that is both convex and concave. Of these two, the most harmonious is the Church of St. The front elevation is bowed in such a way as to incorporate the two towers into this curvilinear structure and to create a transition to the side elevation. The new institutions of government Although some municipal palaces were built as early as the Municipal Palace of Tlaxcala c. Customs houses, hospitals, prisons, treasuries, and post offices were built at the initiative of the military engineers and architects of the Neoclassical movement. One of the most-refined examples of this new building type, with its symmetrical plan organized around courtyards, is the Casa de Moneda Royal Mint; c. The Neoclassical academic architecture of the cabildo applies the language of Renaissance architecture i. Page 1 of 2.

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