Chapter 1 : Services â€" Pluralist

When city planners and designers are given the ideal assignmentâ€"to build a new city in the wilderness, unencumbered by an existing urban matrixâ€"and, at the same time, the site is located in the midst of a resource-rich region that attracts a rapid influx of people who proceed to build for.

Background[edit] The modern origins of urban planning lie in the movement for urban reform that arose as a reaction against the disorder of the industrial city in the midth century. Urban planning exists in various forms and it addresses many different issues. Alternatively, it can concern the massive challenges associated with urban growth, particularly in the Global South. Examples of these factors include: Other, less common, but nonetheless influential groups included governmental officials, private developers, and landscape architects. Through the strategies associated with these professions, the rational planning movement developed a collection of techniques for quantitative assessment, predictive modeling, and design. Due to the high level of training required to grasp these methods, however, rational planning fails to provide an avenue for public participation. In both theory and practice, this shortcoming opened rational planning to claims of elitism and social insensitivity. In keeping with the rising power of industry, the source of planning authority in the Sanitary Movement included both traditional governmental offices and private development corporations. In London and its surrounding suburbs, cooperation between these two entities created a network of new communities clustered around the expanding rail system. In both communities, architects Raymond Unwin and Richard Barry Parker exemplify the elite, top-down approach associated with the rational planning movement by using the planning process to establish a uniform landscape and architectural style based on an idealized medieval village. From Britain, the rational planning movement spread out across the world. In areas undergoing industrialization themselves, British influences combined with local movements to create unique reinterpretations of the rational planning process. Together, these two factors yielded the influential planning aesthetic known as "Tower in the Park". In the United States, Frank Lloyd Wright similarly identified vehicular mobility as a principal planning metric. However, where Le Corbusier emphasized design through quantitative assessment of spatial processes, Wright identified the insights of local public technicians as the key design criteria. Throughout both the United States and Europe, the rational planning movement declined in the later half of the 20th century. By focusing so much on design by technical elites, rational planning lost touch with the public it hoped to serve. Key events in this decline in the United States include the demolition of the Pruitt-Igoe housing project in St. Louis and the national backlash against urban renewal projects, particularly urban expressway projects. Lane describes synoptic planning as having four central elements: However, the problem was that the idea of a single public interest still dominated attitudes, effectively devaluing the importance of participation because it suggests the idea that the public interest is relatively easy to find and only requires the most minimal form of participation. The rational model is perhaps the most widely accepted model among planning practitioners and scholars, and is considered by many to be the orthodox view of planning. As its name clearly suggests, the goal of the rational model is to make planning as rational and systematic as possible. Proponents of this paradigm would generally come up with a list of steps that the planning process can be at least relatively neatly sorted out into and that planning practitioners should go through in order when setting out to plan in virtually any area. As noted above, this paradigm has clear implications for public involvement in planning decisions. It is often considered as part of community development. In addition, marginalized groups have an opportunity to participate in the planning process. This incremental approach meant choosing from small number of policy approaches that can only have a small number consequences and are firmly bounded by reality, constantly adjusting the objectives of the planning process and using multiple analyses and evaluations. Etzioni suggested that organizations plan on two different levels: He posited that organizations could accomplish this by essentially scanning the environment on multiple levels and then choose different strategies and tactics to address what they found there. By the late s and early s, planners began to look for new approaches because as happened nearly a decade before, it was realized that the current models were not necessarily sufficient. As had happened before, a number of different

models emerged. Lane notes that it is most useful to think of these model as emerging from a social transformation planning tradition as opposed to a social guidance one, so the emphasis is more bottom-up in nature than it is top-down. Instead of considering public participation as method that would be used in addition to the normal training planning process, participation was a central goal. For the first time, the public was encouraged to take on an active role in the policy setting process, while the planner took on the role of a distributor of information and a feedback source. One of the central goals is mutual learning where the planner gets more information on the community and citizens become more educated about planning issues. It concerns itself with ensuring that all people are equally represented in the planning process by advocating for the interests of the underprivileged and seeking social change. A plurality of public interests is assumed, and the role of planner is essentially the one as a facilitator who either advocates directly for underrepresented groups directly or encourages them to become part of the process. Grabow and Heskin provided a critique of planning as elitist, centralizing and change-resistant, and proposed a new paradigm based upon systems change, decentralization, communal society, facilitation of human development and a consideration of ecology. Bargaining model[edit] The bargaining model views planning as the result of give and take on the part of a number of interests who are all involved in the process. It argues that this bargaining is the best way to conduct planning within the bounds of legal and political institutions. Decisions are made first and foremost by the public, and the planner plays a more minor role. Communicative planning The communicative approach to planning is perhaps the most difficult to explain. It focuses on using communication to help different interests in the process understand each other. The idea is that each individual will approach a conversation with his or her own subjective experience in mind and that from that conservation shared goals and possibilities will emerge. Again, participation plays a central role under this model. The model seeks to include as a broad range of voice to enhance the debate and negotiation that is supposed to form the core of actual plan making. In this model, participation is actually fundamental to the planning process happening. Without the involvement of concerned interests there is no planning. In fact, public participation is largely influenced by how planning is defined, how planning problems are defined, the kinds of knowledge that planners choose to employ and how the planning context is set. Prior to , Urban Planning was seldom considered a unique profession in Canada. Town planning focused on top-down processes by which the urban planner created the plans. The planner would know architecture, surveying, or engineering, bringing to the town planning process ideals based on these disciplines. They typically worked for national or local governments. Urban planners were seen as generalists, capable of integrating the work of other disciplines into a coherent plan for whole cities or parts of cities. A good example of this kind of planner was Lewis Keeble and his standard textbook, Principles and Practice of Town and Country Planning, published in Community organizers and social workers are now very involved in planning from the grassroots level. Many recent developments were results of large and small-scale developers who purchased land, designed the district and constructed the development from scratch. The Melbourne Docklands , for example, was largely an initiative pushed by private developers to redevelop the waterfront into a high-end residential and commercial district. Recent theories of urban planning, espoused, for example by Salingaros see the city as an adaptive system that grows according to process similar to those of plants. They say that urban planning should thus take its cues from such natural processes. The urban figure, namely buildings, are represented as total possible building volumes, which are left to be designed by architects in following stages. The urban ground, namely in-between spaces and open areas, are designed to a higher level of detail. The contents of the carrier structure may include street pattern, landscape architecture , open space, waterways, and other infrastructure. The infill structure may contain zoning , building codes , quality guidelines, and Solar Access based upon a solar envelope. In carrier-infill urban design or urban planning, the negative space of the city, including landscape, open space, and infrastructure is designed in detail. The positive space, typically building site for future construction, are only represented as unresolved volumes. The volumes are representative of the total possible building envelope, which can then be infilled by individual architects.

Chapter 2 : Theories of urban planning - Wikipedia

*Planning a Pluralist City: Conflicting Realities in Ciudad Guayana (Harvard-MIT Joint Center for Urban Studies Series) [Donald Appleyard] on calendrierdelascience.com *FREE* shipping on qualifying offers. When city planners and designers are given the ideal assignmentâ€•to build a new city in the wilderness.*

The development of urban planning Early history Evidence of planning has been unearthed in the ruins of cities in China , India , Egypt , Asia Minor , the Mediterranean world, and South and Central America. Early examples of efforts toward planned urban development include orderly street systems that are rectilinear and sometimes radial; division of a city into specialized functional quarters; development of commanding central sites for palaces, temples, and civic buildings; and advanced systems of fortification, water supply , and drainage. Most of the evidence is in smaller cities that were built in comparatively short periods as colonies. Often the central cities of ancient states grew to substantial size before they achieved governments capable of imposing controls. For several centuries during the Middle Ages , there was little building of cities in Europe. Eventually towns grew up as centres of church or feudal authority, of marketing or trade. As the urban population grew, the constriction caused by walls and fortifications led to overcrowding, the blocking out of air and light, and very poor sanitation. Certain quarters of the cities, either by custom or fiat, were restricted to different nationalities, classes, or trades, as still occurs in many contemporary cities of the developing world. The Roman settlement of Londinium, c. The physical form of medieval and Renaissance towns and cities followed the pattern of the village, spreading along a street or a crossroads in circular patterns or in irregular shapes, though rectangular patterns tended to characterize some of the newer towns. As the population of the city grew, walls were often expanded, but few cities at the time exceeded a mile in length. Paris and Venice were exceptions, reaching , Conscious attempts to plan cities reemerged in Europe during the Renaissance. Although these efforts partly aimed at improving circulation and providing military defense, their prime objective was often the glorification of a ruler or a state. From the 16th century to the end of the 18th, many cities were laid out and built with monumental splendour. The result may have pleased and inspired the citizens, but it rarely contributed to their health, to the comfort of their homes, or to efficiency in manufacturing, distribution, and marketing. The New World absorbed the planning concepts of European absolutism to only a limited degree. More influential on the layout of U. This plan traveled west with the pioneers, since it was the simplest method of dividing surveyed territory. Although it took no cognizance of topography , it facilitated the development of land markets by establishing standard-sized lots that could be easily bought and soldâ€"even sight unseen. In much of the world, city plans were based on the concept of a centrally located public space. The plans differed, however, in their prescriptions for residential development. In the United States the New England town grew around a central commons ; initially a pasture, it provided a focus of community life and a site for a meetinghouse, tavern, smithy, and shops and was later reproduced in the central squares of cities and towns throughout the country. Also from the New England town came the tradition of the freestanding single-family house that became the norm for most metropolitan areas. The central plaza, place, or square provided a focal point for European city plans as well. In contrast to American residential development, though, European domestic architecture was dominated by the attached house, while elsewhere in the world the marketplace or bazaar rather than an open space acted as the cynosure of cities. Courtyard-style domiciles characterized the Mediterranean region, while compounds of small houses fenced off from the street formed many African and Asian settlements. Page 1 of 6.

To cite this article: The accuracy of the Content should not be relied upon and should be independently verified with primary sources of information. Taylor and Francis shall not be liable for any losses, actions, claims, proceedings, demands, costs, expenses, damages, and other liabilities whatsoever or howsoever caused arising directly or indirectly in connection with, in relation to or arising out of the use of the Content. This article may be used for research, teaching, and private study purposes. Any substantial or systematic reproduction, redistribution, reselling, loan, sub-licensing, systematic supply, or distribution in any form to anyone is expressly forbidden. Appropriate policy in a democracy is determined through political debate. The right course of action is always a matter of choice, never of fact. Planners should engage in the political proccss as irdvocates of the interests of government and other groups. Intelligent choice about public policy would be aided if digerent political, social, and economic interests produced city plans. Plural plans rather than a single agency plan should be presented to the public. Politicizing the planning process re- quires that the plunning junction be located in either. The massing of voices protesting racial discrimination have roused this nation to the need to rectify racial and other social injustices. The just demand for political and social equality on the part of the Negro and the impoverished requires the public to establish the bases for a society affording equal opportunity to all citizens. The compelling need for in- telligent planning, for specification of new social goals and the means for achieving them, is manifest. The society of the future will be an urban one, and city planners will help to give it shape and content. The prospect for future planning is that of a practice which openly invites political and social values to be examined and debated. Acceptance of this position means rejection of prescriptions for planning which would have the planner act solely as a technician. It has been argued that technical studies to enlarge the informa- tion available to decision makers must take precedence over statements of goals and ideals: We have suggested that, at least in part, the city planner is better advised to start from research into the functional aspects of cities than from his own estimation of the values which he is attempting to maximize. This suggestion springs from a con- viction that at this juncture the implications of many planning decisions are poorly understood, and that no certain means are at hand by which values can be measured, ranked, and translated into the design of a metropolitan system. He is also a member of the faculty of City Planning at the Unirersity of Pennsylvania. Another argument that attempts to reduce the im- portance of attitudes and values in planning and other policy sciences is that the major public questions are themselves matters of choice between technical methods of solution. Dahl and Lindblom put forth this position at the beginning of their important textbook, Politics, Economics, and Welfare: It has become increasingly difficult for thought- ful men to find meaningful alternatives posed in the traditional choices between socialism and capitalism, planning and the free market, regulation and laissez faire, for they find their actual choices neither so simple nor so grand. Not so simple, because eco- nomic organization poses knotty problems that can only be solved by painstaking attention to technical details-how else, for example, can inflation be con- trolled? Nor so grand, because, at least in the West- ern world, most people neither can nor wish to experiment with the whole pattern of socio-economic organization to attain goals more easily won. They suggest that the major battles have been fought. The world is still in turmoil over the way in which the resources of nations are to be distributed. The justice of the present social allocation of wealth, knowledge, skill, and other social goods is clearly in debate. Solutions to questions about the share of wealth and other social commodities that should go to different classes cannot be technically derived; they must arise from social attitudes. Approp ia te planning action cannot be prescribed from a position Of value neutrality, for prescriptions are based on desired objectives. The implications of that conclusion for planning have been described else- where and will not be considered in this article. Determinations of what serves the public interest, in a society containing many diverse interest groups, are al- most always of a highly contentious nature. In perforni- ing its role of prescribing courses of action leading to future desired states, the planning profession must engage itself thoroughly and openly in the contention surround- ing political determitiation.

Moreover, planners should be able to engage in the political process as advocates of the interests both of government and of such other groups, organizations, or individuals who are concerned with proposing policies for the future development of the con7 m u n i ty. The recommendation that city planners represent and plead the plans of many interest groups is founded upon the need to establish an effective urban democracy, one in which citizens may be able to play an active role in the procrss of deciding public policy. Appropriate policy in a democracy is determined through a process of political debate. In a bureaucratic age great care must be taken that choices rcmain in the arca of public view and participation. Urban politics, in an era of increasing government activity in planning and welfare, must balance the de- mands for ever-increasing central bureaucratic control against the demands for increased concern for the unique requirements of local, specialized interests. The welfare of all and the welfare of minorities are both deserving of support; planning must be so structured and so practiced as to account for this unavoidable bifurcation of the public interest. Fair notice and hearings, production of supporting evidence, cross examination, reasoned decision are all means employed to arrive at relative truth: Due process and two- or more party political contention both rely heavily upon strong advocacy by a professional. The advocate represents an individual, group, or organization. H e affirms their position in language understandable to his client and to the decision makers he seeks to convince. If the planning process is to encourage democratic urban government then it must operate so as to include rather than exclude citizens from participating in the process. It also means that he be able to become well informed about the underlying reasons for planning proposals, and be able to respond to them in the technical language of professional planners. Why is it that no other organization within a community prepares a plan? Why is only one agency concerned with establishing both general and specific goals for community develop- ment, and with proposing the strategies and costs re- quired to effect the goals? Why are there not plural plans? If the social, economic, and political ramifications of a plan are politically contentious, then why is it that those in opposition to the agency plan do not prepare one of their own? As a matter of rationality it has been argued that all of the alternative choices open as means to the ends sought be examined. This duty has placcd too great a burden on the agency planner,: Whereas in 3 large part of our national and local political practice contention is viewed as healthy, in city planning where a large proportion of the profcssionals are public employees, contentious criticism has not always been viewed as Icgitimate. Further, where only gov- ernment prepares plans, and no minority plans are developed, pressure is often applied to bring all pro- fessionals to work for the ends espoused by a public agency. For example, last year a Federal official com- plained to a meeting of planning professors that the academic planners were not giving enough support to Federal programs. H e assumed that every planner should be on the side of the Federal renewal program. Of course government administrators will seek to gain the support of professionals outside of government, but such s u p port should not be expected as a matter of loyalty. In a democratic system opposition to a public agency should be just as normal and appropriate as support. The agency, despite the fact that it is concerned with planning, may be serving undesired ends. In presenting a plea for plural planning I do not mean to minimize the importance of the obligation of the public planning agency. It must decide upon ap- propriate future courses of action for the community. But being isolated as the only plan maker in the com- munity, public agencies as well as the public itself may have suffered from incomplete and shallow analysis of potential directions. Lively political dispute aided by plural plans could do much to improve the level of rationality in the process of preparing the public plan. The advocacy of alternative plans by interest groups outside of government would stimulate city planning in a number of ways. First, it would serve as a means of better informing the public of the alternative choices open, alternatives strongly supported by their proponents. In current practice those few agencies which have por- trayed alternatives have not been equally enthusiastic about each. However, in a system of plural planning, the public agency would be relieved of at least some of the burden of presenting alternatives. A second way in which advocacy and plural planning would improve planning practice would be in forcing the public agency to compete with other planning groups to win political support. In the absence of opposition or alternative plans presented by interest groups the public agencies have had little incentive to improve the quality of their work or the rate of production of plans. The Planner as Advocate Where plural planning is practiced, advocacy becomes the means of professional support for

competing claims about how the community should develop. Pluralism In support of political contention describes the process; advocacy describes the role performed by the professional in the process. Where unitary planning prevails, ad- vocacy is not of paramount importance, for there is little or no competition for the plan prepared by the public agency. The concept of advocacy as taken from legal practice implies the opposition of a t least two contending viewpoints in an adversary proceeding. The advocate planner would be more than a provider of information, an analyst of current trends, a simu1,ator of future conditions, and a detailer of means. In addition to carrying out these necessary parts of planning, he would be a proponent of specific substantive solutions. This does not mean that the planner could not seek to per- suade his client. In some situations persuasion might not be necessary, for. In fact one of the benefits of advocate planning is the possibility it creates for a planner to find employ- ment with agencies holding values close to his own. Today the agency planner may be dismayed by the positions affirmed by his agency, but there may be no alternative employer. The advocate planner would be above all a planner. He would be responsible to his client for preparing plans and for all of the other elements comprising the planning process. Whether working for the public agency or for some private organization, the planner would have to prepare plans that take account of the argu- ments made in other plans. It would be a document presenting the facts and reasons for supporting one set of proposals, and facts and reasons Symposium on Programming and the New Urban Planning Davidoff indicating the inferiority of counter-proposals. The ad- versary nature of plural planning might, then, have the beneficial effect of upsetting the tradition of writing plan proposals in terminology which makes them appear self-evident. A troublesome issue in contemporary planning is that of finding techniques for evaluating alternative plans. Technical devices such as cost-benefit analysis by them- selves are of little assistance without the use of means for appraising the values underlying plans. Advocate planning, by making more apparent the values under- lying plans, and by making definitions of social costs and benefits more explicit, should greatly assist the process of plan evaluation. Further, it would become clear as it is not at present that there are no neutral grounds for evaluating a plan; there are as many evalua- tive systems as there are value systems. The adversary nature of plural planning might also have a good effect on the uses of information and re- search in planning. One of the tasks of the advocate planner in discussing the plans prepared in opposition to his would be to point out the nature of the bias underlying information presented in other plans. In this way, as critic of opposition plans, he would be per- forming a task similar to the legal technique of cross-examination. While painful to the planner whose bias is exposed and no planner can be entirely free of bias the net effect of confrontation between advocates of alternative plans would be more careful and precise research. Not all the work of an advocate planner would be of an adversary nature. Much of it would be educa- tional. The advocate would have the job of informing other groups, including public agencies, of the conditions, problems, and outlook of the group he represented. Another major educational job would be that of in- forming his clients of their rights under planning and renewal laws, about the general operations of city government, and of particular programs likely to affect them. The advocate planner would devote much attention to assisting the client organization to clarify its ideas and to give expression to them. In order to make his client more powerful politically the advocate might also be- come engaged in expanding the size and scope of his client organization. Advocacy in planning has already begun to emerge as planning and renewal affect the lives of more and more people.

Chapter 4 : Pluralist â€" Progressive Planning

Cologne and Stockholm: urban planning and land-use controls / by Reuel G. Hemdahl. HT S82 S Vallingby and Farsta--from idea to reality: The suburban development process in a large Swedish city.

Introduction[edit] Advocacy planning was formulated in the s by Paul Davidoff. It is a pluralistic and inclusive planning theory where planners seek to represent the interests of various groups within society. Davidoff was an activist lawyer and planner who believed that advocacy planning was a necessary method for representing the low-income and minority groups who were not always on equal footing with the rich and powerful. Top down is characterised by its authoritative and undemocratic methods, where institutions and individuals plan without first consulting the various stakeholders who are involved with the use and development of the land. An example of this approach is colonialism in Africa during the early nineteenth century, where settlements were created simply for the purpose of exploiting workers and extracting the wealth produced by them. During this time, designers and planners were given opportunities to conceive a vision for utopian cities. These designs were a response to the rise of industrialisation in cities, which led to the working class living in dirty and often overcrowded slums. Although the vision and intention of these utopian cities was to create a society that sought to protect and preserve humanity through the built environment, this top down method of planning assumes that the values and beliefs held by the planner are the same as those that they are planning for. Many of these projects failed to achieve expectations and were instead discarded or set aside. Directly following modernism and continuing this trend of a top down approach was the post world war period of reconstruction and planning. With the war over, there was a need for social and economic reconstruction. Governments were given the task to rebuild cities that had been afflicted by the damage left behind from the war. With the rise of the technocratic experts, they were consulted to design and plan the city in a scientific, logical and rigorous manner which would produce the best outcome for all stakeholders. This disconnected and elitist approach led to the constant failure of the government to meet the needs of its citizens and was met with backlash, giving rise to alternative planning practices. Advocacy Planning[edit] Davidoff understood that not all stakeholders are equally represented and involved in the planning process. Leaving the groups of lower socioeconomic status vulnerable to the interests of larger public institutions or private companies. Without sufficient protection and care, the concerns and opinions of these individuals were left unheard and unaccounted for when developing plans. In practice advocacy planners use their experience and knowledge within the field of planning to represent the ideas and needs of their clients. These clients are often groups of lower socioeconomic standing who are unable to access the resources, tools or skills to represent themselves. Advocate planners work with these disadvantaged groups to develop plans which incorporate and preserve their social and economic needs. The plans are then produced in front of a planning commission where they consider the various pros and cons of each plan produced by other advocate planners. By employing a method of participatory planning and engaging with the wider community, this helps the public to realise that planning is not simply a process engaged by well educated men of science, rather that the best planners are the people themselves. It is the realisation that the public has the freedom and choice to develop plans according to their needs. Secondly, this ideal structure for advocacy planning allows planners to compete among themselves while representing the views of their clients. Healthy amounts of competition should in fact raise the standard and quality of planning practices and outcomes. Creating an environment that encourages positive attitudes towards constructive participation. However, simply providing a platform for expression is not always sufficient, as participatory and democratic planning requires a certain level of critical consciousness from the individual participating. Otherwise the participant may struggle to identify problems without being aware of the larger social and economic forces that influences their choices.

Chapter 5 : Advocacy planning - Wikipedia

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Chapter 7 : ADVOCACY AND PLURALISM IN PLANNING - [PDF Document]

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