

UNFINISHEDNESS OF PLACE AND THE PLACE-MAKING PROJECT

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ABSTRACT

UNFINISHEDNESS OF PLACE AND THE PLACE-MAKING PROJECT

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Since the emergence of the profession of urban design in the mid-20th century, the concept of “place” has played a significant role in the development of the surrounding discourse. However, this turn within the profession pertained to a degree of confusion when it comes to the rhetoric of placelessness and the associated place-making agenda. By not being exactly in opposition with that endeavor, this thesis attempts to suggest an alternative understanding of place through the concept of “unfinishedness of place”, suggesting that place is an inseparable entity of our existence, and that our efforts to enhance this crucial element of our daily lives are going to be endless. Within the context of this study, place is identified as a trans-historical socio-spatial phenomenon that its desideratum lies within the constant recognition, assessment and interpretation of human experience.

Keywords: place, place-making, human experience, unfinishedness

ÖZ

MEKANIN BITMEMEŞLİĞİ VE MEKAN-YAPIMI PROJESİ

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“Mekan”, 20. yüzyılın ortalarında ortaya çıkışından bu yana kentsel tasarım söyleminin geliştirilmesinde, önemli bir rol oynayan alanın konseptlerinden biridir. Bununla birlikte, alanda gerçekleşen bu dönüşüm, mekansızlık retoriği ve mekan oluşturma ile ilgili olduğu durumlarda karmaşa ile ilişkilendirilmiştir. Bu çaba ile tam olarak karşıt olmamakla birlikte, bu tez, mekanın varlığımızın ayrılmaz bir parçası olduğunu ve günlük hayatımızın bu önemli unsurunu geliştirmeye yönelik çabalarımızın sonsuz olacağını ileri sürerek, “mekanın bitmemişliği” kavramına alternatif bir anlayış ortaya koymaya çalışmaktadır. Bu çalışma bağlamında mekan, insan deneyiminin sürekli olarak tanınma, değerlendirilme ve yorumlanma ihtiyaçlarını içeren, tarih ötesi, sosyo-mekânsal bir olgu olarak tanımlanmaktadır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Mekan, Mekan Oluşturma, İnsan Deneyimi, Bitmemişliği

To My Parents and Their Parents and Their
Parents and ...

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 ORIENTATION

Since the emergence of the profession of urban design in the mid-20th century, the concept of “place” has played a significant role in the development of the surrounding discourse. This turn within the profession is pervasively associated with a presumption that different manifestations of the modern world, especially in such spatial strategies as the modern movement in architecture and urbanism, have accelerated the destruction of place. Accordingly, it has become the key task of urban designers to restore the given place of place in modern societies. In a bid to combat this associated placelessness, urban design has claimed as its endeavor the development of a place-making agenda. It has been five decades since then, and modernism is still the dominant force in the production of the physical environment, meaning that the place-making project has been unable to achieve significant results. Accordingly, questions such as: “is place destroyed?” or “do we live in a placeless world?” still persist.

Places are centers of immediate experience of the world. Although technological advancements, globalization and time-space compression have led to a different kind of sense of place, it is still argued that places are major contributors to the shaping of the symbolic and physical dimension of human identity (see Barlas, 2006). This thesis suggests that shortcomings may exist within the place-making project, and that it has yet to achieve promising results. That said, this does not mean that place has lost its significance, nor does it mean that we are no longer bonded to it. It is the intention in this thesis to put forward a new concept related to place to sit alongside the existing concepts of “lack of place”, “placelessness” and “atrophy of place”. This I would like to refer to as the “*unfinishedness of place*”, which suggests that place is

an inseparable entity of our existence, and that our efforts to enhance this crucial element of our daily lives are going to be endless.

Although the place-making sensibility finds its origin right after modernization, especially in the 20th century, it can be said that our efforts towards place-making have not been confined to any particular historical period. The human race has always strived to create better places, and will continue to do so. Through the unfinishedness of place, for those concerned with the design of places, the objective here is to highlight that the desideratum for place calls inevitably for the constant recognition, assessment and interpretation of the very essence of place by way of the human experience.

This thesis suggests that place still can be accounted as an influential phenomenon in everyday life, and also it maintains this role permanently. In this thesis, through the concept of “unfinishedness of place”, place is identified as a trans-historical socio-spatial phenomenon that addresses different dimensions and aspects of the human experience that encounters the environment either through interactions or interrelations. This thesis suggests further that, as an important manifestation of the human experience, built environment professions such as urban design can play a significant role in place-making, although their influence will always be limited and incomplete, in that the very nature of the process is endless.

This thesis sees the human experience as central to its efforts to address the above-mentioned issues, for which it makes use of theories and writings about the human experience and its relevancy to the phenomenon of place. Values, experiences, attitudes and feelings, as well as materials such as maps, pictures and stories, are all used to create a valid frame of reference for the human experience.

The thesis is set out in five chapters. The first chapter presents the general argument put forward in the thesis, while the second chapter makes a review of the general arguments related to the concept of place, in which particular focus is on the human experience and its philosophical orientation phenomenology. In this chapter it

is highlighted that through the aspect of the human experience, place can be identified as a trans-historical phenomenon that is inseparable from existence, and something that both shapes and is shaped by an array of interrelations and interactions with the environment.

Presenting an example of the perpetual relationship that exists between the human and place, the third chapter sets out to review the history of the city of Rome, analyzing its different historical stages leading up to the present day. It is certain that cities are places of places that, through an amalgam of years of human endeavor in place-making, obtain an identity, and within this chapter, a study will be made of the historical happenings, events and place-making sensibilities that led to the formation of the city of Rome.

The fourth chapter synthesizes the information garnered in the previous chapters and discusses many perspectives in a conceptualization of the main theme of this thesis –the unfinishedness of place. The conceptual perspective includes an examination of the different components that contribute to our relationship with place and place-making. It is argued in this regard that place and the meaning of place are embedded in the personal and collective experiences of the people in a given environment. Different aspects of the physical and social dimension that we may or may not be aware of under different circumstances can essentially serve as grounding for sense of place. The historical perspective drives a discussion of the temporal dimensions and the changing status of the human experience when encountering the environment. It is argued here that change is a crucial part of the human experience of place, rendering place as a fluid and dynamic concept. The professional perspective dwells mainly on the role of built environment professions in place-making, in which they are identified as part of the larger and endless process of human-place interrelations and interactions. Finally, within the fifth chapter presents the gather insights of this endeavor.

One potential limitation of this study lies in its assessment of the human experience as an important element of place. It should be said that the highly

subjective nature of the issue prevents any definitive answer to the raised questions being formulated.

Another limitation of the study relates to the assessment of the cultural and social features that contribute to place-making. The broad range of issues that are concerned with the human side of place makes it hard to identify every single detail about the process of place-making.

Furthermore, as this dissertation uses different historical surveys related to the features and circumstances of a given period, as is the case of many other historical surveys, it may lack first-hand information about the given period, in that most of the interpreted data is sourced from different historical books, images, reports and maps.

CHAPTER 2

DISCOVERY OF PLACE AND ITS LANGUAGE

Place and place-making, as the two key concepts within this study, are analyzed within this chapter to provide a frame for the rest of the thesis. In the first part, an exploration is made of the different layers and complexities that constitute the content of the concept of place, with the aim being to provide the reader with sufficient insight into the concept unfinishedness of place. The following section goes on to make an examination of the concept of place-making, in which the intention is to unpack the concept so as to clarify how the constituting elements of place can be involved in a dynamic process of creation.

As mentioned previously, the aspect of human experience is central to this work, and so this chapter also presents a study of the relevant literature of place with this aspect in mind. The conceptualization of place from the perspective of human experience is associated directly with the “phenomenological” orientation, and so this chapter draws deeply from the philosophical tradition. Arguably, the concept of place has been one of the most disputed concepts within the chain of knowledge, and a wide range of arguments exist related to this topic. While focusing on the phenomenological discourse of place, this chapter also benefits from other related arguments in a bid to interpret and theorize on the different manifestations of the human experience.

2.1 DEFINING PLACE

Man has always sought to define and explore his environment. Assigning a specific term to a specific spatial phenomenon is one of the basic elements of this effort, with the ultimate aim being to gain formal knowledge of the given phenomenon. Words such as space, location, area, property, territory, landscape, region and place are all cases in point, and if one were to ask which of these deserves

the most credit in the attainment of more sophisticated knowledge, arguably place ranks among the highest.

The discovery of place forms part of our knowledge of spatial phenomena. Place has long been an important theme of investigation, primarily in the humanities sphere and its allied professions, and its origins date back to approximately the first century AD. That said, it was not until the 1960s and 1970s that it took on a unique form and acquired considerable consistency, and began to be addressed regularly by intellectuals, thinkers and practitioners, as it continues to be so today. It should be mentioned that it is the disciplines of philosophy and geography that are the most important contributors to the unravelling of this concept, as it was not until the mid-to late-20th century that other branches took notice, including those related to architecture, planning, environmental behavior, psychology and social sciences.

Although there is a familiarity with the term “place”, it should be mentioned that it has always been surrounded by a certain degree of ambiguity, part of which is related to the fact that “place” does not lend itself to a singular and precise definition (Arefi, 1999) (Cresswell, 2004). Geographer Tim Cresswell claims that “place is not an academic piece of a terminology”, being a word with a variety of implications, and not just in everyday spoken language, but also in a broad variety of professional disciplines. Likewise, Hayden refers to “place” as “one of the trickiest words in the English language: a suitcase so overfilled one can never shut the lid” (1995, p. 15). The etymological roots of the word demonstrate that place is associated with “notions of spatiality and openness”, being derived from “classical Latin Plateau” and “Greek Plateia”, meaning both “broad way” and “open space” (Malpas, 1999, p. 22).

With reference to the basic meaning of the word, the concept has been addressed and developed primarily in the fields of philosophy and geography, and in other disciplines that concern human-environment interrelations. According to a summary provided by Cresswell (2004, pp. 7-8) in reference to the development of the discourse, place has, on the whole, come to imply “a meaningful location”, which he

refers to as “the most straight-forward and common definition of place”. Citing geographer John Agnew’s (1978) three-part definition, Cresswell puts forward “location”, “locale” and “sense of place” as fundamental aspects of its meaning that, he suggests, can account for most of the definitions of place.

For location, Cresswell argues that places are usually distinguished as located entities that can be mapped in terms of scale: “They have fixed objective coordinates on the Earth’s surface”, “New York is ‘here’ and Kosovo is ‘there’.” For locale, Cresswell claims that places can also be distinguished as stages for human interaction that may not necessarily be stationary, and puts forward the example of a ship, which “may become a special kind of place for people who share it on a long voyage, even though its location is constantly changing”. Cresswell cites Agnew’s definition of locale as “the material setting for social relations – the actual shape of place within which people conduct their lives”. Finally, Cresswell states that sense of place relates more to the human condition – the way that places and humans become involved in a relationship – and suggests that this relationship can be seen as “the subjective and emotional attachment people have to place” in order to “produce and consume meaning.” Arefi, using a different terminology, makes a further examination of this three-part definition:

“Locale primarily deals with social relations, while location emphasizes how economic transactions shape and affect the conception of place. Sense of place, however, examines people's ties and attachment to their places, or what some have called the ‘structure of feeling’.” (1999, p. 180)

The exploration of place as a meaningful location has a long history within the chain of knowledge. The philosophy of place has its roots in Ancient Greece, most notably, as place philosopher Edward Casey asserts (1997), with Aristotle (384–322 B.C.). Dovey claims that place from this perspective was seen as “a form of

ontological¹ ground, a view of place that is inseparable from being or existence – to exist is to exist in a place” (2010, p, 4). In what Webber suggests is “the oldest preserved written statements on city-planning”, Vitruvius, the noted pioneer in the architectural and engineering fields, used “place” when referring to “the idea of city” in the first century B.C. (1964, pp. 147-148). In the case of the knowledge of geography, which is referred to by many as the most influential contributor to the exploration and introduction of the idea of place, historian geographer Strabo, in the first century A.D., urged his fellow geographers to study different parts of the earth as man-made and natural “places” (Cresswell, 2004) (Relph, 1976).

As part of the study of spatial phenomena, the exploration of place demands different approaches and methods. Among the most influential and early inquiries, two main approaches, being empirical and positivistic, can be mentioned here (Cresswell, 2004). Empirical research has long history within this knowledge field, with documentation and classification of such features such as climate, topography, physical landscape, demographics culture and economic conditions being among the important themes of investigation in this regard (Altman & Low, 1992). Positivistic and objective approaches, on the other hand, are based on statistics and mathematical inquiries, and can provide substantial knowledge on any given phenomena. Together, these two approaches have done much to influence the study of spatial phenomena (Cresswell, 2004) (Entrikin, 1976) (Hubbard & Kitchen, 2010).

That said, many place thinkers and commentators assert that place is a concept that has not been given due consideration throughout the course of the history, and has yet to be subjected to detailed study (Cresswell, 2004) (Tuan, 1977) (Seamon & Sowers, 2008) (Casey, 1997) (Ley, 1978) (Relph, 1976).

Interest in the idea of place can be traced to the dawn of humanistic approaches after the mid-20th century, and especially the 1970s, and the reasons for rise in

¹ “The philosophical study of being in general, or of what applies neutrally to everything that is real. It was called “first philosophy” by Aristotle in Book IV of his *Metaphysics*.” (Simons, 2014)

interest may vary according to different perspectives. The major motivation for the new-found interest in place and its inauguration as a central concept in related disciplines, according to many, lay in the pervasive dissatisfaction with the new conditions that dominated human-environment interrelations and their supporting agencies in the 20th century (Aravot, 2002) (Carmona & et al, 2010) (Ellin, 1996) (Harvey, 1993) (Arefi, 1999). The critical tone of place literature, the introspection of leading approaches in respective fields or the application of new methods and epistemologies in approaching the spatial phenomena, and the emphasis on the importance of place and its potency can be listed as important denominators in place literature after the 1970s.

Emphasizing the need to make a subjective consideration of spatial phenomena, the aspects of “experience and meaning” became central to the exploration of place, and from the 1970s onwards, came to account for the “majority” of place literature (Cresswell, 2004, p. 12). In employing new philosophies of science that prioritize human subjectivity (most prominently, phenomenology), place became one of the central arguments for those who adhered to humanistic conceptions. As an example, from the field of geography, J. Nicholas Entrikin, as an early commentator on the discourse of place, in 1976 stated:

“Contemporary humanism in geography emphasizes the study of meanings, values, goals, and purposes. Within this humanist perspective concepts of traditional significance in geography are given existential meanings. For example, place is defined as a center of meaning or a focus of human emotional attachment. The humanist approach is defined by its proponents in geography and in other human sciences as a reaction against what they believe to be an overly objective, narrow, mechanistic and deterministic view of man presented in much of the contemporary research in the human sciences.” (p.616)

Experiential data such as human perception, social beliefs and norms, values and meanings have come to be essential aspects in explorations of the idea of place. Subtle² observations of people's lives in multiple places, especially at small scales that can be distinguished in reference to the personal and also collective world of people, is a shared foundation of place literature. In describing locations, which may not necessarily be fixed or even real, personal examples (experiences) of writers, travelers' accounts, poems, real stories, examples of movies, pictures, paintings and the like are all important resources, and are common to many place accounts.

Today, explorations of place utilize these two distinct philosophies, as both objective and subjective approaches. There is a concurrence that a multi-dimensional exploration of place is necessary when seeking to understand the complexity of the phenomenon of place. Nevertheless, it should be mentioned that the discourse related to place finds its roots in subjective approaches. This issue finds a central point in the consensus of the academic community, in that place, at its very heart, is a concept that is based on aspects of human experience and meaning. This is the initial stage in the consideration of place, and is important for the main argument of this dissertation in its attempt to explain the concept of unfinishedness of place.

2.2 PLACE AND EXPERIENCE

The aspect of experience is central to the conception and identification of place. Within this approach, place can be defined as a central element of the everyday life of human beings, an inseparable entity from existence, shaped and shaping as a result of different human-environment interactions and interrelations. The term "unfinishedness of place" derives its meaning directly from this definition.

To begin with, drawing upon the aspect of human experience leads us to come up with a coherent definition of place. Our daily lives take place in different meaningful spaces or locations within the environment in which we live, and it is from here that

² Relph uses this adjective in his observations and explorations of place

we draw our immediate experiences. These spaces, based on the functions or meanings ascribing to them, can be said to shape our mundane and spiritual world. As asserted by Relph (1976), an influential pioneer of place, place is an aspect of “the lived-world”; a world that is made up of “the settings and situations we live in, know and experience directly in going about day to day activities” (p. i). In elucidating his view, Relph brings together four main senses that are possessed by places within the geographical context:³

“First, it has been used to refer to the entire surface of the earth, as for instance in the idea of the earth as the place of man. Second, it has been used to refer to a unit of space such as a city, province, or country, in which sense it cannot be clearly differentiated from ‘region’. Third, it has been used to refer to a particular and specific part of space and to what may occupy that space, “as when we think of our place of residence as being a particular building or talk of a place of worship or a place of amusement”. Finally, place has been used to mean ‘location’ in the sense of exact position, although strictly location is more specific than place, for “place is made up of a number of things that can be specifically located” (pp. 3-4).

Relph underlines that the third of these senses possess a considerable intensity of meaningfulness in reference to the actual places where people “experience” the world in which they live, which are shaped both through and with them as places where, he cites, “we work, relax and sleep” (p. 1),

“In the third of these senses is there something distinctive about the idea of place, for in this meaning place appears to possess some “perceptual unity” that is given to it by our experiences with unique and real places.” (p. 4)

³ In attempt to conceptualize place, Relph (1976, p. 3) refers to two previous works in the field of geography: May (1970), who made an analysis of the concept of place as used by Lukerman (1964), and Cresswell (2004, p. 18), who claims Lukerman should be credited with the first attempts in the conceptualization of place in the field.

By emphasizing the aspects of “subjectivity and experience”, place can be seen as a “universal and transhistorical part of the human condition”, standing rightfully beside other metaphysical concepts of space and time as basic orientations of the human understanding of the world (Cresswell, 2004, p. 20). The capacity to experience is a shared agent by all human beings, and when it comes to the spatial world in which we live, place is the frontier of our immediate experience of the external world. According to Tuan:

“Experience is a cover-all term for the various modes through which a person knows and constructs a reality. These modes range from the more direct and passive senses of smell, taste, and touch, to active visual perception and the indirect mode of symbolization.” (1977, p. 8)

Summarizing the extended body of place literature related specifically to the aspect of experience, Bull claims that place is a concept that rests heavily on three facets of the human experience, being “human perception, interaction and interpretation” (2008, p. 52). Existing studies of place make a variety of elucidations related to the role of human sensorial and corporeal inputs, and besides the written and oral narrations regarding the spatial phenomena that have “place” at its center, perceptions of the individual of life events, situations and objects have been highlighted as valid demonstrations of the human experience and meaning.

Within such conceptions, the phenomenological term “life-world”⁴ is frequently evoked as the point from which explorations of place begin. Specifically, the concept refers to an aspect of an individual’s life that is determined by direct and immediate experiences. Here, place emerges as the spatial dimension of the life-world as an entity that is inseparable from existence. Christian Norberg-Schultz, the noted architect-phenomenologist, claims that life-world comprises both “tangible” and

⁴ The concept is also referred to as “lived-world” or “everyday life”

“intangible” “phenomena”⁵ that constitute “the content of our existence” (1980, p. 6). Using the term “place” to refer to the “environment” of this “given world”, he goes on to claim that it is “meaningless to imagine any happening without reference to a locality, place is evidently an integral part of existence” (ibid).

In the same vein, Malpas sees place as a “sort of fundamental ontological inquiry”, while Entrikin claims that “(p)lace presents itself to us as a condition of human experience. As agents in the world we are always ‘in place’, as much as we are always ‘in culture’” (Malpas 1999, p. 15) (Entrikin 1991, p. 6). Following on from Tuan, Cresswell asserts that “through human perception and experience we get to know the world through places” (2004, p. 20), while Casey offers a stronger impression of this remark within the discourse:

“We are immersed in it and could not do without it. To be at all-to exist in any way is to be somewhere, and to be somewhere is to be in some kind of place. Place is as requisite as the air we breathe, the ground on which we stand, the bodies we have. We are surrounded by places. We walk over and through them. We live in places, relate to others in them, die in them. Nothing we do is unplaced.” (1997, p. ix)

The celebration of subjectivity and experience is associated directly with the “phenomenological” approach that has been used explicitly and implicitly by many place pioneers, and also the developers of the idea (Malpas, 1999) (Bull, 2008) (Cresswell, 2004) (Seamon & Mugerauer, 2000) (Ley, 1978) (Entrikin, 1976) (Castello, 2010). The influence of this philosophical orientation is pervasive within the discourse, and accordingly a brief overview of this orientation may shed light on the core thoughts through which the discourse has established its grounding.

⁵ As an illustration of these phenomena, Schulz claims: “It consists of people, of animals, of flowers, trees and forests, of stone, earth, wood and water, of towns, streets and houses, doors, windows and furniture. And it consists of sun, moon and stars, of drifting clouds, of night and day and changing seasons. But it also comprises more intangible phenomena such as feelings.”

Probably the most important role of phenomenology may lie in its epistemological contribution, which tends to make a room for experiential data in an exploration of the phenomena. Founded in the work of German philosopher Edmund Husserl (1859–1938), phenomenology takes the “intentionality” or “aboutness” of the “human consciousness” as its central subject (Mallgarve, 2005, p. 369) (Cresswell, 2004, p. 22). The intentionality of human consciousness, in this tradition, is based on the central assumption that consciousness is always bounded inside the world of immediate experience and emergent meaning; that is to say “we cannot (phenomenologists would argue) be conscious without being conscious of something” (Cresswell, 2004, 22). Dovey claims that the “Fundamental to the phenomenological position in philosophy is that one cannot presuppose a world prior to our lived experience of it” (2002, p. 39). In accordance with this philosophical orientation, “experiences” (the subjective nature of something) can be interpreted as distinguishable things or objects, and so they can be investigated as they appear to the consciousness (Enrikin, 1976,) (Seamon, 2000) (Holloway and Hubbard, 2001).

“Any object, event, situation or experience that a person can see, hear, touch, smell, taste, feel, intuit, know, understand, or live through is a legitimate topic for phenomenological investigation. There can be a phenomenology of light, of color, of architecture, of landscape, of place ... of jealousy ... of economy, of sociability, and so forth. All of these things are phenomena because human beings can experience, encounter, or live through them in some way.” (Seamon & Mugerauer, 2000, p. 3)

Seamon, a phenomenologist, suggests that phenomenology can be seen as “radical empiricism”, and prioritizes the investigation of the “life-world” as the main concern from which the held theories, hypothesis, metrics or any *a priori* concepts are cut off, to a certain extent. Based on this aspect of phenomenology, Enrikin supports the idea of “radical doubt”, while Schulz puts his weight behind the famous

phenomenological slogan “return to things”,⁶ adding that phenomenology can be conceived “as opposed to abstractions and mental constructions” (Enrikin, 1976, p. 616) (Schulz, 1980, p. 8).

“Phenomenology does indeed have to do with pre-scientific experience ... Phenomenology is a way of thinking that enables us to see clearly some-thing that is, in effect, right before our eyes yet somehow obscured from us something so taken for granted that it is ignored or allowed to be disguised by a cloak of abstractions (Seamon & Mugerauer, 2000, p. 6)

Investigating the influence of phenomenological orientation within the discourse, Cresswell claims that place, based on this argument, can be conceptualized as a “universal and transhistorical part of human condition”, and that its exploration goes beyond a mere empirical categorization in accordance with the prevailing physical features, economic condition and even culture (2004, pp. 16-23). He highlights the key phenomenological term “essence” in reference to the emphasis placed on subjectivity and experience by the place pioneers, and states:

“An essence is what makes something what it is. So rather than asking what this place or that place is like, the phenomenological approach to place asks what makes a place a place? What is it that the corner of a child’s room shares with an urban garden or Kosovo? Clearly this is not an interest in the particular but a rather grand investigation of a central component of the human world.” (p. 20)

It is worth noting here another prominent figure within the discourse, existential philosopher Martin Heidegger (1889–1976), who greatly influenced the work of many place pioneers through such writings as *Being and Time*⁷, and *Building*,

⁶ This can be written also as “... to the things themselves” (Wollan, 2003, p. 31)

⁷ Originally published in 1927 (in German), and translated by John Macquarrie and Edward Robinson in 1962.

Dwelling, Thinking⁸ (Harvey, 1993) (Aravot, 2002) (Cresswell, 2004) (Seamon, 2000) (See, for instance, Relph 1976, pp. 1, 17; Tuan 1977, p. 164; Schulz, 1980, p. 5; Schulz 1985, p. 17). Associated with seminal philosophical works on the idea of place, Heidegger's contribution is manifested through his "spatial ontology of being-in-the-world" (Dovey, 2010, p. 4). Within the phenomenological orientation, Heidegger transcends the studies of intentionality and related arguments to provide a deeper understanding of the human reality (consider the notion of essence and the existential argument about the place discussed above).

Heidegger claimed that "people" and the "world" are not separate entities that interact, but rather that they are "intimately caught up in and immersed", as summarized by Seamon (2000). This condition is regarded as given, and is inherently situated within the spatial world but can be concealed from direct observation and interpretations of everyday experiences. The notion of "Dasein" that is central to Heidegger's argument is referred to by many place pioneers when speculating on the greater significance of place for humanity. Dasein has been defined on different occasions as having an approximate meaning of "dwelling"⁹ "being" or "way of being".¹⁰

"He pursues a phenomenological account of Dasein (literally 'being there') – that is, the human entity 'thrown' into a world of moods and situations, always projecting itself into the future while experiencing a multitude of everyday concerns."
(Mallgarve, 2005, p. 379)

For Heidegger, Dasein is concerned with "the very essence of existence – the way humans exist in the world", and as Cresswell suggests, this denotes the inception of

⁸ Originally a lecture presented in 1951. This essay is included in the translated collection of Heidegger's works under the title "Poetry, Language, Thought" by Albert Hofstadter (1971).

⁹ Cresswell highlights this meaning of the Dasein, while Christian Norberg-Schulz and Edward Relph are two pioneers who wrote extensively and explicitly about this notion

¹⁰ Mostly referred as "being-in-the-world", which is often cited in phenomenological rhetoric of place. See Heidegger's "Philosophy of Space and Place" by Gjermund Wollan (2003)

an array of transcendental conceptions over the idea of place.¹¹ In several of his writings, Heidegger uses sources such as poetry and imaginary illustrations to demonstrate how the human condition is intertwined spatially, but is also, to a great extent, identified and orientated by places (Schulz, 1980) (Schulz, 1985) (Relph, 1976). His famous illustration of a cabin in the “Black Forest” is often used to convey his point in this regard (Cresswell, 2004) (Harvey, 1993) (Beidler, 2007),

“Here the self-sufficiency of the power to let earth and heaven, divinities and mortals enter in simple oneness into things, ordered the house. It places the farm on the wind sheltered slope looking south, among the meadows close to the spring. It gave it the wide overhanging shingle roof whose proper slope bears up under the burden of snow, and which, reaching deep down, shields the chambers against the storms of the long winter nights. It did not forget the altar corner behind the community [sic] table; it made room in its chamber for the hallowed places of childbed and the ‘tree of the dead’ – for that is what they called a coffin there, the Totenbaum – and in this way it designed for the different generations under one roof the character of their journey [sic] through time. A craft which itself sprung from dwelling, still uses its tools and frames as things, built the farmhouse” (Heidegger, 1971, p. 166, cited in Cresswell, 2004, p21).

2.2.1 DIMENSIONS OF PLACE

Place necessarily acquires multiple layers and complexities in order to address the different aspects and issues that shape the human experience of place. Generally, space and meaning are considered to be the main dimensions through which the human experience of place can be mapped through several components.

2.2.1.1 SPACE

The issue of space is foundational to the understanding of place. Hubbard & Kitchen cite that the concepts of space and place are the building blocks of

¹¹ It is hard to differentiate the influence of Heidegger over the idea of place especially within the discovery phase as the arguments of Heidegger and the subsequent writers on his idea are highly intertwined with what place should be rather than what place is.

geographical thinking which are greatly influenced the orientation of the field within its long history (2010). Najafi & Sharif notes that within the architecture and urban design context the definition of place is mostly associated with the comparison of the concepts of space and place (2011). Tuan suggests the both concepts require each other for definition and Relph emphasizes that through the conception of space we get to know different meanings of place (1977) (1976).

Space is one of the highly debatable concepts within the chain of knowledge and it cannot be defined in a coherent fashion. Madanipour (1996, pp. 4-31) notes this in part confusion about space in its numerous meanings as he points to Oxford English Dictionary giving no fewer than 19 meanings while some aspects of these meanings such as “continuous expanse in which things exist and move”, an “amount of this taken by a particular thing or available for particular purpose”, and an “interval between points or objects” centered within the common-sense. Continuing Madanipour argues that space is deemed through two main “absolute” or “relational” theories. Absolute space (and time) is regarded as “real things” being outside of our subjectivity as “containers or infinite extension or duration” which their behavior can be uncovered by physical laws (developed by classical physics notably Isaac Newton). The relational theory, however, presupposes that space can be identify and reflected upon only through human subjectivity. From human point of view space in just like another thing subjected to the way we experience and perceive it and way we represent it as for instance we use connotation for space such as “Physical and social space”, “mental and real space”, “abstract and differential space”, “space and mass” and “space and place”.

The development of the discourse of place can be seen as the progression of the relational theory (as also with awaking in physics) about space. Cresswell (2004, p. 20) cites that the development of the discourse of place was born out of the dichotomy of these viewpoints about space. He explains before 1970s by the emergence of “spatial science” the long held view about space as “the absolute,

unlimited and universal”¹² take on a new emphasize. Through this view space conceptualized for “the nomothetic or generalizing impulse of science”¹³

“Space was given the role of developing scientific law-like generalizations. In order to make this work people had to be removed from scene. Space was not embodied but empty. This empty space could then be used to develop a kind of spatial mathematics – geometry.”

In criticizing this one-sided and absolute conception of space the discourse of place puts it’s emphasize on experiential dimension of space. Nevertheless, this should not make confusion; space is an essential element of place although that it generally deemed to be more abstract concept than place. In his influential book *Space and Place: the Perspective of Experience* (1977) Tuan articulates his contribution as complementary for this work of science in the 1970’s by emphasizing on “experiential data” over quantification as he writes more recently

“If in every instance geographers insist on precision and quantifiability at the expense of a roundness of view and resonance, they can never hope to understand the earth as home.” (1991, p. 106).

And also he goes on to say,

“"Space" is more abstract than "place." ... Space becomes place as we get to know it better and endow it with value. ... The ideas "space" and "place" require each other for definition. From the security and stability of place we are aware of the openness,

¹² Creswell made his point by using this quotation by Arturo Escobar:

“Since Plato, Western philosophy – often times with the help of theology and physics – has enshrined space as the absolute, unlimited and universal, while banning place to the realm of the particular, the limited, the local and the bound” (2001, 143).

¹³ Creswell on this issue mentions that “central place theory” was the only theory where the term “place” appeared as “locations where particular functions, services and population were concentrated”. German geographer Walter Christaller (1966) was the main developer of this idea which is also famous in planning context for modeling of urban systems.

freedom, and threat of space, and vice versa. Furthermore, if we think of space as that which allows movement then place is pause; each pause in movement makes it possible for location to be transformed into place.” (1977, p. 6)

Place can ultimately defined as particular spatial experience. Space is fundamental to the existence of place as it provides both conceptual and experiential context for place. Relph cites that by designating immediate experience at one extreme and abstract thought at the other there can be identified several corresponding spaces to each level of awareness, experiences, ideas and activities. See for instance how Edmund Bacon (1967, p. 15) captures this extensive range,

“Awareness of space goes far beyond cerebral activity. It engages the full range of senses and feelings, requiring involvement of the whole self to make a full response to it possible. The human organism progresses in its capacity to perceive space from spaceless embryonic state, through the limited space exploration of the infant, to the primarily two-dimensional exploration of the crawling child, and finally to the bodily leap into space essential to the athlete’s skill and the dancer’s art. There is an intellectual parallel of deepening perception which is based on becoming connected with larger and larger systems.”



Diagram 2-1: Spatial experience

Based on the Relph’s and Tuan’s idea (1976, pp. 8-29) (1977). The difference between acts of knowing and knowing about can portray the division of direct and indirect experience of spatial phenomena. While the act of “knowing” stands for direct and immediate involvement of human with space, the act of “knowing about” stands for abstract conception of space as it can appear through maps, statistics, theories and other means.

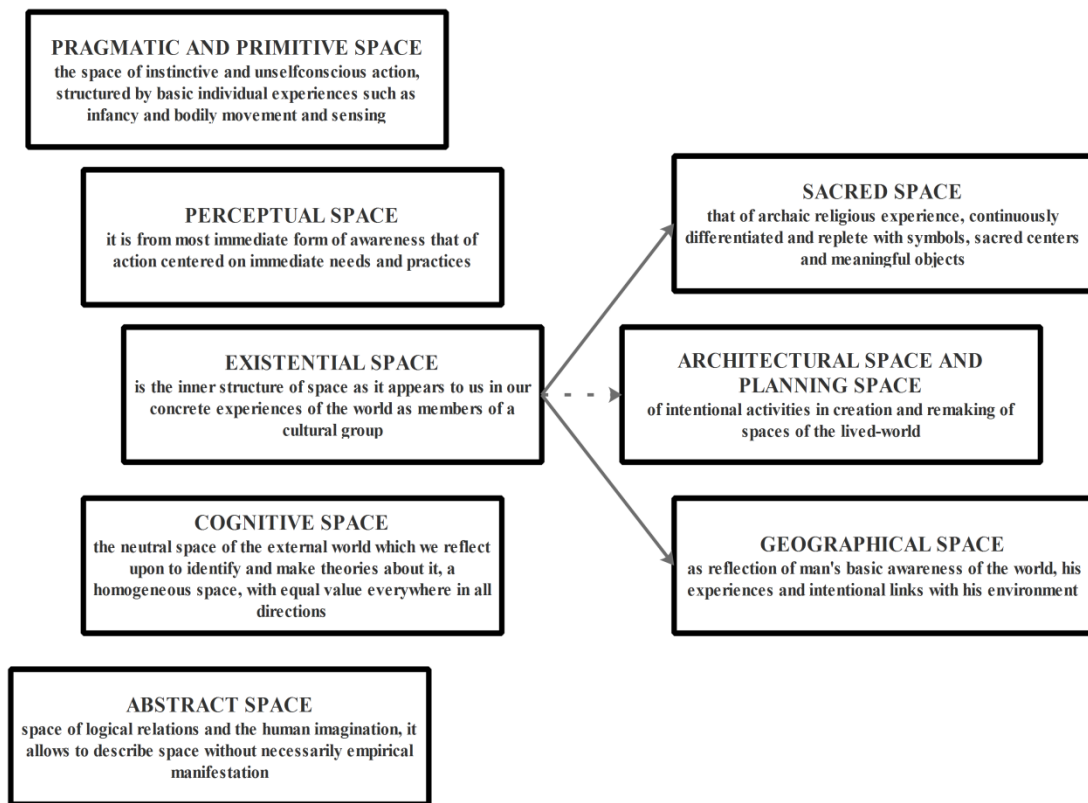


Diagram 2-2: Dimensions of space from experiential perspective, based on the Relph's idea (1976, pp. 8-29)

Within this continuum of importance is the existential space or lived- space. It is a space corresponding to the ways we organize our beings either individually or collectively through array of interactions and interrelations with physical world around us. Man-made and natural landscapes as well as physical features, objects and artifacts as given or deliberately created phenomenon here can take on specific or symbolic meanings. It is a space which can be identified as space of places. The space of place is a concrete and three-dimensional space which is caused by active engagement of man with the environment. This interrelationship can take on different aspects comprising the act of naming of places, assigning different activities to them through to their production, destruction and reproduction. This particular space can possess different forms, shapes and volume texture, color and durability of physical material through different scales (Tuan, 1977).

Schulz (1980) emphasizes both human and natural landscapes and their interactions must be considered in identification of space of places. For that, human

habitat is dependent to what is affording by the given location. Natural features such as climate, light condition and the topography of the earth's surface, physical features such as construction materials, cultural driven symbols and objects as well as variety of activities are important materials in defining locations. They designate, identify, orient and ultimately give meaning to different scales of place.

The space of place evokes human intentions, values and meanings so as it corresponds to basic needs and desires (Tuan, 1977). Human activity is important aspect of this space. Through the variety of human activities and institutions the space of place is constantly being created and remade. Human settlements from a house to a whole city the space of place can be identified as an interconnected network of locations in varying scales.

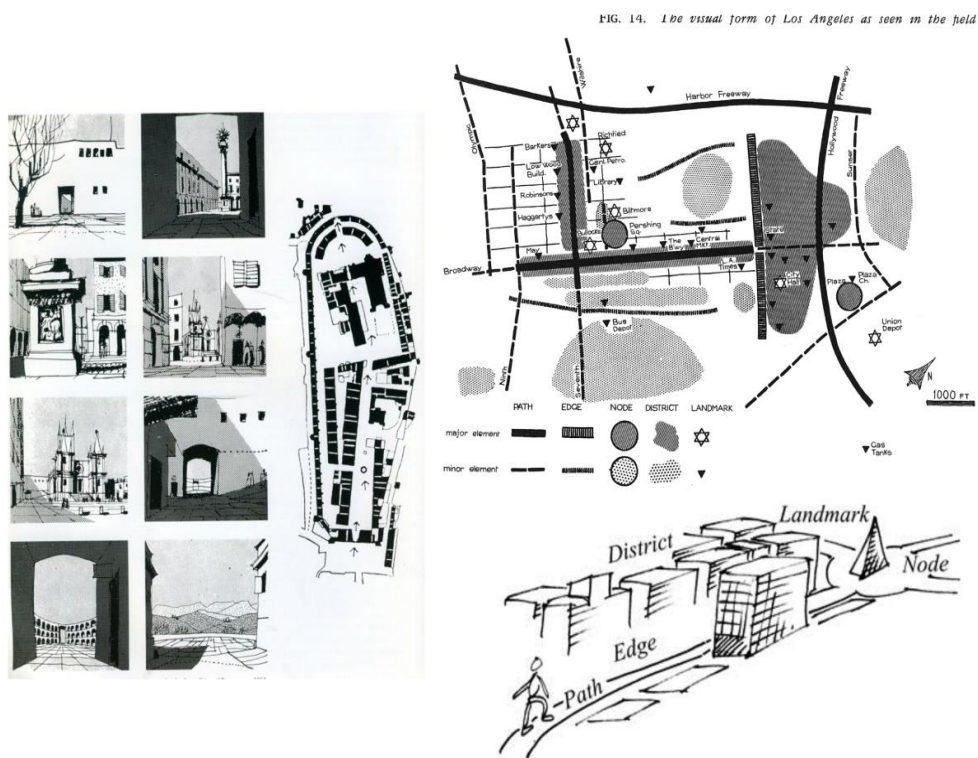


Figure 2-1: Some representations of space of places used by Gurdon Cullen's serial vision (1961) (left) and Kevin Lynch's five spatial elements (1960) (right)

Space is the domain through which built environment professions find their field of activity. By translating human values and intentions into the physical form they

can ground sense of place. Built environment as deliberately created space provides perceptual contribution as it can impinge upon human senses, feelings and emotions. Furthermore, landscapes are also capable of eliciting ideas and history through distant memories and they may articulate social order, instruct and even teach (Tuan, 1977) (Schulz, 1980).

2.2.1.2 MEANING

Feelings, thoughts, emotions, intentions, beliefs, social context, memories and experiences constitute our world of meanings. It is a given that human beings will produce and consume meaning out of the myriad of interrelations and interactions that occur in their personal and collective lives, and to understand place, it is crucial to consider that our relationship with our surroundings is also meaningful. Meaning and place are two inseparable concepts that serve as the basis for the association between the phenomenon of place and the concept of unfinishedness. From day zero up until the present day, and then continuing into the future, the world of meaning is an endless arena through which place finds its definition.

“It seems a commonplace that almost everyone is born with the need for identification with his surroundings and a relationship to them with the need to be in a recognizable place. So sense of place is not a fine art extra, it is something we cannot afford to do without.” (Nairn, 1965, p. 6, cited in Relph, 1976, p. 63)

Emphasize on the dimension of meaning has been central to the conception of place since the 1970s. In every context and in different disciplines place is introduced as a meaningful component of people’s everyday life. To denote meaningful it is supposed to associate all the aspects which can influence our relationship with environment (including the dimension of space). This is of course a hard task to accomplish, but in fact it must emphasized that the discourse of place since its inauguration has been directed toward this goal (Tuan, 1977) (Schulz, 1980)

(Schulz, 1980) (Relph, 1976) (Lynch, 1960), an effort which still in progress (Arefi, 2014).

In capturing this dimension the different viewpoints of individuals and groups of people so as the larger context of social aspects plays a significant role,

“The idea of meaning has been central to notions of place since the 1970s Location became place when it became meaningful. Meanings can be very personal and connected to individuals and their personal biographies – places where we fell in love, or where loved ones are buried, or where we went to school. But meanings are also shared and, in some important ways, social.” (Cresswell, 2009, p. 169)

Meaning is a more complicated, multilayered and hard to capture dimension of place. Many emphasize that this dimension of place is a holistic concept, a gestalt that the whole is bigger than the sum. Given the subjective nature of this dimension individuals and groups of people may understand places and endow them with meaning differently. They may associate specific set of memories, personalities, preferences and socialized value in encountering place. Hence sense of place can be identified as unique as each individual, which it can be, in turn, developed by the capacities such as age, personal temperament, biological needs and cultural issues (Tuan, 1977).

Significant events, happenings and activities in everyday routine as well as memories in people’s lifetime from childhood to the elderly days can influence sense of place. It is important to note that sense of place, although considered mainly as a positive experience, can also possess negative values. Many emphasize the dialectic tensions of human emotions and feelings of place. In contrast with “a need to stay” there is also “a desire for escape”, places can result in a sense of belonging or alienation, Tuan substitute this tension in two sentiment “Topophilia” and “Topophobia”, literally meaning love of place and fear of place (1974).

People have come to experience places both consciously and unconsciously. To a degree through which people are aware about their experience and meanings of place reflects this remark. Sense of place can be reside in the back of one's mind as a taken-for-granted object, acting as a backdrop for the myriad of the interactions, events and happenings that define a given place. Sense of place also may solidify as a conscious act for that place becomes an "object of understanding and reflection" (Relph, 1976, p. 66). For instance place attachment may amplify when one feels his or her place is being threatened; another example is homesickness as sense of place awakens intensely at the point at which individuals connection with place is severed (Relph 1976)(Lynch, 1972) (Harvey, 1993).

It is possible for people to identify themselves with place differently and respond differently to different aspects of place. This indicates that there is intensity for place experience. A sense of place of a tourist can be entirely different from those of local residence. Tuan for instance argues about rootedness as a sense of home and profound attachment to place (1977). Relph also examines this with aid of dialectical concepts of "insiderness" and "outsiderness", Seamon and sowers summarizes his view in this way,

"If a person feels inside a place, he or she is here rather than there, safe rather than threatened, enclosed rather than exposed, at ease rather than stressed. Relph suggests that the more profoundly inside a place a person feels, the stronger will be his or her identity with that place. ... outsiderness and insiderness constitute a fundamental dialectic in human life and that, through varying combinations and intensities of outsiderness and insiderness, different places take on different identities for different individuals and groups, and human experience takes on different qualities of feeling, meaning, ambience, and action." (Seamon & Sowers, 2008, p. 46)

Meanings are also associated with the particular social order in play. Individuals and groups of people live in a much greater social context than their own personal world, and it can be argued that people do not interact independently of their social

context, which is made up of numerous elements of human institutions and cultures. The meaning of place can thus be mediated or manipulated by the common knowledge, values, norms and behaviors that exist in a particular social context, but may also be challenged, questioned or defied. Relph claims that personal experiences of place can also result in a corporate meaning, in that meanings of place “are being constantly socialized through the use of common languages, symbols and experiences” (1976, p. 57).

For many authors and thinkers, this dimension merits a greater priority in the exploration of place. Harvey, for instance, asks how the ongoing social process in a society, through collective agencies and institutions, as political and economic elements, can influence the meaning of place and its construction (1993). Massey states that place and sense of place can be seen as a network of interconnected events, histories and struggles in a social context, which makes it hard to distinguish the boundary for place, while others suggest that religion, education, mass media, and different social and interest groups can influence the various conditions affecting people, leading to commonly shared values and daily life patterns that essentially ground the sense of place (1993) (Agnew, 1987) (Pred, 1986).

2.3 THE CONCEPT OF PLACE-MAKING

To begin with, it is perhaps wise to define the concept of “place-making” in terms of its two forming words. To begin with, place is described as a multi-dimensional entity shaped by two general dimensions of space (tangible, physical, material and objective) and meaning (intangible, experiences, emotions, norms and values and subjective). Making, on the other hand, presupposes an activity of producing or gathering the essential ingredients in order to build something. Accordingly, the concept of place-making can be regarded as action-oriented or a process through which the components of place solidify. In essence, the concept refers to the “creation” of place.

Given the complexity of how the different components of place interact under different circumstances, the creation of place also inherits such a quality. From a spatial perspective, place-making can be identified as an activity that has the modification of physical environment at its core. Manifestations of this activity can be traced back to primitive cultures and have persisted through to modern society when we consider how the physical environment produces. The dimension of meaning presupposes how human beings imbue their environment (including its modification) with meaning by and through their experiences, feelings and activities. Accordingly place-making in broadest sense can be identified as an activity or process through which all human beings make a meaningful connection with their environment on different scales (e.g. nation, region, city, neighborhood, and so forth) under different circumstances (e.g. needs, desires, intentions). See for instance how these commentators elucidate the place-making activity through its numerous manifestations,

“All over the world people are engaged in place-making activities. Homeowners redecorate, build additions, manicure the lawn. Neighborhood organizations put pressure on people to tidy their yards; city governments legislate for new public buildings to express the spirit of particular places. Nations project themselves to the rest of the world through postage stamps, money, parliament buildings, national stadia, tourist brochures, etc.” (Cresswell, 2004, p. 7)

“Placemaking is the way all of us as human beings transform the places in which we find ourselves into places in which we live. It includes building and tearing buildings down, cultivating the land and planting gardens, cleaning the kitchen and rearranging the office, making neighborhoods and mowing lawns, taking over buildings and understanding cities.” (Schneekloth & Shibley, 1995, 1)

In the identification of this activity, Schulz (1985, p. 13), for instance, uses the concept of “dwelling”, defined as “the establishment of a meaningful relationship between man and a given environment”. Such an establishment is based on the

needs, desires and intentions that people acquire at different levels and scales, and Schulz provides an account of four modes of dwelling which, depending on the mode of activity, place-making manifests through the creation of certain places to serve the specific purpose.

As an intrinsic human act when encountering virgin land, the establishment of a settlement is the first such activity. Schulz refers to this type of engagement as “natural dwelling”, being when and where man decides to settle in a given environment (e.g. the entire primitive cultures, colonization of Greeks and Romans, colonization of Australia or America). The two following modes are concerned with the dimension of togetherness, namely “collective dwelling” and “public dwelling”, that place-making manifests in the creation of public places, and the spaces between them as expressions of social life where people gather, meet, exchange, share, protest, etc. (e.g. agora, forum, bazar, marketplace, squares, plazas, nodes, intersections and structures belonging to an institution or public office, such as governmental buildings, religious buildings, educational buildings, and so forth). The fourth mode of dwelling relates to the private dimension of people’s lives, in which place-making is expressed as building in accordance with the need to reside in a particular place, such as a house or home.

Place-making can also be considered cumulative knowledge, and as an amalgam of the experiences of humans in defining, comprehending and, ultimately, altering their environment. Tuan suggests that place-making has been constant activity of human beings, allowing them to gain knowledge about their environment and to transform it into a certain kind of homeliness at all scales (1991). Sack, on the other hand, identifies place-making as “reality-making”, being a kind of endless activity that is bonded to the ways in which we experience the reality of both the natural and cultural environment through places, and develop visions to improve them,

First, we transform the world because humans are constitutionally incapable of accepting reality as it is. This means that we are always transforming it. This is equally true for the

reality of both the natural and the cultural world. We cannot simply live out in the open, exposed to nature as it really is; we need to construct shelters and organize the world into areas for living, learning, and working. Once we create this new cultural reality, we alter that too. So we transform reality, then transform the reality we have transformed into a new reality, and so on. Second, we do this transforming by constructing places. Places are the geographical instruments that allow us to transform nature and culture, to combine and interweave the two, and, more generally, place allows us to undertake projects. As geographical beings we are place-makers. Third, we transform reality and make places because we have an image of what we think reality can and ought to be. We imagine realities that have not yet existed and try to create them. (2002, p. vii)

Obviously, reality is not necessarily followed by positive values, in that like other activities, place-making can contribute in either positive or negative ways, depending on different point of views (e.g. in between place-maker and place-participant),

“Not only does our place-making activity contribute to the real, it contributes to the good—or the bad. Homeless shelters, hospitals, and even universities, if they adhere to their ideals, can be thought of as good places; crack houses and abusive homes are not. The moral role of place is not confined to isolated events but undergirds entire systems. Slavery in the American South and the Holocaust in Nazi Germany were undergirded by complex systems of places.” (Sack, 2002, p. 114)

The thousand years of endeavor in expanding human habitat as in the forms of cities, towns, villages and places suggest that place-making is among the long-lasting and major activities of human beings (Tuan, 1977). It is also important to note that diversity of human landscapes within different cultures and different historical stages suggest that place-making is directly associated to the conditions embedded in any given environment and period (Harvey, 1993), as for instance when we think about how ancient people defined and altered their environment or more specifically how the Far East civilizations accomplished a place-making different to what we may

witness in the west. Then, place-making can comply with different sensibilities and it can acquire different attributes.

Professions that involve the built environment, such as architecture, planning and urban design, among others, can be considered conscious and objective-oriented expressions of place-making, suggesting that there is an inherent professional association through human experience in shaping the environment (Tuan, 1977) (Schulz, 1985) (Schulz, 1980) (Relph, 1976). Ultimately, these professions by contributing to the creation of places through their mechanism of action and the history of their development can be seen as the active partners in this long-lasting activity.

CHAPTER 3

ROME: A PLACE-MAKING NARRATIVE

In accordance with the aim of the thesis, and to demonstrate that a constant interrelation exists between humans and place, this chapter sets out to present an example of this process. The first chapter presented a discussion of “place” and “place-making”, both of which address the way human beings, through myriad of interrelations and interactions, engage in a meaningful relationship with their environment. Accordingly, any geographical entity on which human beings have gained a foothold could be an instance of these phenomena.

Cities, arguably, are important products of such interactions and interrelations as geographical entities that can be regarded as places of places that both shape and are shaped through ages of human endeavor as they alter the environment and imbue it with meaning. The history of a city is an accessible scheme of multiple events and happenings that can provide a suitable context for examining how human-place interrelations were shaped and are shaping.

Taking the above into account, the history of the city of Rome is chosen for study to drive the intended inquiry due to its rich historical content. It is the aim in this chapter to delve into the different historical stages endured by Rome to show how the inhabitants of this specific geographical entity have been involved in a meaningful relationship with their environment, ultimately structuring the city into that we now know as Rome.

To this end, this chapter makes use of multiple historical sources, narratives, maps, pictures and reports to review experiences, intentions, thoughts, aspirations and feelings which though the important events, happenings and issues led to the formation of the city.

3.1 ANCIENT ROME

The story of ancient Rome starts out with a settlement of no more than few huts in the 10th and 9th century B.C. that would grow to become one of the most powerful cities in ancient times, or as many commentators suggest, the most developed city that world had ever seen until recent times. Ancient Rome refers to the period from the earliest settlement on the site in approximately 1000 B.C through to the fall of the Roman Empire in the 5th century A.D. This timespan witnessed three major historical periods: the Monarchy Era from 753 B.C to 509 B.C, the Republic Era from 509 B.C to 31 B.C, and finally the Empire Era from 27 B.C to 476 A.D. Ancient Rome has a prominent place in the long history of the city, charting the initial stage of man's struggle with place from very its dawn, the interaction with virgin land and the emergence of the city, through to its pinnacle as Rome became one of the greatest cities in the ancient world especially in terms of population and architecture.

3.1.1 THE EARLY PLACE-MAKERS

Based on archeological studies, it is believed the site on which Rome stands has been inhabited without a break since 1000 B.C (Coulston & Dodge, 2000). The early settlers of the site can be regarded as early place-makers of Rome. These people were in fact the ones that shaped the early centers and settlements from which Rome has emerged from.

Rome is located at the approximate center of the Italian peninsula, having the bank of the river Tiber to its west and the Apennine Mountain Range to its east. Geological studies have shown that the site is of volcanic origin, and during its geological transformation, water courses cut into the volcanic crust, creating an interconnected network of hills and valleys (Schulz, 1980). According to different sources and pieces of evidence, the site was originally covered with forest that was thick at the hilltops, while the flood plain of the river was swampy. Given its location at the central crossing of the River Tiber, where southerners and northerners of the Italian peninsula used to cross the river, it is likely that accessibility to water, the

existence of fertile land and good hunting grounds were among the features that first made the site desirable for early settlers.



Figure 3-1: Natural features of the site, fore at Chia, central Italian peninsula
Source: Schulz, 1980, p. 144

Historians and researchers count two main geographical features of the site that had a significant impact on the emergence of Rome: the River Tiber and the cluster of hills on the east bank of the river (Aldrete, 2004) (Coulston & Dodge, 2000) (Dunstan, 2010) (Morris, 1994). Each of these features deserves attention, as they had an important influence on the way that the early settlers of the site perceived both the advantages and disadvantages of their given environment.

The River Tiber runs for 409 km from the Apennines to Mediterranean Sea, and its role in the emergence of Rome and the development of the city to the present day

is crucial. Rivers are important features for the emergence of any settlement, especially in ancient times, as sources of water for irrigation, drinking, transportation and the disposal of waste (Morris, 1994). The early place-makers at the site likely recognized the obvious ideal location for settlement, at a c-shaped bend on the river with an island in the middle, known now as Tiber Island. It is believed that this location was a natural crossing point over the river in central Italy at a convergence of transport routes. It is also believed that the early site of Rome was a key stopping point on an important trade route known as “Via Salaria” (The Salt Road), as the marshes near the mouth of the river were an important source of salt, which was an important trading commodity at the time (Aldrete, 2004).

Rome is known famously as the “City of Seven Hills”, and the existence of this cluster of hills near the crossing of the River Tiber is another important geographical feature that early inhabitants of the site found appropriate for settlement. Historians suggest that Rome emerged out of the gradual growth of several hilltop villages accommodating different tribal communities within the site (Aldrete, 2004). Generally, a sloping ground and hills had great value for place-making activities in ancient times, in that this specific characteristic of earth provides a natural defensive advantage for observation of the surrounding territory. Protection from invasion and any other threatening outside forces was a high priority that the seven hills of the site offered to the early place-makers of Rome. Moreover, hills of the site had offered protection from flood and unhealthy swampy lower ground.

In Italian word “forre” refers to a kind of path-like geographical feature that is shaped by the penetration of water streams into the volcanic crust making an interconnected network of hills and valleys, and the site of Rome, with its hills and flat areas, resembles such a feature. Schulz claims that this important feature of the site had a “primary place-creating” function in the region (p. 144). While the hilltops were used mostly for the building of villages, the sides of the hills were used for the building of tombs. Schulz suggests that this interplay of hills and valleys as a form of forre had symbolic meaning in the place-making activities, with the hilltops

resembling the surface of the earth with everyday life, while the lower grounds and the associated hazards were regarded as an “underworld”.

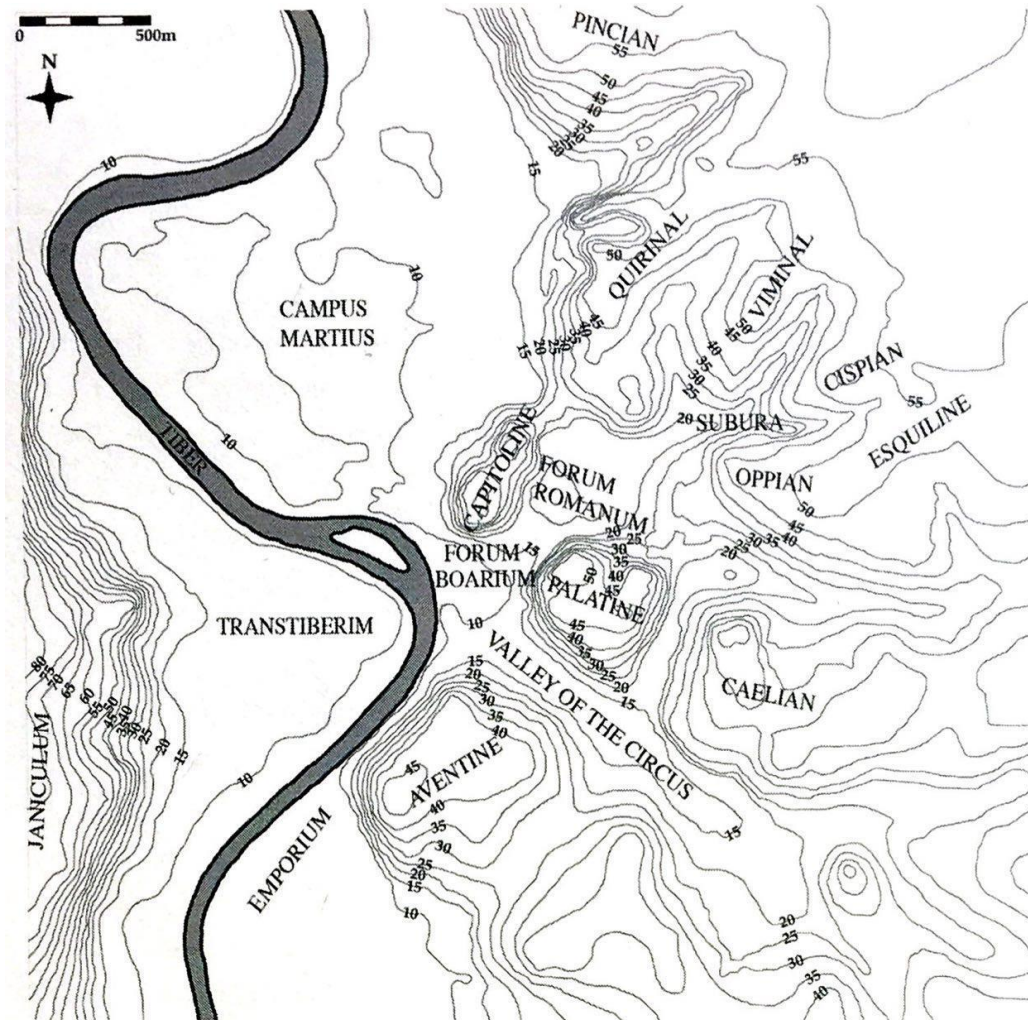


Figure 3-2: A map of the seven hills, the river Tiber, the famous valleys and the swamp lands of the site.
Source: Aldrete, 2004, p. 12

The geological make-up of the hills within the site is old lava and ash, known as “tufa”, and this was another important feature within the site that encouraged place-making activities. Tufa has sufficient strength for use in construction, and its extraction was easy – it is said that tufa can be cut with a knife (Dunstan, 2010).

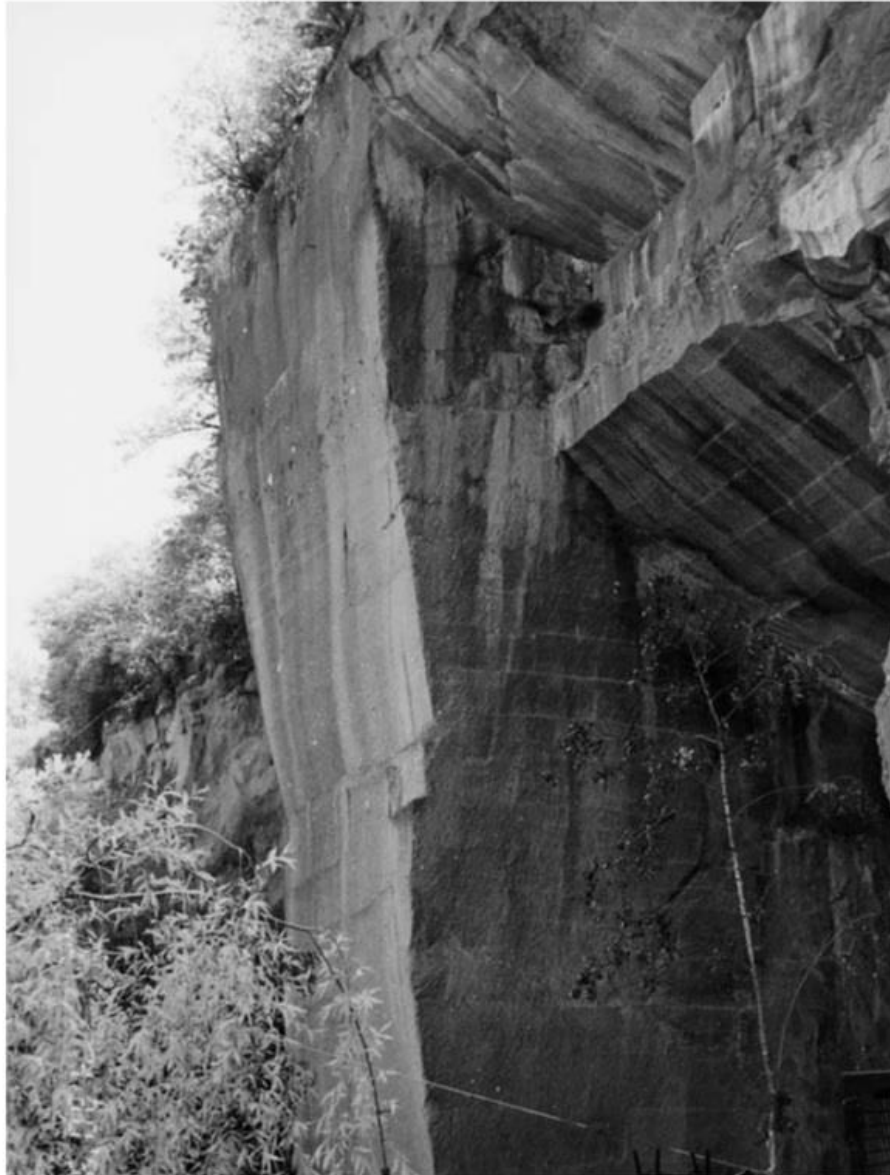


Figure 3-3: A photo of Tuffa.
Source: Dunstan, 2010, p. 41

There is a lack of consensus on which hilltop settlers had greater influence on the emergence of Rome. It is believed that each of the seven hills had its own settlement, and among these, two of them, “Capitoline” and “Palatine”, offered particular defensive advantages due to their physical shape, their steep sloping sides and the distinct advantage of overlooking the Tiber crossing. Palatine Hill is believed to have been the home of the early Romans, with a large flat square plateau measuring 65

acres²⁷, with each side measuring 490 yards²⁸ (Morris, 1994). As one commentator suggests, it was small enough to be defended, but at the same time, large enough to grow a community (Dunstan, 2010). It is likely that the most coherent place-making activities of the early settlers occurred on the Palatine Hill, in the settlement known as “Roman Quadrata” (Morris, 1994). It is believed the emergence of Rome has its origin in expansion of this settlement. There is a dispute whether this settlement consciously erected along the important Roman axial orientation of *Cardo* and *Decumanus* as a grid system of North-South and East-West (Dunstan, 2010) (Morris, 1994) (Schulz, 1980). The settlement was rectangular in shape which was influenced by the shape of the Palatine Hilltop.

3.1.2 THE EMERGENCE OF ROME

There is no clear evidence of how and when exactly Rome became an urban nucleus, although there are many legends within Roman tradition related to the subject. One of the most famous of these is the story of the two brothers Remus and Romulus. According to the story, Romulus founded Rome on April 21, 753 B.C., and in Roman tradition, this legend marks the beginning of the Monarchy Era, which lasted from 753 B.C to 509 B.C. and saw seven kings ruling Rome, of which Romulus was the first (Aldrete, 2004). This era is known to be the period in which Rome became a populated and developed settlement, outperforming other settlements on the greater central Italian peninsula (Aldrete, 2004).

Legend aside, archeological studies have shown that the population of the site increased dramatically in seventh century B.C., and this would not happen if quality of life had not improved greatly which this in turn suggests Rome within this span of time emerged as a populated settlement (Coulston & Dodge, 2000). Although that many studies about this era notify the lack of evidences and reliable sources, at the same time they suggest the era constitute an important part of the ancient Rome, as elements of which made ancient Rome the most developed city in the ancient world,

²⁷ An acre is approximately 4,047 m², or about 40% of a hectare.

²⁸ A yard is about 0.9144 meter

all found their origin within this period (Aldrete, 2004) (Dunstan, 2010) (Morris, 1994) (Archibugi, 2005) (Stambaugh, 1988). The Monarchy Era coincided with place-making efforts that met the basic requirements for survival and the improvement of habitation. Many important social and political institutions were emerged in this period so as places associated with them.

Based on archeological studies, it is believed that the emergence of Rome as an urban nucleus is a result of the gradual development and unification of the hilltop communities. It is thought that Palatine Hill settlement started to expand at the beginning of the seventh century B.C. to include an important central valley between the seven hills that would later become an important public meeting place – the “Roman Forum” (Aldrete, 2004).

It is likely that first challenge faced by the Romans in this period was the swampy valleys between the hills that were unsuitable for habitation due to the presence of malaria-carrying mosquitos that would breed in the swamps (Morris, 1994). The valleys were also on the flood plain of the Tiber River, which made any construction activity ill-advised. In order to create habitable land in these valleys, a long period of interventions by Roman engineers began with the construction of multiple drainage systems. They began by digging the marshes and constructing drainage tunnels, with the primary aim of collecting the excessive water that was streaming into valleys, making sure that the valleys remained dry all year round (Aldrete, 2004).

Among these valleys, the most important was probably “Forum Valley”. Studies have shown that the physical unification of the hilltop communities began with the reclamation of this important valley, and in the seventh century B.C. it is believed that the Palatine Hill community expanded to include the forum valley, creating what would become the urban nucleus of Rome.

This valley was located at between the hills of Palatine, Capitoline and Quirinal. Dunstan claims in the period from 635 up until 575 B.C., workers erased the existing structures from earlier times, filled in the lowest lying areas, drained the marshes and

paved the valley (2010). The most famous and important of the constructed water systems from the time is the “Cloaca Maxima”, meaning “The Great Sewer”, which was as an open drain that was built in 578 B.C to collect surface water and to serve as a sewage system in the valley (Morris, 1994). The result of this transformation was a public place designated for civic purposes known as the “Forum Romanum”.

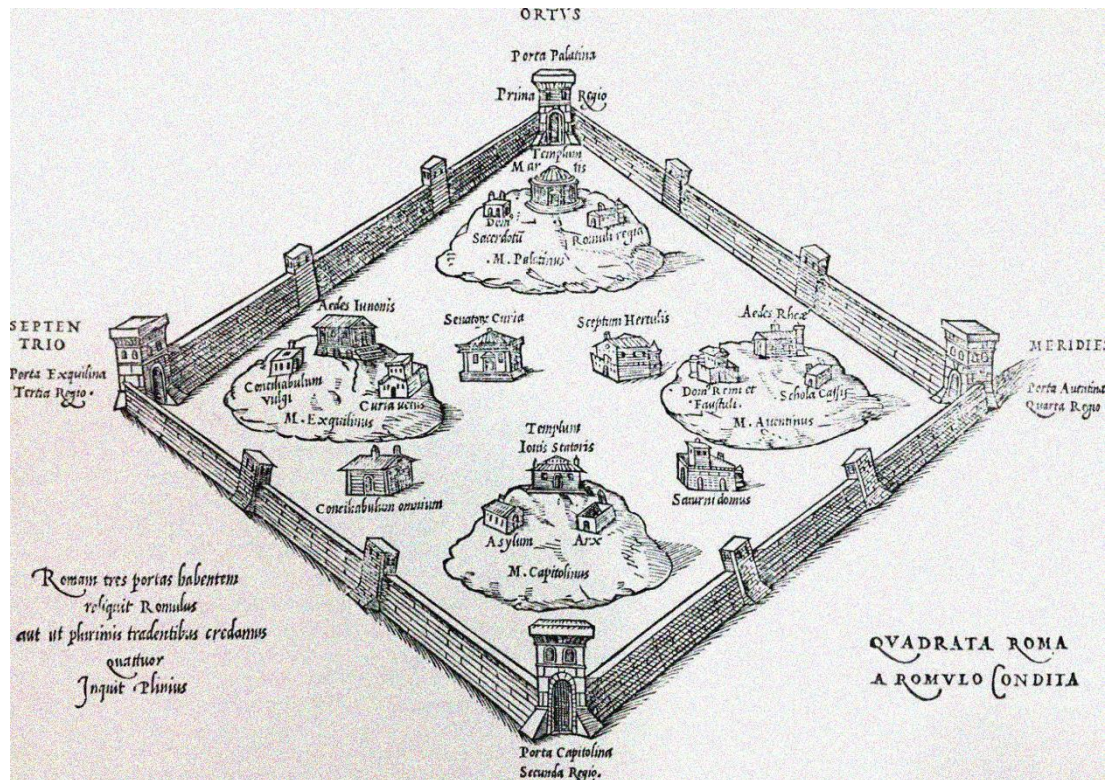


Figure 3-4: An engraving of Roman Quadrata from 1527.

Source: Benevolo, 1980, p. 143

In its earliest version, the Forum was an open place where many roads converged that was home to the first market-place in the newly emerging city. Later, the forum undertook various types of place-making transformations, and the construction of administrative buildings, temples and monuments made sure the site served as an important link between social, political and commercial lives within the city. These structures gradually developed along an important road within the valley-“Via Sacra” meaning “sacred way” (Morris, 1994). In recent times, the site has come to be regarded as the most important urban space in ancient Rome, where inhabitants gather for political, religious, administrative, and commercial purposes.

Another important valley, located on the bank of the River Tiber between the hills of Capitoline and Aventine, was also transformed into a forum called the “Boarium”, and the existence of the harbor close to this forum in early times highlights the commercial use of this valley (Aldrete, 2004). A long narrow depression lies between the hills of Aventine and Palatine stretching inland to the southeast, and this valley had streams running through it. Within the Monarchy Era the valley was mostly used for agriculture due to its fertile ground however like the other valleys it was also prone to flood. This valley was also associated with horse racing contests began as early as within monarchy era that later the valley transformed into a place for entertainment called “Circus Maximus”, a stadium-like structure constructed by wood in its earliest version, where the Roman public could watch horse and chariot racing contests (Aldrete, 2004).

In ancient times, protection from invading forces was crucial, and militarism was an everyday element of people’s lives, whether for defense or attack. This involved the creation of many associated places, including barracks, garrison structures and so forth, although it is believed that most important was defensive walls. As mentioned, the topography of the site offered a degree of natural protection, but as the Roman community grew, the need for additional defensive structures was recognized. Rome’s earliest defensive walls were constructed at the Roman Quadrata, the early Roman community on Palatine Hill. Within the Monarchy Era, as the city became more populated, a second wall was constructed in 550 B.C by king Servius Tullius (570-509) (Stambaugh, 1988).

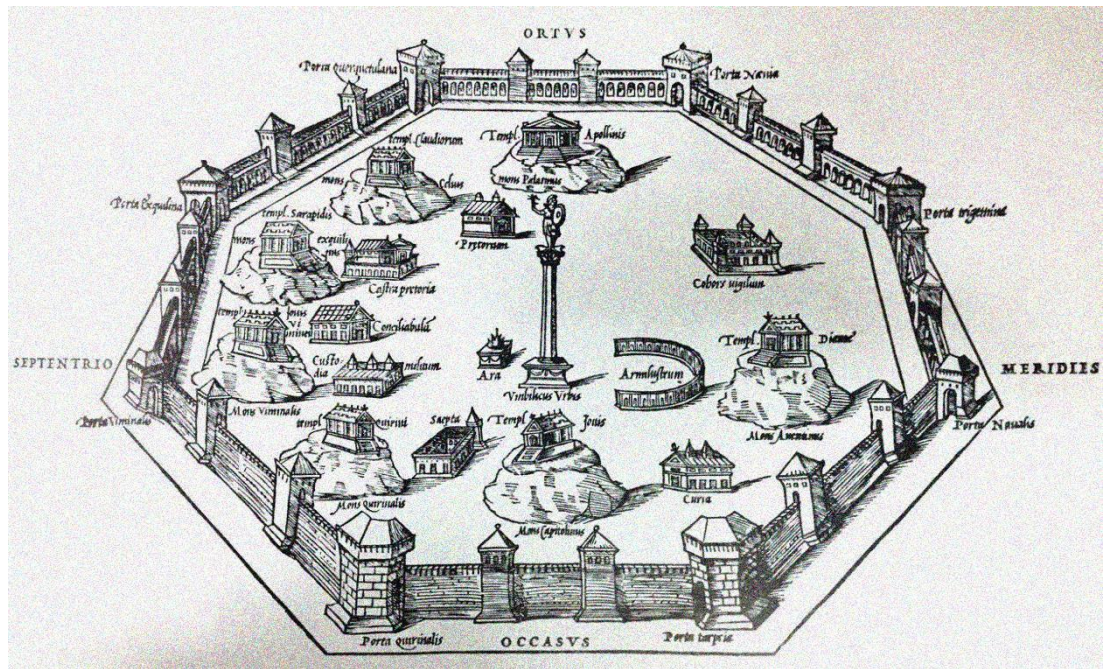


Figure 3-5: An engraving of Rome during the time of king Servius Tullius from 1527.
Source: Benevolo, 1980, p. 143

Religion holds another important place in Rome's history, and had a significant impact on the place-making activities in the city (Dunstan, 2010). There are many who emphasize that religious beliefs were, and remain today, a significant part of daily life, and so places with religious functions have a long history in the city (Aldrete, 2004) (Morris, 1994) (Dunstan, 2010). One early structure with religious function in the city was a temple on the Capitoline hill erected within monarchy era accommodating three shrines of Jupiter, Juno and Minerva-deities within pagan religion in ancient Rome (Stambaugh, 1988).

Some argue that the first traces of cosmic order in the place-making activities of Rome began within this period. An example of this was a man-made boundary known as the "pomerium" (Aldrete, 2004). It was a sacred boundary that demarcated the inside and outside of Rome. The pomerium held great religious significance for that there were rules applied when one entered or leaved this circular limit. According to legend, the first pomerium in Rome was commissioned by Romulus, the first king of Rome, around Palatine Hill and later other kings and governors

expanded this boundary as the city expanded (ibid). Dunstan also argues the concept of “genius” evoked within this era as the guardian spirit protecting the associated characteristic of the given object, for Romans not only people but places and most importantly the city itself possessed their own genius (2010).



Figure 3-6: A model of the earliest temple on the Capitoline hill.
Source: Benevolo, 1980, p. 180

3.1.3 REPUBLICANS PLACE-MAKING

Overcoming some of the significant challenges imposed by nature to expand the settlement, and establishing some important institutions were the hallmarks of the place-making activities of previous periods. By 509 B.C. a major shift occurred in the socio-political life of Romans as the Monarchy Era came to an end and the Republic Era began. This new era saw a great transformation in the physical condition of the city, and also a rapid increase in the size of its population. Records show that the Roman conquest of Italy and other military victories, along with the new political establishment, allowed Rome to evolve from an important city-state in central Italy to a major power, both in Italy and beyond.

According to archeological excavation the early republican period at the late sixth century and fifth century B.C. was the period of decline and recession due to political competition and war among the city-states within the central Italy, however these records also shows within this early period the construction of numerous public buildings were intensified (Coulston & Dodge, 2000). Aldrete suggests this may had caused by a desire of the new government in charge to supersede or at least match the king's actions (2004). As an example he refers to the construction of a new temple on the Capitoline the temple of "Jupiter Optimus Maximus" (Jupiter the best and the greatest) which had supplanted the previous temple of "Jupiter capitolinus" (2004, p. 16). This structure remained for 400 years on Capitoline Hill overlooking Roman forum as an important symbolic dedication to ancient Rome. Another example was the establishment of new cults such as "Vestal Virgins" devoted to maintaining the sacred fire of the city (ibid).

During the fifth century there is also a record suggesting ratification of several laws in order to regulate Roman community in aspects such as construction and administering activities. For instance, a law provided a settling permission for settling on Aventine Hill where plots of land distributed and houses constructed (Stambaugh, 1988). The other important law within this period, famously known as the "Twelve Tables", codified through which the social order of the city was organized in different aspects (Dunstan, 2010).

By the fourth century B.C. the long period of militarism and other war associated events had begun which in turn greatly influenced the place-making activities of Romans. An important event of this sort had occurred in 390 B.C. as a group of "Gauls" had invaded the city (Aldrete, 2004, p. 16). According to historical accounts the invasion greatly damaged the city, most of the houses and shrines within the city destroyed except the fortified Capitoline Hill (Morris, 1994). This experience caused the idea of constructing more extensive and stronger defensive structure around the city. Thus the first comprehensive set of defensive walls were constructed between 378 and 352 B.C. and named "Servian wall" (Morris, 1994). When completed the

wall enclosed an area over 426 hectares, according to a record, which included all of the famous seven hills (Morris, 1994, p. 62). For the first time the new wall surpassed the ritual boundary of the pomerium and for the next six and half century it defined the Rome's inner city territory (Stambaugh, 1988).

An important influence of militarism within Rome's history was the emergence of successful war commanders who gained great political power. One early instance of this in the fourth century B.C. was "Marcus Furius Camilus" who had been credited for defeating "Veii" and the repulse of "Gauls" (Stambaugh, 1988). Under his influence the forum Boarium and Romanum had witnessed construction of several new temples such as Concordia in Romanum and Juno Regina and shrines of Fortuna and Mater Matuta in Boarium (Aldrete, 2004). Some argue such practices can be regarded as Roman's desire for monumentalism and glorification of war events which brought more wealth and labor force (slaves) to the city through ancient times (Coulston & Dodge, 2000).

The forums Boarium and Romanum were not only subjected to monumental development, but that each of these important places within this period possessed exclusive purposes. The forum Boarium, traditionally known as the cattle market, became a major commercial center for the city in this period. As the Romans influence on the greater territory of Italian peninsula extended, transportation and commerce became a major activity which led to the development of riverside docks near the forum. The records show the forum Boarium in this period became a busy and crowded place for residence of the city as well as foreigners (Aldrete, 2004) (Stambaugh, 1988).

The forum Romanum which was traditionally housed many monuments, temples and different markets became more exclusively associated with the new political establishment and its hierarchy within the era of republic. It is believed within the republic period the aspects of public life took on significant role and the forum Romanum as the most important manifestation of this development saw new constructions and activities (Morris, 1994) (Aldrete, 2004) (Dunstan, 2010).

According to historical accounts the forum was the place of many activities such as political assemblies, trials, religious and ritual practices, commercial and financial transactions, urban spectacles such as ceremonies, funerals and feasts (Aldrete, 2004). By the late fourth century the commercial activities within the forum decreased as many located shops replaced by several new types of buildings and structures which were specifically designated to serve the new political structure of the Roman society (ibid).

For instance, associated with political assemblies and legal activities of the city “Curia” was a building constructed for senate meetings in the forum. In describing this place Aldrete (2004, pp. 48-50) cites the building was “rectangular in shape with a high roof” and “it consisted of a single, large room with bronze doors facing the forum at one end and a low dais at the opposite end where presumably the presiding magistrate would have sat”. He continues and adds that another important structure was “comitium” which was designated for public assemblies and voting process over laws. The facing side of the place had a circular platform to address the assembly or else the crowds within the forum itself. Such platforms to address the crowd had important function within the ancient Rome which they possess a specific name “rostra”. Many important speeches, declarations and other events took place in front of rostra.

The development of infrastructures within this period extends to a greater scale. Drinking water was one of the important demands that within this period take on priority. According to Morris until the end of the fourth century B.C the water supply of the city was mainly taken from the river however, as the volume of the sewage discharged into the Tiber became too high, the pollution of water had the Romans to consider new resources (1994). In response to this daily struggle Romans innovated one of the important structures of ancient times, “the aqueducts”. As a water conveying system the aqueducts were channeling structures which used the gravity to bring the water from outside of the city area to inside reservoirs and shrines. The first aqueduct was built in 312 B.C. and named after an important politician “Appius

Claudius” as the “Aqua Appia” (Stambaugh, 1988, p.20). Morris highlights the role of the aqueducts and swears as an important urban form within the history of Rome for subsequent developments as he compares these structures with railway viaducts in south London (1994, p. 60). Appius was also responsible for constructing the major road called “Via Appia” which ran south to provide better means of communication with southern cities in Italian peninsula (Aldrete, 2004).

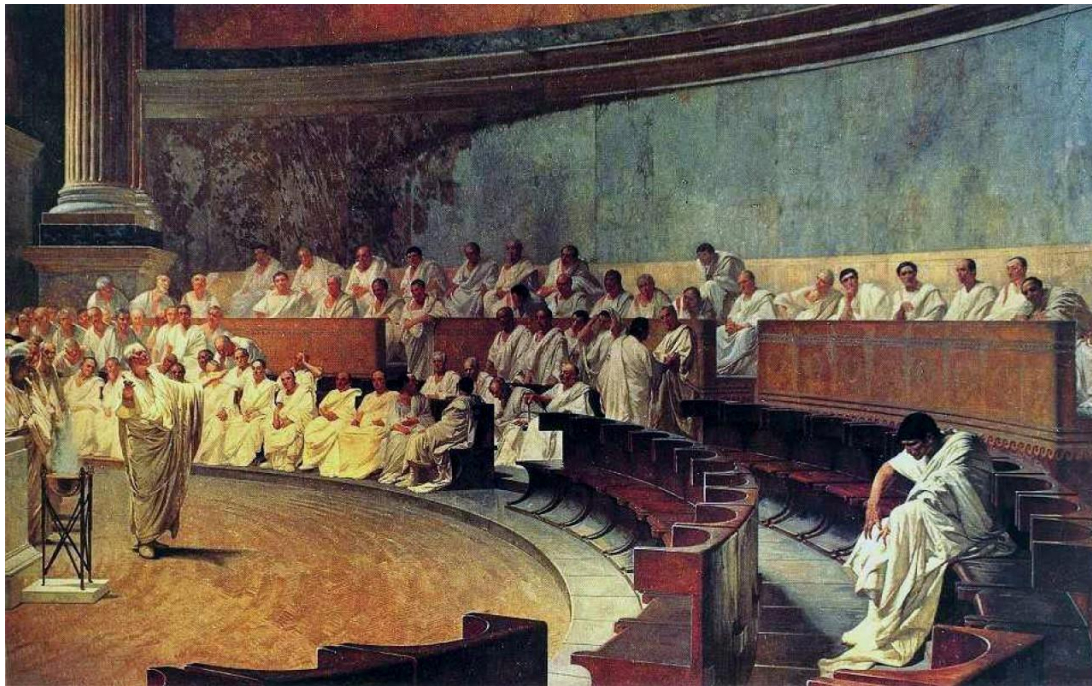


Figure 3-7: An illustration of Roman senate during republic era, by Cesare Maccari (1840-1919)
Source: <http://www.inquiriesjournal.com/articles/1492/how-democratic-was-the-roman-republic-the-theory-and-practice-of-an-archetypal-democracy> (last accessed: 23/03/2018)

Successes in military campaigns and the improvement of infrastructures during the fourth century B.C. had caused Romans to be the sole major power in Italian peninsula (Stambaugh, 1988). The city grew in population with different ethnicities and activities became more resulting to a more urban identity for Romans. This process take on greater scale in the third century B.C. as Romans expanded their military operations beyond Italian peninsula (Stambaugh, 1988).

Two important wars within this period were first and second Punic Wars. The Punic Wars were the battles which had been fought between Romans and

Carthaginians over controlling Sicily Island, the North Africa and Spain in third century B.C. Although the chain of battles through this period brought some serious setbacks for Romans, but ultimately the successes of Romans confirmed their power through Mediterranean region. Many historians highlight these events for having great impact on the lives of Romans and the city of Rome in physical, social, political and economic aspects (Aldrete, 2004) (Archibugi, 2005) (Dunstan, 2010) (Coulston & Dodge, 2000).

Among the influences of these events, historians account the increase of economic activities and population in diverse ethnicities (Aldrete, 2004). Sea battles caused the improvement of ports in the city so as the sea route commerce. Stambaugh cites within the third century B.C. as the result of Punic wars “a nearly inexhaustible supply” of slaves for trade and other important goods such as grain provide and also manufacturing of weapons and ships provided employment opportunities for many citizens (1988, p. 24). One event which resulted in increase of the population of the city was the invasion of the Carthaginian general Hannibal. The invasion was from the north of Italy and it did not reach to Rome itself but the raids of farms and villages in periphery of the city made the population to refuge inside the walls of Rome (Aldrete, 2004).

Some suggest that the Roman conquest of different regions had introduced different ways of life to Romans including building materials, construction technology and architecture of conquered nations and civilizations. Among them Greek culture was the most prominent. The warfare within the Mediterranean territory had resulted to a close engagement with many Hellenic city-states which influenced Romans in many ways especially some suggest many artistic and urbanism patterns of ancient Rome greatly influenced by Greek culture. The existence of temples devoted to Greek deities, Greek decorative arts especially sculptures and paintings and records of “specialist Greek contractors” in construction of structures such as fortifications were some of the evidences of such claim (Aldrete, 2004) (Morris, 1994) (Stambaugh, 1988) (Coulston & Dodge, 2000, p. 81).

The rise of power of military commanders within this period took on a greater scale which boosted different types of place-making activities. It is believed that through this period and later within the ancient times victorious generals of Rome received a great attention from public and administration. Stambaugh cites the senate often recognized these generals as a triumphator to honor his deed for the republic and in response the general dedicated a temple (Coulston & Dodge, 2000). This tradition according to different sources became one of the main place-making trends in the ancient times which resulted in construction of many temples, columns, arches and monuments throughout the city. Construction of the “Circus Flaminius” in the “lower Campus Martius in 220 B.C.” by the general “Gaius Flaminius Nepos” which was circular building and included several monumental structures and horse racing lane as well as “the column of C. Duilius, consul in 260 BC, to commemorate a naval victory over the Carthaginians in the First Punic War, and the two arches of L. Stertinius, erected after his victories as proconsul in Spain in 196 BC” were some of the insatnces of this trend (Stambaugh, 1988, p. 25) (Coulston & Dodge, 2000, p. 85).



Figure 3-8: A painting of Pompey’s Triumph ceremony by Gabriel Jacques de Saint Aubin in 1765
Source: https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:The_Triumph_of_Pompey_-_Gabriel_de_Saint-Aubin.jpg
(last access: 04/03/2018)

One of the most extensive projects of this sort happened during the last century of the republic under the command of the powerful general “Pompey the Great”. The project designated in the district “the Campus Martius” at the west of the River Tiber which according to Coulston & Dodge was one of the important “monumental planning and the systematic organization of urban space” during republic period (p. 92). Aldrete cites the project included “a huge complex, including the first permanent stone theater for the entertainment of the people as well as public gardens and parks surrounding it” (2004, p. 17). The victory monuments which were built in this district were dedicated to “gods of victory—Victoria, Victoria Virgo, Venus Victrix, Hercules Victor, Hercules Invictus, etc” (Coulston & Dodge, 2000, p. 87). They were situated along the triumphal route to the Capitoline Hill which victorious generals rode along.



Figure 3-9: Rome at 100 B.C. reconstructed view of Capitoline Hill overlooking Roman forum
Source: Kostof and Spiro, 2013, p. 164

In addition to monumental place-making construction of public buildings was also intensified during this period under the influence of other members of ruling class especially by the members of senate. “The Atrium Publicum, an archive building”; “the Atrium Libertatis, the censors³¹ headquarter”; “the Atrium Meanium and the Atrium Titium”, an administering building combined with kind of “enclosed

³¹ “A censor was one of two senior magistrates in the city of ancient Rome who supervised public morals, maintained the list of citizens and their tax obligations known as the census, and gave out lucrative public contracts and tax collecting rights” (Cartwright, 2017).

shopping center”; “the Atrium Sutorium”, housing “shoemakers”, and “the Atrium Licinia, an auction hall” were some of the instances (Stambaugh, 1988, p. 25).

Under such circumstances the city of Rome acquired a unique landscape within ancient times and through the last two centuries of the republic the above mentioned place-making trends became even more greater³² as the Rome’s power through its territories became more consolidate. Historians cite the city of Rome through this period saw a larger, more diverse population, an increase in the standard of living and also more influence from political institutions. The records show that the urban identity which was caused by internal and external interactions of Romans through this period became more consolidate and a city with a rural landscape in fifth century B.C. evolved to a busy and populated urban area filled with different activities and unique places.

The late republican period according to historical accounts was the period of socio-political turmoil and upheavals which had caused a transitioning state for a new political government. It is believed that struggles for political and military dominance within the last century of the republic period is directly associated with this shift.

As one important figure of both this transitioning state and last century B.C.’s Rome the actions of Julius Cesare, the last most powerful general and politician of the republic, deserves attention. He is best known for his grand building program and ratification of the first master plan for the city (Stambaugh, 1988) (Fried, 1973). It is estimated that the late republican Rome had 400,000 inhabitants (Aldrete, 2004). It is believed parallel to the vast investment of Romans in construction of monumental structures and public buildings many residential areas of the city suffered from

³² As in the case of monumental place-making the construction of triumphal arches, the first in 196; of new materials the first marble temple in 146, of infrastructures the first paved streets in 174, the first stone bridge in 179 and the “longest” aqueduct the “Aqua Marcia” in 140; of new building types first basilica in 184 and first porticoes in 193, of commercial shipyards development and first covered bazaar-“the Porticus Aemilia” in the “Emporium” district in 179.

crowdedness, congestion, delinquency and poverty (Aldrete, 2004) (Hughes, 2011) (Morris, 1994).

As in the case of transportation a record shows Caesar developed set of regulation to resolve the conflict between pedestrian and vehicle traffic. For instance he banned transport carts from the city during daylight with exception of builder carts and other official chariots (Morris, 1994). As in the case of construction regulations Caesar imposed height limitation for growingly raised flats as the result of increase of population (ibid). The structural collapse was the main threat for these structures which this regulation tended to cope (ibid). The other imposed regulation was related to prevention of fire outbreak requiring usage of incombustible materials and creation of space in-between structures (ibid). Julius Caesar had also left his imprint on the city of Rome by building the new Forum of Caesar, commanded by the imposing all-marble temple dedicated to Venus Genetrix (Venus the Universal Mother), from whom the Roman people in general claimed descent (Dunstan, 2010).

3.1.4 IMPERIAL PLACE-MAKING

The year 27 B.C. is known to history as the beginning of a new era for Romans and their large territorial holdings as the Roman senate formally named Gaius Octavius the first emperor of the Roman Empire. Effectively the event marked the beginning of the imperial era which lasted almost four centuries. The era is characterized by the reign of emperors and large expansion of Roman order through Mediterranean territory in Europe, Africa and Asia. As being the head and the center of the empire, the city of Rome within this period saw great transformations.

The historical records shows the first two centuries of the imperial era were the periods of political stability and prosperity which in turn resulted in impressive place-making activities in Rome, turning it to a city with over a million inhabitants. Yet, by the late second century and the years ahead as the empire fell victim to political conflicts and social upheavals, the era of decline and desolation for Rome began and continued well beyond the imperial era for several hundred years later.

Within the imperial era the actions and decisions of the emperors are of great importance since they had a decisive role in effecting everyday life of Rome's citizens especially when it comes to their actions related with the development of the city. As being the capital of a vast empire, Rome itself had a special role to play. As the records show many emperors of the period were diligent to create an image for the city consonant with its political importance.

First of his kind Gaius Octavius (27 BC-14 AD) with the title of "Augustus" was among the most important emperors who had accomplished many urban projects during his reign. Construction and restoration of temples, usage of new materials, and construction of monuments, infrastructures and ratification of new laws related with administration of the city were among the most important actions within this period (Aldrete, 2004).

Continuing the started projects by Caesar especially within the city center Augustus pay a great interest in monumental construction and rearrangement of the forums in that area (Stambaugh, 1988). He completed the "forum Julium" and the "basilica Julia" in Roman forum (ibid). Under his supervision many temples constructed at the site such as the temple of Mars Ultor meaning "mars the avenger" next to forum "julium" and the temple of deified Ceasar both associated with Caesar's assassination (Aldrete, 2004). The forum Romanum had also witnessed the construction of new Curia. The campus Martius at the north west of the city also subjected to monumentalism as one of the praised structures of the ancient Rome Ara Pacis meaning Altar of peace constructed there (Dunstan, 2010). The structure featured sculptural scheme and other decorations depicting historical events of Augustus life led to the formation of empire and peace throughout the imperial territory. The records shows Augustus in his construction supervision promoted the usage of white marble and colored ones from Africa in decoration and façade making next to other traditionally used stones of travertine and tufu (Stambaugh, 1988). As in the case of administrating policies in 7 B.C. Augustus divided the city into 14 regions which lasted through the end of empire (Morris, 1994). Each region also

subjected to subdivisions called “vici” for each he had appointed a “magister” as an administering agent (ibid). It is believed through these actions and policies both new ones and others continued from his predecessor Caesar the image of the city was altered to be whiter and cleaner (ibid).

One of the extensive construction projects through this period was conducted by the lifelong friend of the emperor, general “Agrippa”. His actions included the construction of a grain house, a new bridge over the river Tiber and a temple devoted to all gods-“Pantheon” (Stambaugh, 1988). He is also known for his actions in improving Roman sewers and overhauling the water supply system (ibid). One important contribution of Agrippa was construction of first large-scale baths in the city, initiating a famous habit for Romans in imperial era to take part in these facilities featuring artificial lakes, sports utilities, open gardens and unique architecture (Coulston & Dodge, 2000).

The succeeding emperors of the first half of the century continued to add to the city by building different temples, palaces, monuments and public buildings (Stambaugh, 1988). For instance Tiberius (14-37) started to construct a new imperial palace-“Domus Tiberiana” at the northern corner of Palatine; Caligula (37-41) expanded the palace and added some temples to monumental zones of Capitoline, Palatine and Campus Martius (ibid). Claudius (41-54) interested more in aspects related with functioning of the city (Morris, 1994). He completed two important aqueducts, Aqua Claudius and Aqua Anio Novus, and established an office for administering of water system. He had also improved the river Tiber infrastructures for commerce, traffic and control of floods (ibid).

Within the reign of Nero (54-68) the city had witnessed many transformations. Early in his leadership records shows Nero accomplished the construction of several public buildings such as a wooden amphitheater for gladiatorial contests, a new bath-Thermae Neronianae, a new bridge over the Tiber and a new large market place-Macellum Magnum (Aldrete, 2004). In year 64, however, an outbreak of fire through

the city marked one of the most important events of the city during his reign (Morris, 1994) (Aldrete, 2004).

According to a record the fire only untouched the four regions while three of them completely destroyed and seven others greatly damaged (Morris, 1994). Historians cite the fire removed most of the troubled regions of the city which were suffered from poor construction, inadequate accessibility and crowdedness, providing an opportunity for a comprehensive rebuilding activity (Morris, 1994). It is believed ancient Rome had saw two types of housing; one was domus for single-family occupation, this type of housing mostly found on the privileged sites for privileged citizens, the other type was insula meaning building block divided into a number flats-cenacula for the rest of the population (ibid). It is believed the high reliance on timber construction in this type of housing exposed them to the danger of fire (Aldrete, 2004) (Morris, 1994).

Some records show the city saw ratification of laws for construction activity to prevent fire, such as usage of stone in some parts of the structures and the delimitation of height for buildings (Fried, 1973). The new streets were widened and new residential blocks, insula, developed in more orderly and controlled way (ibid). Yet, construction of a new enormous palace at the site which was destroyed by the fire overshadowed Nero's contribution (Morris, 1994).

The palace is known with the title "Domus Aurea" meaning Golden House featuring residential and reception rooms, an artificial lake, an octagonal dining room, a mile long colonnade and a 33 meter long statue of Nero himself (Aldrete, 2004). It is believed the palace had materials such as gold and ivory in great scale (ibid).



Figure 3-10: An illustration of insula dwelling in ancient Rome

Source: <http://www.romae-vitam.com/ancient-roman-homes.html> (last accessed: 23/03/2018)

By the year 69 after Nero's death a new family, the Flavians, took the power and led the city's developments. First of this name was Vespasian (69-79) who made a great investment in construction for public, construction of libraries and lecture halls and development of the Forum Pacis with a new temple and a site for which used as museum to exhibit artworks and spoils of wars were some of his contributions to the city (Stambaugh, 1988). Vespasian, however, is mostly known for his permanent contribution to the city by building a stone amphitheater called Colosseum. The structure located at the spot where Nero intended to include a lake for his residence where also his statue stood, it is believed Vespasian had the head of Nero's statue, removed and replaced it with the face of "the sun god" (Dunstan, 2010). Vespasian son Titus (79-81) continued his father's policies and converted other parts of Nero's palace into public use (ibid). The other son of Vespasian Domitian (81-96) had also continued the projects of his family but, with more emphasize on monumental construction. His reign saw the construction of temples and shrines to commemorate his family's deed. An important construction activity in this period was the new imperial palace on the Palatine hill (ibid).



Figure 3-11: A model representing the Forum zone at the center of the picture, the colosseum can be seen at the background.

Source: Benevolo, 1980, p. 157

It is believed the “Golden Age” of Rome took place during the second century A.D. through the reign of five succeeding emperors Nerva, Trajan, Hadrian, Antonius Pius and Marcus Aurelius (96-180) bearing the title of the era of “five good emperors” (Morris, 1994, p. 60) (Dunstan, 2010, p. 354). During this period the empire reaches to its greatest expansion so as its capital. Rome’s became home for more than one million inhabitants and an arena for massive architectural practices in terms of markets, baths, temples, monuments, statues and other structures (Aldrete, 2004) (Stambaugh, 1988) (Morris, 1994).

After the short reign of Nerva (96-98) Trajan (98-117) became the emperor who through his reign the empire reached to its greatest territorial expansion resulting in more wealth and labors for its capital and of course more place-making activities (Dunstan, 2010). Trajan with his architect “Apollodorus of Damascus” is known for constructing three major public places within the city of Rome; the Forum, Market and Baths of Trajan (Dunstan, 2010, p. 354). The structures located within the monumental center of the city and benefited from unique architectural solutions and innovation. It is believed during this period a “concrete-based architecture” replaced the traditional materials and methods resulting in a greater scale construction (Stambaugh, 1988, p. 75).



Figure 3-12: A model of forum and baths of Trajan
Source: Kostof and Spiro, 2013, p. 170

According to historians the forum of Trajan was the largest and most architecturally sophisticated of imperial forums (Aldrete, 2004) (Dunstan, 2010) (Morris, 1994) (Stambaugh, 1988). The forum was symmetrical in shape and based

on archeological excavations it included a huge basilica and the Market of Trajan (Dunstan, 2010) (Stambaugh, 1988). The basilica in the forum named after Trajan family name “Ulpia” which some suggest it was the largest basilica ever built in Rome (Dunstan, 2010). The market of Trajan was also a huge “two story” complex which according to a record it had “170” vaulted shops and offices (Dunstan, 2010). The other important imprint of Trajan was the largest imperial bath Rome had ever seen till the time (Stambaugh, 1988). The bath had central hall, concrete vault roof and series of symmetrical bathing and meeting rooms and it is believed the architecture of this bath became the main pattern for future baths that were built in ancient Rome (Stambaugh, 1988).

The next emperor Hadrian (117-138) has the reputation same as Augustus for being a great investor in developing the city of Rome (Dunstan, 2010). It is believed Hadrian was passionate for rituals and traditions of Rome for which his architectural legacy left some of the permanent structures for the city (ibid). Early in his leadership he retraced the sacred boundary of the pomerium and restored its boundary markers, he also inaugurated an official birthday ceremony for Rome, the “Natalis Urbis Romae”, based on its legendary formation date, April 21 (ibid).

The building program of Hadrian mostly focused on monumental place-making; the city through his reign saw the construction of many landmark temples (Stambaugh, 1988). At the small hilly site between the colosseum and the Forum Romanum Hadrian constructed what is thought to be the largest temple ever built at Rome namely, “Venus et Roma” (Dunstan, 2010). The structure and the architecture of the temple had innovative configuration. In order to support the immense structure of the building, the construction began by an artificial podium. The temple had two cellas, the inner structure of the temple where the face of the housed god represented, facing away from each other, one toward colosseum and the other toward the Forum. At Campus Martius Hadrian erected several temples devoted to his predecessor Trajan and Trajan’s sisters. The famous and ever-present temple of Pantheon was another important dedication of this emperor. The temple formerly constructed by

Agrippa but a fire in 126 destroyed the temple and gave the opportunity to Hadrian to build a new temple of all gods at the same site. The temple features a great dome and at the time it could be seen from any of the hills. The other important permanent imprint of this emperor on the city is his cylinder shape mausoleum. Hadrian's tomb located at the north of the city and the Campus Martius over the river Tiber. He built the bridge-"Pons Aelius" across the river reaching to his mausoleum.



Figure 3-13: A reconstructed model of the Campus Martius area, the temple of Pantheon can be seen at the center of the picture.

Source: Benevolo, 1980, p. 156

After Hadrian's death the succeeding emperors continued to add to the city but in lesser scale. The records show the pace of monumental place-making after Hadrian decreased significantly and no emperor since then interested in overall urban development of the city till the Emperor Constantine's rule (312-337) (Morris, 1994). This era is mainly characterized as the beginning of decline for empire. By the end of the second century an era of political conflict and social unrest had begun within

imperial territories and the boundaries of empire were constantly threatened by empire's rivals (ibid). One important decision of the Emperor Diocletian (284-305) to divide the empire into two eastern and western sectors marked the beginning of Rome's decline as the sole political center of the empire and by the year 324 when the Emperor Constantine inaugurated a new capital for the eastern empire, Constantinople, Rome's decline became aggravated and continued till the western empire fall in the fifth century (ibid). Nonetheless there can be identified some major developments within this stretch of time which had impact on the landscape of the city.

One important event within this period was the barbarian invasion of 271 which caused the construction of third fortification of the city under the rule of the Emperor Aurelian (270-275) (Morris, 1994). It is thought the city outgrown the old Servian wall of 4th century B.C. but as no threat as such mentioned above done to the city the need for a new wall was not took on priority. The Aurelian wall according to a record was 11.5 miles in length enclosing an area of 5.3 square miles (ibid). The wall featured projecting towers and it had become the main pattern for the construction of succeeding fortification for the city till the 19th century (ibid).

Construction of baths and other related structures with water circulation and reservation was another important trend through this period. Going to bath within the ancient Rome became one of the important activities of the public as mentioned early and within this span of time many private and public baths constructed such as Thermae Decianae by the Emperor Decius (249-251) in celebration of the millennium of the founding of Rome and Thermae Diocletian on the Quirinal hill by the Emperor Diocletian (Stambaugh, 1988). According to a record in the late third century AD there were "11 great thermae, 926 public baths, 1212 public fountains, 247 reserviors" in Rome (Morris, 1994, p. 61).

Perhaps, the most important event of the late imperial era which caused the beginning of a major alteration of the city's image so as the life within was the official recognition of Christianity by the Emperor Constantine in 313 (Morris,

1994). The Christian church as the place of worship for the followers of the faith began to emerge through the landscape of Rome. Basilicas, the Roman made multi-purposed rectangular structures, according to the needs of the faith were utilized to serve as the early churches of the city. Some of the early instances of this major development were the church of Saint John Lateran to serve as the cathedral of Rome and residence of its bishop, the church of the Holy Cross to serve as the shrine for Christian relics and the church of Saint Peter over Peter's tomb as one of the important figures of the faith (Stambaugh, 1988). The tradition of church-making from this period became one of the place-making trends within the history of the city.

Ancient Rome without a doubt constitutes an important era within the development of the city. The fact that the Romans accomplished to form and maintain such urban identity in terms of urban development and administration, activities, population, and architecture demonstrates one important instance of human-place interrelations and interactions within ancient times. It is important to keep in mind that although the interpreted image of the city is and was mostly associated with the glory and scale of its monuments, palaces and infrastructures as one Greek orator in second century puts it in this way,

“Rome is the emporium of the world. Here all things converge: trade, shipping, agriculture, metallurgy, all the arts and crafts that have ever existed, all things whether man-made or grown from the earth. If it is not found at Rome, it does not exist.” (Cited in Aldrete, 2004, p. 234)

The existence of records and evidences of constant food charity in large scales, phenomena such as homelessness, delinquency and poor condition of living for lower classes suggest there was a darker image of poverty and squalor for the city same as many modern metropolises of today (Morris, 1994) (Mumford, 1961).



Figure 3-14: A painting of an ancient Roman alley
Source: Schulz, 1980, p. 140

3.2 PAPACY PERIOD

By the fall of the Western Roman Empire in late 5th century a new era had begun within the timeline of the city, an era which was utterly influenced by the rise of Christianity and its clergy. For almost 14 centuries, from the late 5th century to the late 19th century, popes as the leaders of the faith became the sole ruler of the city, resembling emperors of the empire. The decisions of these individuals and the associated government had decisive role in shaping everyday life of Rome's inhabitants so as place-making activities of the period. The first stage of the era was coincided with great decline and desolation for the city which took almost thousand years. As a result of empire's fall and subsequent socio-political upheavals, invasions and natural disasters the city deprived of its former glory and dynamism, leading to great physical damages and dramatic decrease in its population.

The empowerment of Christianity and becoming the seat of its leader, pope, Rome steadily recovers from what historians suggest the total destruction and obscurity. As the center of a universal religion, Rome had possessed a new identity and became an important city once again within the broader region it is located, leading to the second stage of the period. Within the 15th through to the 17th century the era which is known to history as Renaissance became the hallmark of papacy's influence on the city especially in terms of architecture and associated place-making activities. Rome within this period became the center of the Christianity world and host to enormous amount of pilgrims (Aldrete, 2004). By reaching to the last stage of the era in the 18th and 19th century Rome receives a touch of enlightenment as a result of foreign influence and cultural exchange and some manifestations of modernity begun to emerge within the city. By the beginning of Italian unification movement in 19th century and the attachment of Rome to the process in 1870, the reign of papacy reached to its end.

3.2.1 ROME IN THE MIDDLE AGES

The fall of Roman Empire opened a new chapter in the history of Rome, one that began with 1,000 years of decline and desolation for the capital. The story of Rome

from late fifth century through to early 15th century is filled with many unfortunate events, including invasions, sackings and destruction, alongside natural disasters, socio-political upheavals and chaos. The result was a great city of 1 million inhabitants being reduced to a mere couple of thousand (Aldrete, 2004). In parallel to this, the rise of Christianity and the designation of Rome as the seat of the Pope brought a new character for Rome.

The cause of the collapse of such a vast empire is a matter of dispute among scholars, but it may have been a result of both internal and external factors and crises. Most theories claim that the fall was a result of the chaos and socio-political upheavals that occurred during both the Republic and Imperial Eras, but with greater frequency in the final centuries of the Imperial Era. In addressing this issue, most historians highlight the lavish lifestyles of the emperors and aristocrats, the political competition among the ruling class, the imperialistic tendencies and the oppression of the people of the captured nations and provinces, the decline of morality within Roman society, wastefulness of wealth and labor, and the incompetence of the last emperors and generals (Dunstan, 2010) (Morris, 1994) (Aldrete, 2004) (Mumford, 1961). Based on these developments, the era of decline of the city can be traced from the mid-Imperial Era through to the Middle Ages.

In addressing the causes of the decline of Rome, Morris (1994, pp. 175-176) highlights several important events that, in his words, marked “the beginning of the end”, starting with the reign of Trajan (98–117), during which the empire reached its pinnacle of expansion and wealth. The era of decay began with “the unprecedented flooding of the city in 162 and the subsequent famine and plague”, and by 334 the Christian emperor Constantine had moved the capital of empire to the east, depriving Rome of its centrality within the empire. In 402, the Western Roman emperor

Honorius moved his court from Rome to a city called Ravenna in the northeast of the Italian peninsula due to his fear of a Barbarian invasion.³³

In the period that followed, invasions contributed greatly to the decline of Rome. In 410, the invasion by the Barbarians under the command of Alaric the Visigoth started the physical destruction of the city, and in 476, another attempt was made to destroy the city by Genseric the Vandal. Morris claims that a brief recovery was made in the late-fifth century under Theodoric the Ostrogoth, who took back the city and made repairs to some of the more important structures, such as the “walls, aqueducts and many public buildings” (1994). The other attempt with a strong will to damage and sack the city was made in 546 by Totila, who Morris says “was determined to destroy the town entirely, to raze it to the ground, to make it pasturage for cattle” (1994). The result was great damage to the walls and temples plus the removal of many statues. Most importantly, Totila’s forced of the entire population to abandon the city (ibid). Despite this devastating invasion, Morris claims that there remained some “immense marble buildings” within the perimeter of the city (1994).

The growing power of Christianity as a religious and also political movement was one of the most important factors in this period, greatly influencing the way of life in Rome in the thousands years ahead. This movement had its roots in the Imperial Era as Jesus, the prophet of the faith, and his followers set out to preach and spread the faith across the Imperial territories.

In its earliest times, the Christian faith was practiced in secret, as the pagan Imperial authorities had no tolerance for such activities. History shows that, for several centuries, Jesus’ followers were subjected to constant suppression until the conversion to the Christian faith of Emperor Constantine in 312, which allowed the possibility that Christianity was to be the official religion of the Empire (Hughes, 2011). The early place-making activities of Christians included the construction of

³³ Ravenna remained the capital of the Western Empire until the fall of the empire in 476.

the catacombs outside Rome that were used for Christian rituals and worship, for burying the dead and as a hiding place (ibid). As religion became more popular, the church became the main place of the faith resembling temples or places of worship.

In the Middle Ages, the bishop of Rome took the title of Pope as the leader of the Catholic Church, which gave Rome a new identity. From the late-sixth century through to the late 19th century the Pope held the highest position in the ruling of Rome, which, some argue, gave them a position on par with the emperors of Imperial Era (Kirk, 2005a). Hughes writes that when elected, the Pope would take part in a ritual known as the “*possesso*”, which involved riding from the Basilica of St John Lateran to the Capitoline Hill, resembling the Triumph Parades of the Imperial Era. Once in the Basilica, the newly appointed Pope would affirm their spiritual leadership and they would receive the Key to the City of Rome from the head magistrate³⁴ (2011, p. 332). Accordingly, a tradition inherited from Emperor Constantine – the construction of churches or the conversion of pagan temples into churches – emerged as major place-making activities. In fact, the construction of new churches and their maintenance was a major activity of the Papacy Period.

The early Papacy Period, which endured from the fall of the empire through to the Renaissance, was a period in which Rome steadily adapted to its new Christian identity, an identity that barely tolerated its old pagan version.³⁵ For several hundred years, the buildings that had once stood in Ancient Rome were demolished and many statues and columns were removed or exported (Aldrete, 2004). Many of the remaining Roman structures were ransacked for their construction materials for use in new buildings, predominantly churches. Hughes calls this process, which lasted from the fourth to the 13th century, as “the biggest single industry the city had”. Speaking on the construction of a new Rome, he says “Medieval Rome did not

³⁴ A high ranking official with great judicial and executive powers who was part of the administrative hierarchy of Rome’s Republic Era (Dunstan, 2010).

³⁵ For instance, according to Morris (1994) the first practical lord in the municipal affairs of Rome, Pope Gregory I (590-604), in his first sermon at St Peters painted a picture of the devastation of Rome.

merely rise on the site of ancient Rome; it was, quite literary, made from its remains” (2011, p. 178). Another historian found that in order to produce lime, a production line was set up within the Roman Forum itself to facilitate the destruction/production process (Aldrete, 2004).

Alongside the invasions and other factors that brought about the destruction of Rome in the Middle Ages, that past grandeur and, most importantly, its new Christian identity led to it becoming the holy center of Western Europe. This, in turn, fueled a pilgrimage movement as one of the most important activities of the period, which many believe saved the city from total destruction and brought about a great revival of interest in developing the city (Morris, 1994) (Aldrete, 2004).

Pilgrims at the time would travel to Rome to visit sites associated with the early saints, apostles and martyrs of the faith (Aldrete, 2004), including seven main pilgrimage churches: the Basilica of St. Peter, the Basilica of St. Paul, St. Giovanni, St. Sebastian, St. Maria Maggiore, St. Croce and St. Lawrence (Hughes, 2011, p. 178). The most important of these was St Peter’s, which was built initially by Emperor Constantine and has seen numerous reconstructions throughout history. This shrine to the apostle Peter was the setting for many Christian rituals and many important religious ceremonies, and many key treaties were signed at the church, making it one of the most visited religious sites by pilgrims. In the Middle Ages, the site of St. Peter and its periphery grew as a new center in the city. Following the construction of St. Angelo castle, built on Hadrian tomb in 401, at its east through to the back of St Peter, the site in time came to host many other buildings, including “smaller churches, papal apartments, monasteries” and “living-quarters for the clergy and hostels for pilgrims” (Hughes, 2011, p. 179). By 852, Pope Leo IV had built the first fortification around the site, which was subsequently defined and is today still known as Vatican City (Morris, 1994).

From the ninth century onwards, pilgrimages became a major activity in the history of Rome that many liken to modern day tourism. Such movements of people coming from all over Europe to visit Rome had never been witnessed before, and they brought the city significant financial benefit. Aldrete says that in 12th-century Rome, travel guides would describe the famous “pagan and Christian sites and buildings”, one of the most famous being the “Mirabilia Urbis Romae” – “the Marvels of Rome”, which told stories and passed on information about the city’s famous buildings (2004, p. 256).

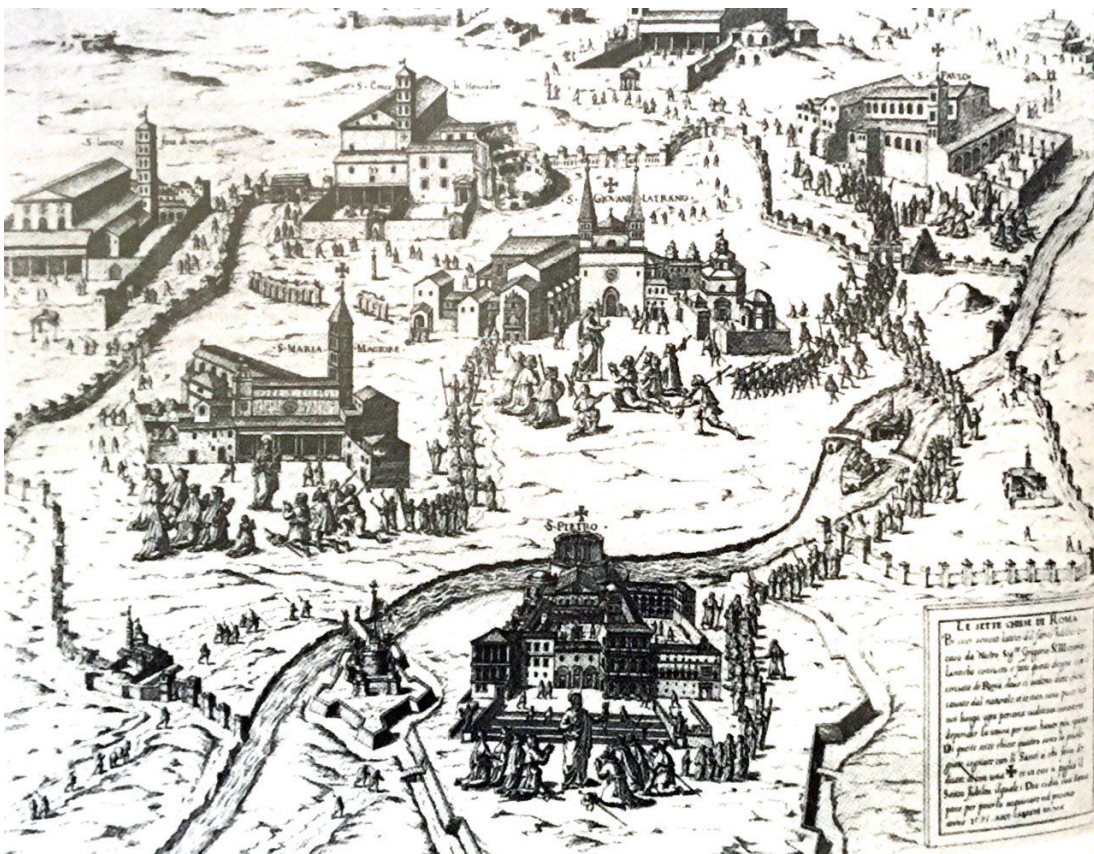


Figure 3-15: An engraving of Rome in the Middle Ages showing seven main pilgrimage churches
Source: Grundmann & Fürst, 2007, p. 72

In 1300, the pilgrimage movement was brought to a new level after Pope Boniface VIII came up with the idea of selling indulgences³⁶ in celebration of the “Jubilee Year”³⁷ (Morris, 1994, p. 176). This movement brought the Roman municipal authorities and the Pope many financial benefits, so much so that from 1300 onwards “the papal financial policy” relied on this income (ibid). Based on one source, the 1300 jubilee year saw 2 million pilgrims coming to Rome, corresponding to 30,000 pilgrims per day entering the city, bringing with them 50,000 worth of gold florins (ibid). This resulted in inevitable place-making activities, coordinated with this event. Morris claims that facilitating the pilgrimage group’s movement between “seven main churches”, their accommodation and their safety were among the most important considerations for the pilgrimage tourism sector (ibid).

Although pilgrims provided a financial lifeline to the city, the early second millennium through to its middle, Rome endured invasions, natural disasters and socio-political upheavals. According to Morris, the most destructive invasion took place in 1084, led by “the Norman allies of Gregory VII”. Rome was set on fire, and the result was the utter destruction of Campus Martius (the Field of Mars) and the region between the Lateran and Colosseum (1994, p. 176). The early 14th century to the mid-15th century was a period of great decline in the history of the city, with a combination of a power struggle and natural disasters causing a great halt in place-making activities and a marked drop in the population. Worthy of note is the replacement Avignon, a city in France, being appointed the new capital for Catholic Church as a result of factionalism and ongoing political struggles in Rome (Hughes, 2011). An earthquake in 1329 and the Black Death in 1347 greatly reduced the population, and by the time the papacy returned to Rome after 68 years of absence,

³⁶ The Christian authorities encouraged pilgrims, in exchange for their remission, to visit certain specific churches. This is goes by the term “indulgence” in religious literature, referring to “pardons for all sins against the church”. Previously, remissions had been granted only to participants in the Crusades and the financial supporters of the church (Morris, 1994, p. 176).

³⁷ Or “Holy Year”. This event resembled an older ritual commemorated every 50 years with pilgrimages to the Holy Land. After the seventh century, when the Muslims conquered Palestine, it was impossible for Christians to held this ritual, and so the jubilee became focused on Rome (Hughes, 2011, p. 183)

Morris states that “perhaps only 17,000” inhabitants remained in the city (1994, p. 177). The power struggle continued until the election of Martin V (1417–1431), who established an orderly government to restore what was left of Rome. According to Morris:

“By then Rome had reached the nadir of her fortunes. The Tiber River defenses were broken down - in 1420 flood water lapped the high altar in the Pantheon - the drainage system was silted up, the aqueducts were long since destroyed. All of the inherent deficiencies of the site had reasserted themselves and disease was rampant. The ancient Christian churches were dangerously decayed and from the account of Bracciolini, a Florentine visitor of 1420, it is evident that classical Rome had already been almost entirely destroyed.”

3.2.2 RENAISSANCE³⁸ ROME

Within the Middle Ages and medieval era Rome had experienced great desolation while the parallel development of adapting the new identity under the influence of Christianity and its clergy led to a new chapter within the development of the city. From mid-15th century through 17th Rome was subjected to a great transformation both in social and physical conditions. Papacy government had begun to establish more stable governing body within this period while it also greatly enjoyed counsel of intellectuals and practitioners. In these centuries Rome experienced vast repairment of churches, infrastructures and other practical buildings besides place-making as in the form of new constructions of buildings, streets and plazas. Place-making activities within this period flourished to mark one of the praised chapters of Rome’s history in terms of architecture and urbanism.

³⁸ Renaissance was a period bound up with major shift in socio-cultural conditions of Europe. The shift manifested in broad technological, intellectual and political developments. Advances in science, rise of authoritarian, discovery of uncharted places, cultural exchanges and reconsideration of religious thought were among the examples of these developments. Consideration of art, architecture and urbanism in terms of new styles through new constructions within major cities of Europe was another major development of this period bound up with this shift (Kostof, 1991).

Making of a new and splendor image for Rome was one of the important tendencies that authorities of Rome, popes, chased within this period. The flourishing of place-making activities of this period to a great extent was result of this ambition, an ambition which followed by great consideration of architecture and urbanism. Historians cite the ambition had its roots in remaining heritage of classic Rome in terms of the grandeur Rome had once and other empowerment of the image of Rome as center of the Catholic Church (Aldrete, 2004) (Hughes, 2011) (Morris, 1994). Nicholas V (1447-1455) was one of the main figures of such tendency, consider his words,

“To create solid and stable convictions in the minds of the uncultured masses there must be something that appeals to the eye: a popular faith, sustained only by doctrines, will never be anything but feeble and vacillating. But if the authority of the Holy See were visibly displayed in majestic buildings, imperishable memorials and witnesses seemingly planted by the hand of God himself, belief would grow and strengthen like a tradition from one generation to another, and all the world would accept and revere it. Noble edifices combining taste and beauty with imposing proportions would immensely conduce to the exaltation of the chair of St Peter.” (Cited in Morris, 1994, p, 176)

In order to finance his plan Nicholas V shortened the Jubilee to every 25 years and by 1450 the jubilee produced the intended revenue (Morris, 1994). His actions comprises of church repairs, city’s defenses reconstruction and preparation of key sites for future construction. In 1447 in an attempt to restore the abandoned population of “Quirinal, Viminal and Esquiline” hills Nicholas V exempted tax collection of these higher areas (Morris, 1994, p. 178). Reconstruction of “Aqua Virgine” to supply 63000 cubic meters of fresh water for city was another attempt by Nicholas V to strengthen infrastructure (ibid). Nicholas V also had reputation of being a humanist Pope; one important event which had fueled renaissance as cultural movement in Rome was the hosting of fled intellectuals from Constantinople, the capital of the eastern empire, which fell to the Turks in 1453 (Hughes, 2011).

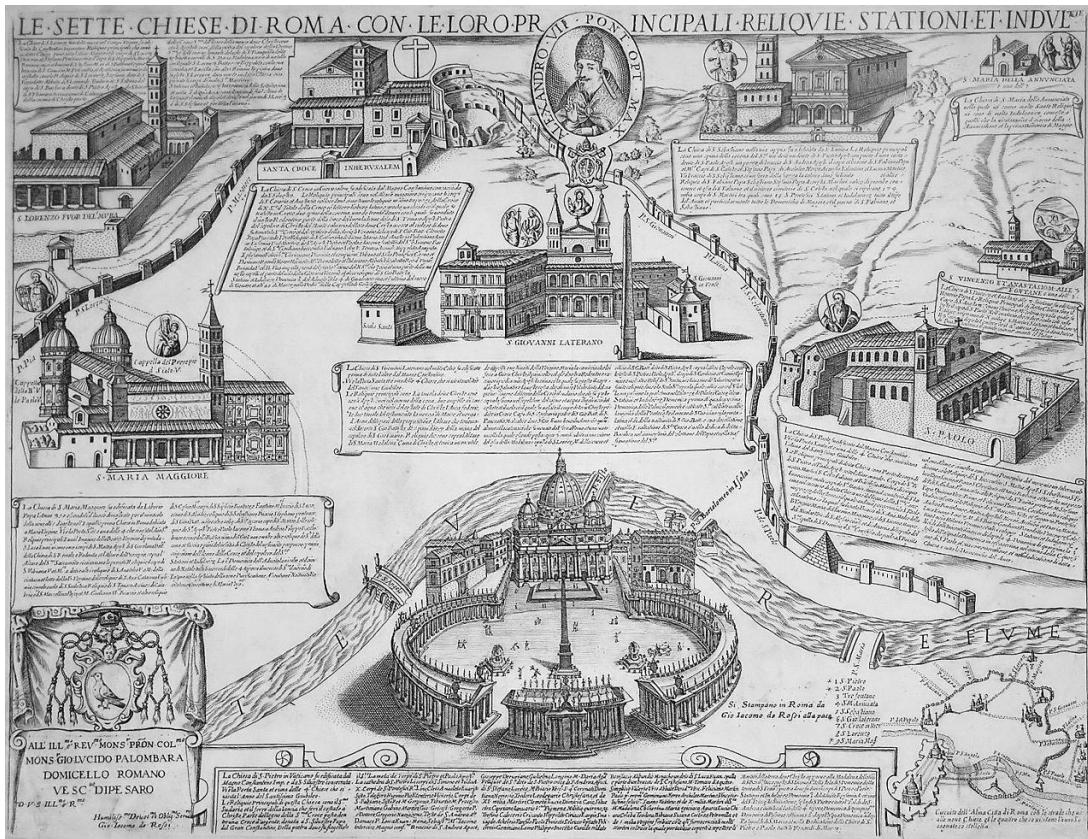


Figure 3-16: A guidance map for pilgrims, introducing seven churches for holy year of 1600.

Source:

https://s-s.en.wikipedia.org.prx.proxyunblocker.org/wiki/Basilica_di_Santa_Maria_Maggiore#/media/File:Seven_Churches_of_Rome_-_Giacomo_Lauro_-_1599.jpg (last accessed: 23/03/2018)

This new era within the timeline of the city is tied with the emergence of many individuals affiliated with specific profession who had significantly contributed in numerous administrative actions. Specifically within the domain of architecture and urbanism there were many names whose works became part of the history of Rome. As early as pontificate of Nicholas V architects such as “Brunelleschi³⁹”, “Donatello⁴⁰” and “Alberti⁴¹” put their efforts through scientific and technical

³⁹ Filippo Brunelleschi, born in 1377, Florence, Italy, he was one of the pioneers of early Renaissance architecture in Italy. His major work is the dome of the Cathedral of Santa Maria del Fiore (the Duomo) in Florence (1420–36), he has no work in Rome (Hyman, 2017)

⁴⁰ Donato di Niccolò di Betto Bardi, born in 1386, Florence, Italy, Italian Renaissance artist and master of sculpture in both marble and bronze (Janson, 2014)

methods. By using a new way of solid objects representation, linear perspective, and with the aid of strict measurements “Brunelleschi and Donatello” studied forms and styles of ancient Rome’s architecture which greatly influenced many future architects (Hughes, 2011). These works subsequently yielded to the publication of two important books “*Descriptio Urbis Romae*” “description of the city of Rome” and “*De re aedificatoria*” “On the matter of building” by Alberti who had close relationship with the pope Nicholas V and greatly contributed to his restoration program (Hughes, 2011).

The titles covered details about the main buildings of antiquity, major churches constructed till the time and other architectural matters of Rome through history. The rediscovery of the 10-volume book-“*De architectura*” which is written by the famous Roman engineer Vitruvius containing aspects of Roman architecture and engineering had also contributed greatly to this development. The renaissance architecture as one of the important styles within the history of the profession is greatly indebted to these endeavors which consequently had a great imprint on the city’s landscape. The style mainly inspired by the Rome’s ancient architecture for which the architecture of bath complexes and basilicas became the main source of inspiration for the design of important churches in the period (Hughes, 2011) (Fried, 1973)

Sixtus IV (1471-1484) was another main figure who had conducted many improvements and reconstructions through his pontificate. To prepare for the jubilee of 1475 and it’s afterward he rebuilt and restored structures such as “Santo Spirito Hospital”, “Aqua Virgine” and “Trevi Fountain” (Morris, 1994, p.178). To raise the attraction of the city he followed a policy to collect the antique statues and displaying them on the Capitol Hill (Hughes, 2011). Another important attempt of this pope was his consideration of rules and regulation in construction activities. In 1480 he issued a command to clear the streets and open spaces of Rome from building rubbles and other obstructions (Morris, 1994). The other attempt was the

⁴¹ Leon Battista Alberti, born in 1404, Genoa, Italy, was one of the most famous humanists and architects of Renaissance era

establishment of a planning commission to consider the effect of physical improvements on public and private property ownership (ibid).



Figure 3-17: Santo Spirito Hospital, the oldest hospital in Rome
Source: Grundmann & Fürst, 2007, p. 105

Another pope who had affection for antiquity Rome's glory was Julius II (1503-1513). Taken his name from Julius the first, Julius Caesar, the pope had determination to restore Rome and promote the Catholic Church power (Hughes, 2011). During his papacy many administrating measures were taken. Bringing order to inherited problems from medieval era, the existence of high rate crime, self-proclaimed divisions in Rome's districts by clans and other problems such as high price of food and drinking water, were the actions which made by this pope (Hughes, 2011).

Julius II is also known for his final decision about the Basilica of St Peter which had suffered from poor structure and repaired many times (Morris, 1994). His solution was to demolish the old and build a new and vast structure for this important church. According to records there was no hesitation for demolishing old buildings

and structures to provide not only the intended space but that the materials were directly collected from these structures (Morris, 1994) (Hughes, 2011). In 1506 a foundation laid out and the construction of the new structure in accordance with the design of “Bramante” had started (Morris, 1994). It took 120 years till the new structure completed and many artists and architects contributed in the process including famous names such as “Raphael” and “Michelangelo” (Morris, 1994).

One of the most important actions which had been made by the papacy government in this period was the extensive plan carried out by Sixtus V (1585-1590). Restoring order, promoting environmental and health conditions, repairment of infrastructures and perhaps most importantly execution of an extensive urbanism plan were among the actions taken by this pope (Morris, 1994) (Hughes, 2011). The urbanism plan which had been executed by pope Sixtus V without a doubt is one of the famous urban design and architectural projects within the history of these professions. It is almost impossible to find an architectural or urbanism history book without mentioning the significance of this project and the impact it had and has made on the direction of these professions. According to Morris the plan was envisioned to achieve “three main objectives”: first, establishment of direct water supply for the hills of Rome to repopulate the area; second, establishment of a “street system” to connect main churches and other important sites of the city and to integrate existing streets and future developments; third, creating an “aesthetic unity” through disparate building forming streets and public spaces (1994, p, 179).

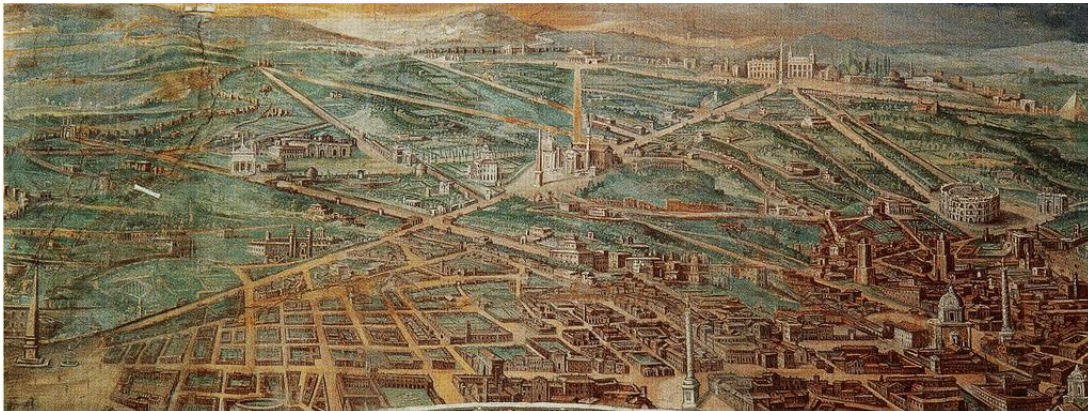


Figure 3-18: Pope Sixtus V plan, sketched by Fresco at Vatican

Source: <https://www.flickr.com/photos/24364447@N05/6073167679/> (last accessed: 23/03/2018)

The consideration of street system was perhaps the most important aspect which the plan hoped to achieve and in fact as many commentators suggest consideration of this element and associated construction activities became a consistent effort in post-medieval era (Bacon, 1976) (Kostof, 1991). In order to speed up the communication, enhancing practicality and making vistas, some of the major place-making activities of this period directed toward street and piazza-making (Morris, 1994) (Kostof, 1991). Pilgrimage industry and coach⁴² riding as a new mean of transportation were among the important factors directly linked with this development.

Examples⁴³ of this activity can be traced from Pope Nicholas V as he designated the bridgehead across the river Tiber next to castle S. Angelo and Vatican quarter as focal point where five routs diverged into the old medieval city later the focal point became a plaza called the Piazza di Ponte. Sixtus IV took on administering objectives by regulating pilgrim movement. In order to prevent stampede he introduced one-way routing by one bridge for visiting St Peter and another for return. Alexander VI (1492-1503) built a new street, the Borgo Nuovo, to link castle S. Angelo to Vatican. Julius II constructed two new streets on either sides of the river Tiber, Via Giulia and Via Lungara. During the papacy of Paul III (1534-1549)

⁴² By 1594 there were 883 coaches in Rome (Kostof, 1991)

⁴³ From Morris, 1994, pp, 175-187

remaking of Capitol Hill by Michelangelo had happened which was one of the praised and significant designs of renaissance era. During pontificate of Alexander VII (1665-1667) “Piazza Del Popolo” was rebuilt. The pizza was located in one of the important entrances of the city from north. One important policy to regulate future developments and creating visual focal points was the obelisk making. Obelisks were erected at important intersections and other key locations mostly at front of the key churches. The places at which obelisks were located often turned in to a plaza or remained as a point of reference for further developments to ensure long-term unity for the city’s landscape.

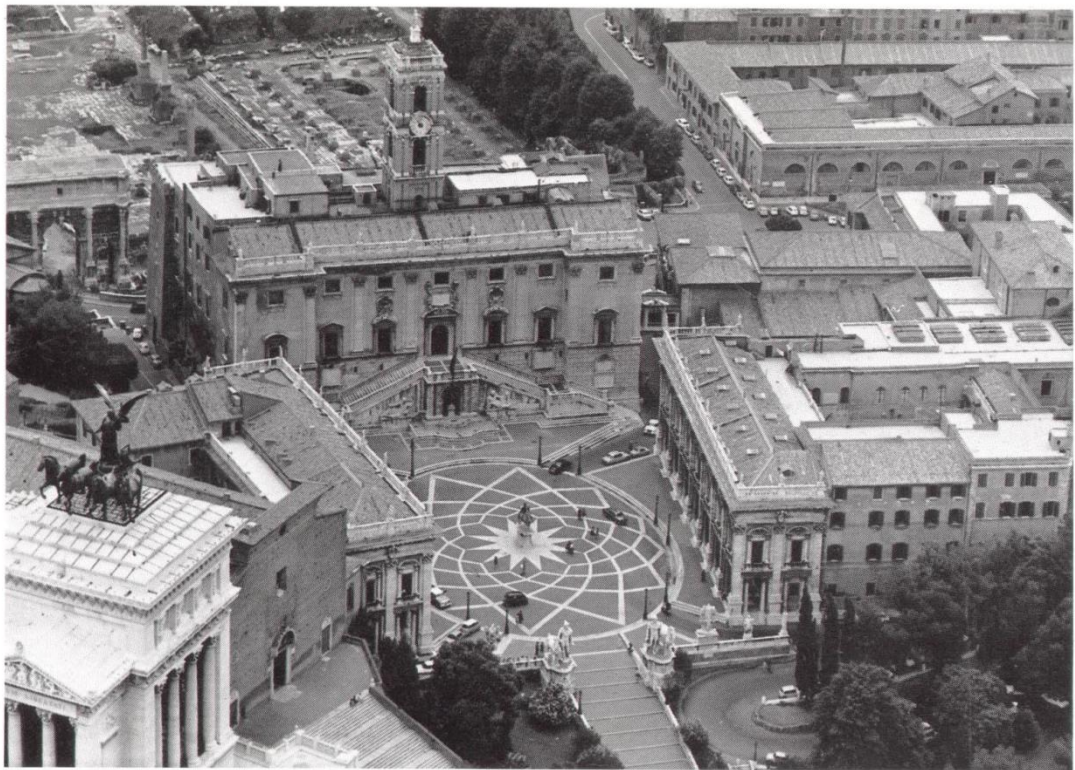


Figure 3-19: The Capitoline square
Source: Schulz, 1980, p. 151

By the 17th century the emergence of the reformation movements against the policies and religious rhetoric of the Catholic Church, the leaders of the faith in response came up with a political agenda which is known to history as “counter-reformation” (Hughes, 2011). As part of this agenda consideration of art and architecture was an important tool which had been used by the church defenders.

Historians suggest this event led to the formation of the artistic style of Baroque which is known for its powerful scenery technics (Hughes, 2011) (Fried, 1973). In order to communicate their agenda and to project the power of the church in response to the reformation movements many popes during the 17th century encouraged the style which led to the creation of some major art works and architectures within the city and also beyond. The style is mostly associated to the works done by the famous sculpture and architect “Bernini” (1598-1680) who possessed a viable role in directing artistic patronage initiated by Pope Urban VIII (1623-44) (Hughes, 2011). During his career he had done many major and enduring works including the completion of St. Peter’s church, its piazza and piazza Navona (ibid). As a result of these actions Rome within this period steadily regained some of its fortune. The population of the city rose from 35000 in 1458 to 124000 in 1656.



Figure 3-20: Piazza San Pietro
Source: Schulz, 1980, p. 153



Figure 3-21: Piazza Navona
Source: Schulz, 1980, p. 162

3.2.3 LATE PAPACY PERIOD

Following the pilgrimage movement the tourism activity of Rome in 18th century promoted to one that titled “high-style tourism” (Kirk, 2005a). To discover the roots of western civilization many high educated foreigners as in the form of diplomats, aristocrats, artists, architects and others found visiting Rome obligatory (Aldrete, 2004). The activity became known “Grand Tour” which guests had an extended stay in the vicinity of Rome and pay visit to historical sites from both pagan and Christian era (Kirk, 2005a). The activity influenced Rome and Romans in many ways so much so that Hughes writes by the early 19th century Rome was swarmed by high-class foreigners as “the world’s school” (2011, p. 379). Raise in employment, flourishing of selling goods especially works of art and antiques, raise in archeological excavation beside the effects of cultural exchange and historical self-consciousness for Romans were some of the impacts of this activity (Kirk, 2005a) (Aldrete, 2004) (Hughes, 2011).

The flourishing of archeological excavations, private collections, trade of antiques and ancient artifacts led to the intervention of the papal government. Laws and regulations made by several popes to limit excavation licenses and strict ever increasing trade of antiques besides in this period Rome has seen the emergence of places devoted to demonstrate historical objects and artifacts. Following the action of pope Sixtus IV who provided a collection of marble ancient statues on Capitol Hill for public demonstration, the collection grew in number as several popes donated many more artifacts till 1734 which a place specifically designated to house these collections and opened to public (Hughes, 2011). “For the curiosity of foreign visitors and dilettantes and for the use of scholars” according to the pope Clement XII (1730-40) the Palazzo Nuovo, designed by Michelangelo, was opened as a public museum (Kirk, 2005a, p. 66). In 1747 an expert cardinal in matters of artifacts and antiques “Albani” planned to construct another public museum for increasing demand. A site was chosen at suburban along the “Via Salaria” and construction started in 1755 and it took 8 years to finish the work. The place called “Villa Albani” and admired for its architecture using domestic Roman details parallel with landscape design of an “English garden” as an influence of foreign cultural exchange (Kirk, 2005a, p. 69). Another museum was opened in Vatican during the pontificate of pope Clement XIV (1769-74) as a need for a trustworthy place amidst rise of speculation and misuses. Later the museum expanded by the next pope Pius VI (1775-99) and named “Pio-Clementino” museum (Kirk, 2005a). The museum later became known as one of the instances of modern public museums in accordance with the policy of long-term preservation of cultural heritage (ibid).

By 1796 an invasion to Italy led by Napoleon Bonaparte brought changes to Rome and its broader region. The change begun with the formation of Cisalpine Republic in Rome and exile of pope Pius VI in 1798 and it followed by many socio-physical changes till 1815 as former government reestablished. This short period of time within the history of Rome was accompanied by some of the early manifestations of modernity in terms of secularism and rationalism which for a city

with thousand years of religious experience was an utterly new experience with great consequences on Romans and their relationship with their surroundings.

Among the early events of this period was the holding of festivals and carnivals as a media to transmit new ideas and ideologies. Holding festivals was already a firm institution in Rome which had ancient roots and great influence on daily life of Romans (Dunstan, 2010). Reenacting crucial episodes of French revolution, singing patriotic songs and rise of revolutionary symbols on important buildings were among the activities practiced in this period. One important festival was “Festa della Federazione” which staged in piazza of St Peter. The event illustrated on a 30 meters in diameter stage with four Doric columns at sides named “patriotic altar” designed by several architects and sculptures (Kirk, 2005a). Although the stage later removed from the piazza but the design became known as early efforts in using architecture for secular purposes in the time (ibid).



Figure 3-22: Villa Albani
Source: Kirk, 2005a, p. 68

Historians suggest Napoleon had a great affection for Rome (Hughes, 2011)(Kirk, 2005a). Seeing himself as descendant of Rome's emperors the ancient history of the city was of great importance for him (Kirk, 2005a). Rome was declared an imperial city second only to Paris (ibid). This led to developments such as consideration of architectural and urbanistic matters beside large-scale archeological excavations.

Archeology in terms of a modern science in uncovering, restoring, and assessing ancient remains pervasively practiced within this period. Excavation of the Roman forum and many other historical sites was boosted to uncover the ancient history of the city and also to discover artifacts and other antiques. Many French academics had installed to assess the findings of excavations and many antiques and art works exported to France (Kirk, 2005a).

On architectural and urbanistic matters a commission called "des Embellissements" formed to pursue the urbanistic schemes envisioned for the city. Key figure in this commission was "Giuseppe Valadier" an Italian architect who executed and designed many plans through the Napoleonic era and after. One important agenda of this commission was to organize piazzas and other open and public spaces of the city in order to enhance socialization of inhabitants. Enlargements of public piazzas at "the Pantheon", "Trevi Fountain", "the Palazzo Venezia", and "the Vatican Borgo" were among the examples of this effort (Kirk, 2005a, p. 114). An important design in this period had happened in "Piazza del Popolo", completing its long evolution. By erecting a garden promenade adjacent to piazza on Pincian Hill a new structure attached to the city defined by greeneries integrated to piazza (Kirk, 2005a, p. 119).

Another important example of a desire for restoration of public spaces with ancient scenography had happened in the abandoned Roman Forum. The forum was already on excavating policy process till in a ceremonial event on "21 April 1811", the legendary date of the founding of the city, citizens marched on the sacred way, Via Sacra, trees were planted on unexcavated areas along green colonnades and

monuments cleared of obstacles to be presented in an easy and accessible way (Kirk, 2005, p. 120).



Figure 3-23: A painting of ruins of the Forum, Looking towards the Capitol by Canaletto in 1742

Source:

http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Roman_Forum#/media/File:Rome_Ruins_of_the_Forum,_Looking_towards_the_Capitol.jpg (last accessed: 23/03/2018)

By 1815 after the fall of Napoleon and the reestablishment of the former government Rome had entered the last several decades of papacy regime control. This ending chapter of the era was coincided with the early experiences of modernity

as well as the attention to historical image of the city which finally by the rise of national unification movement led by Vittorio Emanuele II from the mid-19th century the long lasted reign of papacy reached to its end.

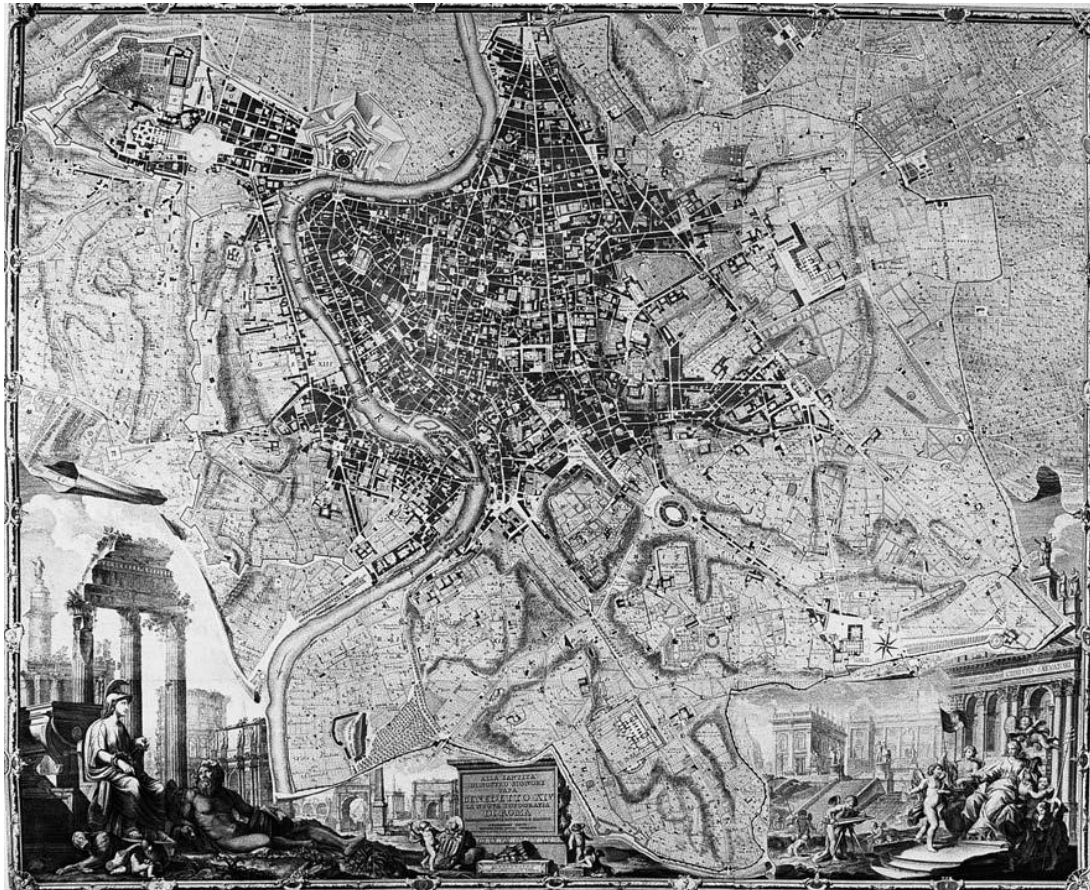


Figure 3-24: Map of Rome by Giovanni Battista Nolli, *La Nuova pianta di Roma* in 1748
Source: Kirk, 2005a, p. 21

The restoration of historical sites and monuments had continued within this period. It is suggested that “scientific restoration” have had its roots in this period as already established artistic and architectural commissions with head figures such as “Raffaele Stern” and “Carlo Fea” had begun to restore some of the important monuments of the ancient past (Kirk, 2005a, p. 169). The Colosseum was an example of this practice. During the reign of Pope Pius VII (1800-23) and his successor Pope Leo XII (1823-29) in several occasion innovative actions taken to

restore what was left from the structure through earthquakes and material pillages (Kirk, 2005a).

The other important event within this period was the beginning of the usage of new technics and materials as part of the influence of the industrial revolution, most prominently the usage of iron which utilized the construction of new type of buildings such as railway stations, bridges and markets. Following the construction of “Italy’s first iron suspension” over “the Garigliano River at Minturno north of Naples” in 1832, the river Tiber also bridged with this new technology (Kirk, 2005a, p. 166).

During the reign of Pius IX (1846-78), the last pope of papacy period, the first development schemes appeared throughout the city. The first train station-“Stazione Termini” constructed and laced with lines to Naples and a system of train rails with the new steel technology had constructed (Kirk, 2005a, p.222). The area near the station saw the earliest real estate development on the Esquiline Hill. As a record shows a grid of streets was laid out near the station and the plots of land distributed which eventually marked the earliest expansion of the city (ibid).

3.3 CONTEMPORARY ERA

By the abolishment of papacy rule over the city through the process of Italian unification which had been the hallmark of the late 19th century, a new era begun for Rome. This new era contained several important interconnected developments which has influenced the lives of Rome’s inhabitants so as their place-making activities till the present day, constituting the contemporary era of the city.

The designation of the city as the capital of the new emerging nation in 1870, the contemporary era begun by fitting the city to the new role it came to play. This lasting initiative till the present day in its first stage coincided with different socio-political developments as well as the technological advancements, which on the whole came to be known as the early manifestations of modernity within the city.

By the dawn of the World War I and its aftermath the rise to power of fascism in the second decade of the 20th century became the next stage of the contemporary history of the city. The empowerment of technical modernization and the immense development programs for the city along with the new socio-political atmosphere associated with the new regime became the hallmark of the period so as the rapid growth of already increased population of the city.

In after almost two decades, the dawn of the Second World War in 1939 marked the next stage of the city's development. Facing with the consequences of another great war and the formation of new socio-political developments, once again, became the precursor of the middle decades of the 20th century which coincided with rapid growth of the population of the city and its size.

By reaching to the last decades of the 20th century and the early 21st the city has gone through the final stage of its contemporary history. Facing with the consequences of a century of intense modernization and development along with acquiring new directions for the future became the generator of currents within this time span lasting till the present day as the city and its inhabitants continue to live on.

3.3.1 EARLY MODERN PLACE-MAKING

The contemporary era within the history of the city begins with unification process that started in 1848 and ended with the surrender of Rome in 1870. Rome became the capital of the unified Italy, and through to the end of World War I and the rise of the fascist regime, the city underwent various transformations and developments. The empowerment of manifestations of modernity, the changing socio-political scene in the city and the establishment of the new government, all influenced place-making activities in this period.

On September 20, 1870, Rome was the final region to succumb to unification, which led to the end of Papal control over the city. This major event in the history of Italy and Rome was spurred several thoughts and actions that increased place-making activities in this period. According to Fried (1973, pp, 19-20) the city at the end of

the papacy era was surrounded by vast stretches of poor rural areas and malaria. The population of the city in 1870 had reached to “226022” and the majority of the public were depended on church and great noble families associated with it for a living (ibid).

The deliberate policy of church to isolate the city from “the currents of modern” had rendered the city socio-culturally backward with no significant commerce or industry. However, the geographical location of the city, the topography and the heritage of the earlier regimes, both Roman and Catholic, all combined to make the city of Rome a great political and architectural asset, worthy of becoming the capital of an emerging nation (Fried, 1973)(Kirk, 2005a). The words of two activists from that period provide a clear understanding of the situation at the time:

“Our work is still incomplete until we have proven to foreigners . . . that we are no lesser than our forefathers. . . .Whoever enters the great city finds the synthesis of two great ages, one more marvelous than the other. The monuments that celebrate these ages are the pride of the world, they are for the Italians a sharp reminder of their duties. We also need to establish Rome and to erect our monuments to civilization so that our descendants might be able to say that we were great like our forefathers.” (By Francesco Crispi, a leftist minority leader, cited in Kirk, 2005a, p. 224)

“Italian Rome needs to rise as a new personality, an unprecedented event, with its new institutions, with its original monuments, to demonstrate what the capital city of a grand people could be before the capital of two successive worlds.” (By Primo Levi, an art critic and journalist, cited in Kirk, 2005a, p. 226)

This historical consciousness was followed by many physical modifications to Rome. The physical destruction or modification of structures associated with former government, the housing of governmental ministries, the establishment of new institutions and their associated offices, the growing speculation and real estate

activities, and the construction of new piazzas, boulevards and monuments were among the most noteworthy place-making activities of this period (Fried, 1973) (Kirk, 2005a).

Establishment of a commission of architects and engineers to foresee the future development of the city on September 30, 1870, was among the earliest actions of the new authorities of the city (Archibugi, 2005). In accordance with the national law No. 2359 ratified on June 22, 1865, local government of the city was authorized to make master plans in order to improve housing and traffic flow within the existing urban fabric and to ensure the proper development of the new fabric yet to be built (Fried, 1973).

The commission according to records had considerable flexibility in directing the expansion of the city. The legal territory allocated to the city's development was 800 square miles and very little of this vast area was built up (Fried, 1973). The vast majority of Rome's population at the time lived within the ancient walls built by Emperor Aurelia in 275 (ibid). It was witnessed even within this area most of the residents compressed in the ancient district-the Campus Martius which was the only half of the area enclosed by walls, the rest included private villas, vineyards and ancient ruins (ibid). Ultimately after three years of debate and study it was decided that the commission remain as an advisory council devoted to general policy making and not to provide a legally binding plan for development.

In the meantime, as in the case of accommodating the new government establishments into the city there were adaptations and new construction activities. For instance "Vittorio Emanuele II", the king, took up residence overlooking the city in the "Quirinal palace", "Palazzo Montecitorio" was adapted to the needs of the legislature institution and "Palazzo Quirinale" became the permanent residence of the Italian head of state. Ministry of finance was the first new construction for a government agency in Rome which took place in 1872 (Kirk, 2005a).

In years to follow general guiding policies of giving maximal encouragement to private investors, slum clearances, construction of major new arteries across and through the old fabric, residential development in east and west of the old fabric and banking of the Tiber begun to shape the new districts of the city (Fried, 1973). Among these a large street-building program along with the real estate development took the greater share of place-making activities of the period. As being a manifestation of modernizing the city, many demolitions carried out within the old fabric to supplant boulevards, streets and squares (ibid). Moreover, real estate development in the city became one of the most profitable investments in Italy and even Europe (ibid).

As a result of the political shift and the new role the city was given the immigration to Rome became one of the influencing and persistent phenomena in the decades to come. The high demand for new residential and office units in turn led to the investment of foreign and Italian syndicates in buying and trading lots, materials and buildings (Fried, 1973). According to records many associated religious members of the former government sold their properties as fast as they could out of the fear of secularizing policy of the new government (ibid). Some noble families, either church or aristocratic related, begun to establish real estate corporations and pass the ownership of their estates to these corporations forming powerful actors in shaping the new city (ibid).

The development on Esquiline Hill to the east of the old city was a major example of this development. The area had already undergone a level of transformation into a new housing settlement under the former government, and the first railway station in the city was inaugurated there in 1874. The first boulevard in the new capital, named initially “Via Nuova” but changed later to “Via Nazionale”, was constructed in this region connecting the old city center with new developments (Kirk, 2005a, p. 227). The area also saw the opening of the first public garden in the city, with the name “Piazza Vittorio Emanuele II”, built by Roman engineer Francesco de Mari in

1871(ibid). By the 1880s, apartment blocks had started to be constructed at the periphery of the piazza to house the new civil servants (ibid).



Figure 3-25: Via Nazionale
Source: Kirk, 2005a, p. 228

As was witnessed many times in the history of the city, the emergence of a new government was accompanied by a level of monumentalism, aimed at establishing a new image for a new era. Among the symbolic and monumental place-making activities of this period, the construction of the monument to King Vittorio Emanuele II, who passed away in 1878, was a key example. In 1880 it was decided to locate the monument on the northern slope of Capitoline Hill, and after several competitions, construction of the winning project started in 1885, and the building was inaugurated in 1911 (Kirk, , 2005a). The 1880s saw other such projects, including the construction in 1882 of the statue of Giuseppe Garibaldi, an important nationalist Italian general, on Janiculum Hill, which was inaugurated in 1895, and the monument to Camillo Cavour, the first Prime Minister to the united Italy, which was also inaugurated in 1895 (ibid).

An important event marking the 1880's was the ratification of the first ever detail plan for the city in 1883 (Fried, 1973). On the condition of locating several public buildings such as military infrastructures, hospitals, prisons, academy of science and ministries on a duly approved plan, the national government agreed to finance the constructions and the plan was designed by the engineer Viviani (Kirk, , 2005a, p. 243). The plan oversaw the construction of entire area within the Aurelian walls and also periphery residential development outside the wall at the west. Besides the plan covered details about construction of infrastructures and streets.



Figure 3-26: Alessandro Viviani, Master Plan, Rome, 1883.
Source: Kirk, 2005a, p. 241

As the result of the actions carried out through the plan and other intense construction activities carried out by private sectors, the 1880's became known as “febbre edilizia” meaning “building fever” (Fried, 1973, p. 24). Many of the envisioned streets by the plan constructed and the designated public buildings were built. A slum district within the old fabric of the city, known as the Ghetto, which

was enclosed by walls in 1555 subjected to clearance and redevelopment (Hughes, 2011). Infrastructures such as the construction of tall protective walls at the bank of the river to prevent periodic flooding as well as the consideration of hygiene, hydraulic engineering of marshes and river connection continued to transform the city and as a record shows the boom of real estate development of 70's was elevated even more as the influx of immigrants for employment continued (Fried, 1973). Many villas and great estates within the city were destroyed or divided to make space for subdivision which led to the destruction of many gardens around the city.



Figure 3-27: inauguration ceremony of Monument to Vittorio Emanuele II, Rome, 4 June 1911.
Source: Kirk, 2005a, p. 237

Accordingly much of the landscape of the city was transformed within these years, yet as the records shows it was not the one that the plan had envisioned (Archibugi, 2005) (Fried, 1973). It is believed that the given freedom to private investors and real estate developers led to many irregularities in construction activities of the time. Not only land speculation became a considerable phenomenon within these years but that much of the construction activities took place outside the master plan's perimeter, specifically outside the walls of the city (Fried, 1973). To benefit from tax exemption policy, which was designed to promote the development

and reclamation of the Agro Romano, many residential developments located outside of the city, while the constructions inside the walls suffered (ibid).

In this sense, it was witnessed that many areas planned for the development remained unbuilt, while the authorities were forced to pay for services of the vast neighborhoods outside the plan, where speculators had built without any supervision. These events coupled with the fact that the development of residential units within the time exceeded the need of the entire population, which ultimately resulted to a decade of economic depression and a major halt in construction activities (Fried, 1973, p. 25). According to a record the 1887's economic crash left many half-finished houses across the city and the police required 29000 construction workers to leave and return to their home towns (ibid).

The crisis was soon begun to grow and left social upheavals within the city. Some associate this event with the emergence of social movements in the following years which eventually led to the greater socio-political crisis till a coalition government seized the power in 1900 (Fried, 1973, p. 25). By the time the population of the city had doubled within thirty years and reached to over "400000" and the modernization process followed by the emergence of electricity, trams and automobiles (ibid).

By 1907, Ernesto Nathan elected as the new mayor of the city, whom was given the task of drafting a new master plan, as the prior plan was due to expiration (Kirk, 2005a). In 1909, the Mayor and his commissioner Edmondo Sanjust set out a new plan that saw the development of the city beyond the ancient walls through an extension of prior plan streets. The plan included the integration of green areas with the urban expansion, and also applied a concept of zoning for "low-density garden city development" based on permissible building types and the designation of major public building complexes (Kirk, 2005a, p, 255).

According to records, even though the plan marked many new residential districts for low density development composing “villini” that is apartment houses with a maximum three stories but, under the influence of different interest groups other building types such as “palazzine”, apartment houses with maximum height of 19 meters with four stories for higher price lands, and “intensive”, 10 to 12 story tenements for lower income classes, found their way into the landscape of the city (Fried, 1973, p. 29).

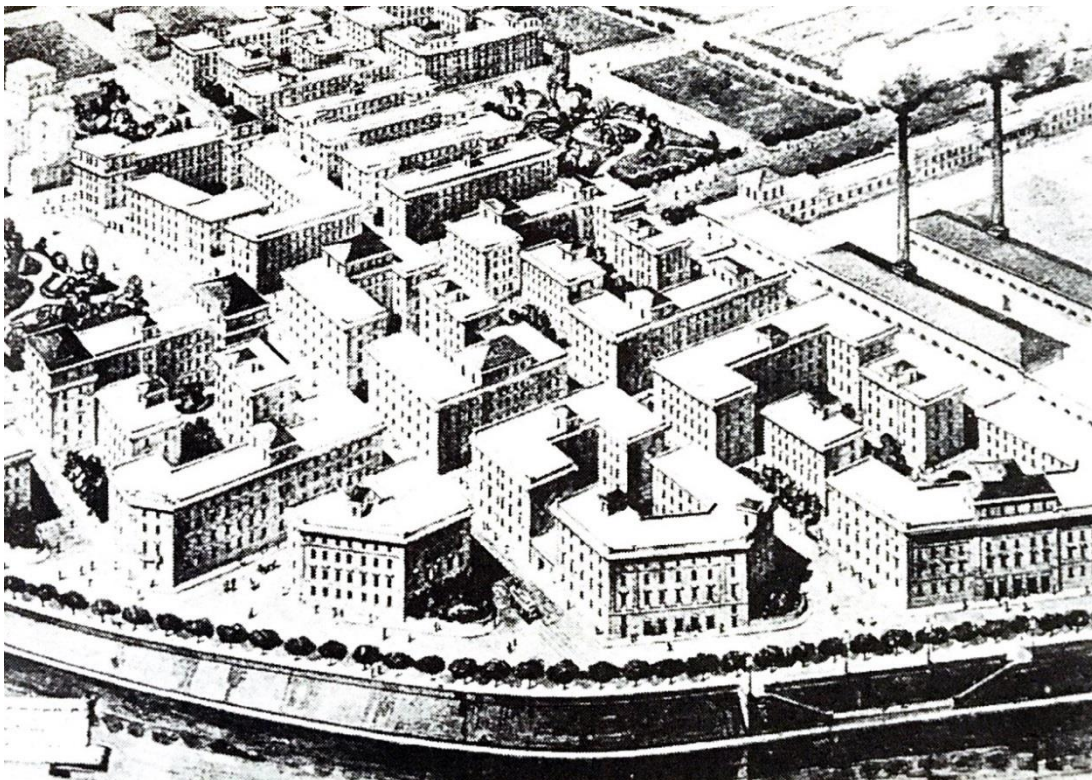


Figure 3-28: Testaccio public housing
Source: Grundmann & Fürst, 2007, p. 293

The first decade of 20th century had also seen first ever social public housing project in Rome designed, ratified and executed by a government (Fried, 1973, pp. 27-29) (Kirk, 2005b, pp. 27-28). The projects were the products of two new public agencies, namely the Istituto per le Case Popolari (ICP), on local scale, and the Istituto Nazionale Case per gli Impiegati dello Stato (INCIS), on national scale, for state employees, to provide low-cost housing (Ghirardo, 2013).

During Nathan's term as the mayor ICP projects flourished within the city and as a record suggests by the end of the decade subsidized housings outnumbered those that constructed by speculation activities (Kirk, 2005b, p. 27). The first ICP project in Rome dates 1906 and it is located behind the medieval Church of San Saba, near Testaccio, featuring forty-four duplex units, detached and semidetached brick row houses (ibid).

Another major construction activity in this period, contained within the recent master plan, was the building of an international exhibition center as the venue for an event marking the progress made by Italy in architecture and other civic fields,⁴⁴ targeting the international audience (Kirk, 2005a). The event was to take place in 1911, marking the 50th anniversary of Italian national unity (Kirk, 2005a). Following the architectural exercise of constructing new building types such as galleries, department stores and other public and functional buildings, which had been flourished through the new era, the organizers of the exhibition intended to demonstrate this experience (Hughes, 2011).

Construction of the site began in 1908 and the venue was opened officially in 1911, and included structures built by international contributors that were integrated into the urban fabric of the city, known collectively as the "Galleria Nazionale d'Arte Moderna" (Kirk, 2005a, p. 256). The overall program saw the construction of other infrastructural elements, including bridges and a stadium, and took advantage of a number of innovative construction methods, such as reinforced concrete (Kirk, 2005a).

⁴⁴ Mayor Nathan referred to this as Rome's "great secular jubilee" (Cited in Kirk, 2005a, p. 255).



Figure 3-29: Testaccio public housing
Source: Grundmann & Fürst, 2007, p. 293

3.3.2 MODERN PLACE-MAKING

With the dawning of World War I in 1914 and its aftermath, Italy, and its capital Rome, entered into a new era. The 1920s, through to the beginning of World War II, saw the emergence of a fascist regime in the country that brought about great transformations. After almost 18 centuries, Rome once again became home to more than 1 million inhabitants, suggesting a flourishing of place-making activities in the period (Fried, 1973).

In the late second decade of 20th century and early 1920s Italy as result of war and other socio-political developments had entered to an era of social unrest and political instability. According to historical evidences many Italian cities including its capital became the scenes of commemorating war events, political and ideological maneuvers, and mass rallies with the usage of flags, symbols and emblems, all becoming everyday phenomena (Kirk, 2005b) (Ginsborg, 2003) (Ghirardo, 2013). The newly developed means of mass media, radio and film, had provided the influx with more penetration and resulted to a more inflammatory conditions (Kirk, 2005b).

It is believed that as an active partner of these developments and also as a result of them, a group of people who called themselves “Fasces” led by their head figure “Benito Mussolini” took the advantage of the situation and rose to power. During a symbolic march through Rome on October 28, 1922 the Fasces, wearing black shirts, demonstrated their strength and power, and by 1926 as Mussolini had seized full control of the country in Parliament with his “National Fascist Party”, the Fasces became the sole rulers of the nation (Kirk, 2005b).

The fascist regime was known for its extreme nationalism, based on military power and the symbolization of political power. It is believed that the regime had a clear agenda to restore the power to Italy that it had enjoyed under the rule of the Imperial Romans, along with socialist and cooperative policies in favor of the state belonging to the masses. The new era under the new order saw construction activities on a grand scale, as well as new developments in professional place-making activities. Rome, as the capital of the state housing a wealth of historical assets, was subjected to a variety of transformations.

The image of the capital and its functionality were among the important considerations of the new regime. As was witnessed many times in the history of the city, the heritage of Rome’s past had always played an important role in the authority’s visions for the city. Many believe by the emergence of the unified Italy and the designation of Rome as the capital of the nation, this heritage, especially one that associated with the Imperial era, became more important, as the city became the unifying symbol of power and glory of Italian people (Archibugi, 2005) (Fried, 1973) (Kirk, 2005b). This approach within the fascism era became even sharper, consonant with the extreme nationalistic policy of the regime, which Italians were to draw from the heritage of ancient Rome a sense of pride, power and discipline. This policy had also coupled with the modernization tendency of the regime to provide greater leverage within the competing international scene of the time. Mussolini voiced this movement in this way,

“My ideas are clear. My orders are precise. Within five years Rome must appear marvelous to all the peoples of the world, vast, ordered, powerful, as it was in the time of the first empire of Augustus.”

“You (addressing the first governor of Rome) shall continue to free the trunk of the great oak from everything that darkens it: you shall create vast spaces around Theater of Marcellus, the Capitoline Hill, and the Pantheon. All that has grown up around them in the centuries of decadence must disappear.”

“Thus the third Rome will spread itself onto other hills, along the banks of the sacred river, to reach the shores of the Tyrrhenian Sea. A straight line—the broadest in the world—shall carry the furry of mare nostrum from arisen Ostia to the heart of the city where the Unknown Soldier stands guard.” (Benito Mussolini, 1925 cited in Fried, 1973, p. 31)



Figure 3-30: An addressing of Mussolini at piazza Venezia

Source:

[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Dichiarazione_di_guerra_a_Piazza_Venezia_\(10_giugno_1940\).jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Dichiarazione_di_guerra_a_Piazza_Venezia_(10_giugno_1940).jpg) (last accessed: 21/01/2018)

In order to set the tone for this policy Mussolini himself moved the prime minister offices from palazzo Chigi to piazza Venezia next to the Tomb of the Unknown Soldier and the Roman forums (Fried, 1973). The piazza became the political center of Italy and the square's balcony became the world-famous stage for the regime's massive rallies and ceremonies (ibid).

This development was followed by the regime reorganization of the city's government as all autonomous political and labor organization as well as free press abolished and an appointed governor, instead of an elected mayor, took the office in 1925 (Fried, 1973). For the first time since the Imperial era, the state regained ultimate power over administering the city and The "Casa del Fascio" as the headquarter of the Fascist party became the seat of the governor replacing town hall as the administering tool for the civic life (Kirk, 2005b). The headquarters were technologically advanced, fitted out with radios and film projectors that were used mainly for announcements to mass audiences in every city, especially in Rome (ibid).

Construction of public facilities and technical modernization of the city were important actions carried out during the fascist era. This included the construction of post offices, train station, university, sport complexes, cinema and film studios. Some of the amenities located within the city's ancient walls such as the construction of new structure for the main train station of the city-the Stazione Termini in 1938-42, and others such as constructions of Cinecittà film studios in 1937 at the east, new campus for the university of Rome-the Citta` Universitaria in 1932-34 at the north east and the new sport complex-the Foro Mussolini in 1928-1932 at the north west, located outside the walls (Kirk, 2005b).

Drafting the third official master plan for the city in 1931 by an appointed committee consisting of architects, engineers and city officials, was the another important event within this era. The plan had addressed both the needs of 940,000 population of the city and its future growth and the political programs of the regime (Fried, 1973, p. 35). Enhancing the image of the city, the improvement of traffic flow

(by such means as new road construction and subway system), the organization of urban expansion, zoning and the improvement of civic facilities (such as parks and recreational centers) were among the most important goals set out in the plan (Kirk, 2005b) (Fried, 1973).



Figure 3-31: Via dell'Impero, Rome. Annual parade in honor of the foundation of the Empire, 9 May 1937
Source: Kirk, 2005b, p. 121

Out of immediate political priorities, the efforts to restore the monumental image of the city was one of the earliest actions carried out according to the plan. The old city center was the focus of attention for this policy. One method applied by the plan was “thinning” of the urban fabric (Kirk, 2005b, p. 120), which meant many buildings surrounding the city’s monumental buildings were demolished, piazzas such as Piazza Venezia were widened to both supplant new streets and to provide an appropriate backdrop for the city’s ancient structures. One important radial street that was built as a result of this plan was Via dell’Impero, connecting the Colosseum to Piazza Venezia next to the Roman Forum, which served as a stage for military

parades and other ceremonial events, and other clearance projects were initiated in front of the Vatican and around the Mausoleum of Augustus.

According to records cost was the great limiting factor for the planned actions (Fried, 1973). The subway system was not built nor any significant park created and many redevelopment projects for the old city center remained on paper which left many old neighborhoods to be remained in poor condition. Yet, those accomplished clearance projects resulted to the displacement of many inner city residences (Fried, 1973)(Kirk, 2005b). In order to house the displaced people many peripheral developments initiated. The borgate dwelling was one of the important phenomena which directly associated with this development (Kirk, 2005b) (Fried, 1973). Borgate were low density country side settlements which consisted of both illegal and legal housing. Subsidized housing development in “Garbatella” was one of the important instances of official borgate development (Grundmann & Fürst, 2007). The project was conducted by ICP (public housing) agency south to the city in area near San Paolo and featured loose distribution of two-story buildings with a garden around (Grundmann & Fürst, 2007). The project had also included hostels to accommodate homeless families temporarily but they had also converted to permanent housing due to the shortage of housing at the time. According to a record there were constructed twelve such borgate between 1924 and 1940 (Fried, 1973, p. 38).

Peripheral development during fascist era had also another familiar reason within the contemporary history of the city (Kirk, 2005b) (Archibugi, 2005) (Fried, 1973). The growth of population and increased activities of real-estate developers had also greatly contributed to the peripheral development and the expansion of the city. This phenomenon had its roots in the late papacy era and Italian unification process as mentioned before. Within the era of fascism and its political program to promote large-scale developments, the phenomena of population growth and immigration had intensified which in turn led to the increased activities of real-estate developers. The development schemes such as 1931 master plan and its aftermath was one of the important instances of this development.

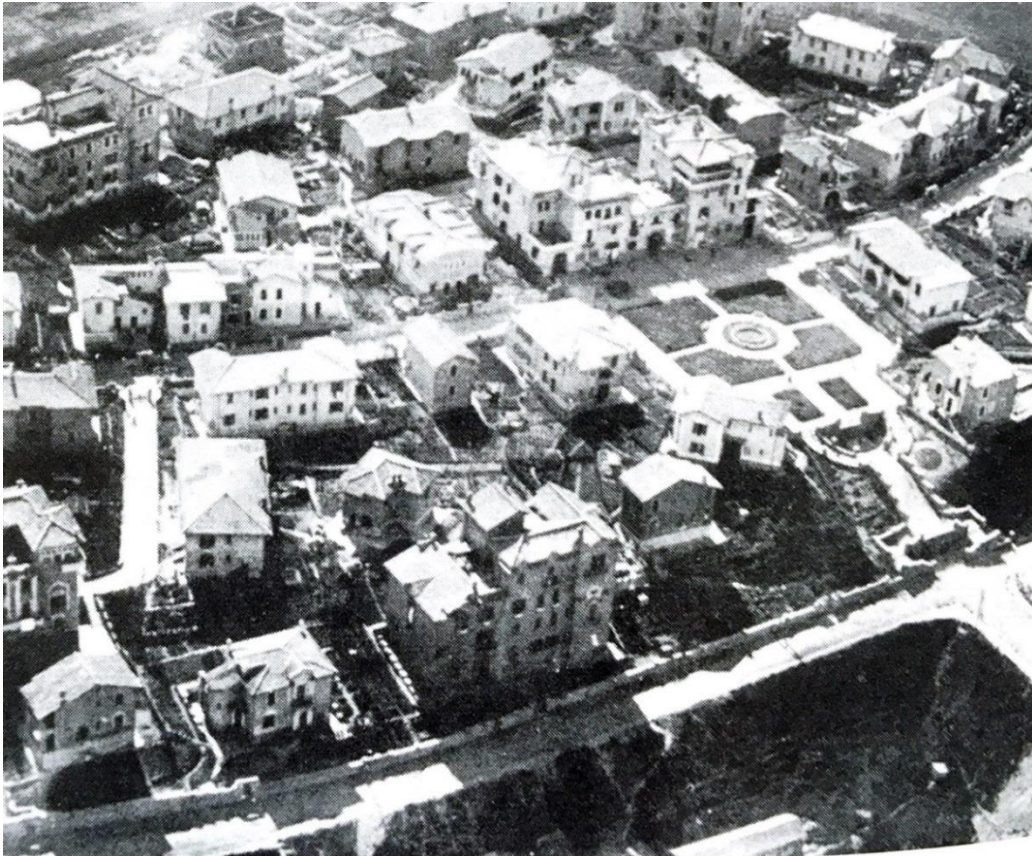


Figure 3-32: Garbatella garden estate.
Source: Grundmann & Fürst, 2007, p. 304

According to Fried (1973, p. 37) private developers were greatly encouraged by city officials to participate in construction activities within the plan perimeter. Yet, as he cites, the implementation of the plan had entered into a process of different alterations to meet the demands of private developers. As a result many structures and developments contradicted the original plan and land price within the plan perimeter faced a great rise. Accordingly, many poor families began to settle at slum dwelling neighborhoods and borgate which were constructed illegally outside the plan perimeter (ibid). Some of these neighborhoods were constructed by real-estate speculators, who bought large portions of lands, subdivided them without authorities' permission and promised to clients that approval was imminent (Fried, 1973) (Ghirardo, 2013). Fried cites in most of the cases the city agreed to accept these

settlements and provided them some services, according to a record, two hundred thousand people lived within these neighborhoods (1973, p. 38).

The expansion of city during the fascism era was not driven solely by immediate necessities such as housing but that the state had an agenda of constructing new centers around the city. Construction of satellite towns of “Sabaudia” and “Pontinia” after the reclamation of Pontine Marshes were instances of such policy (Fried, 1973, p. 30). The construction of the exposition site for the 1942 World’s Fair was another key project of this sort. In order to encourage new development outside the city, the fairground was designed to house permanent buildings, several kilometers outside the walls of Rome, on the hills overlooking the River Tiber. The plans for the exposition, dubbed E42, were drafted in 1936 and construction began in 1937. To connect the fairground to the city, a metropolitan railway and the first ever six-lane highway in the city, called the “Viale Imperiale”, was constructed in Rome. The construction of the fairground used the latest construction technologies and materials and included glass walls, reinforced concrete, elevator banks and an artificial lake (Kirk, 2005b).

Another development during this era which deserves attention was the important developments within professional place-making activities such as planning and architecture which were greatly contributed to above mentioned actions. Many commentators suggest that what is termed as “the modern movement” was emerged and flourished during the fascism regime in Italy (Ghirardo, 2013). Through the socio-political context of the late 19th and the early 20th century of western countries and also out of response to the urbanity conditions of the time, the modern movement was architectural and urbanistic agenda calling for technical superiority as point of reference in addressing the problems and the visions for the future.

In Italy by the emergence of industrial landscapes and new socio-cultural movements, expressions of the modern movement or modernism began by early instances such as Futurism (Kirk, 2005b). By the early 20th century the practices associated with the movement began to appear in major northern Italian cities such as

Milan, Turin and Genoa which had already undergone through the process of modernization (Kirk, 2005b). The movement through the holding of exhibitions and publications in close relationship with its counterparts in other western countries such as France and Germany possessed a viable place in currents of thoughts across the nation and by the emergence of fascism regime and its immense development program the movement began to flourish (Grundmann & Fürst, 2007) (Ghirardo, 2013) (Kirk, 2005b). Rome, also, as the capital of the country, was greatly influenced by this major development.



Figure 3-33: Foro Mussolini, during its construction

Source: <https://tr.pinterest.com/pin/338544096980665887/?lp=true> (last accessed: 21/01/2018)

Many urban projects and developments within the city during the era are categorized as the expressions of Italian modern movement. This includes both large-scale developments and individual projects which ultimately transformed the landscape of the city through the works and theories of individuals, professional groups of people and organizations. On the urban scale the development schemes such as the 1931 master plan and the actions carried out through it are considered as important instances of the movement. Specifically the modernization process of the

city through the road constructions and clearances projects which were typical instances of the modernization policy practiced in many other western capitals. This also goes for decentralizing and expanding policies for the city which were important urbanistic agenda in early 20th century. The construction of satellite cities at Pontine marshes (new town movement), development of Garbatella neighborhood (garden city movement), E42 project and other projects which were located at the periphery of the city such as the Foro Mussolini and university of Rome are all categorized as instances of such modern tendency. Moreover, many individual projects as in the form of new functional, governmental and housing buildings through their distinct architectural form are also categorized as part of the practices by the movement within the city.

Marcello Piacentini was one of the most influential figures in the history of the Italian modern movement. He was one of the earliest architecture professors of the University of Rome in which by 1919 offered the professional degree for architecture as distinct from civil engineering (Kirk, 2005b). Piacentini believed that consonant with the new and emerging identity of Italian nation the architecture same as other aspects of Italian society must evolve and this can be achieved by using of scientific methods and mastery of new materials and techniques (Kirk, 2005b). By establishing powerful relations with different institution performing under the regime's agenda, Piacentini had a prominent role in designing, executing and guiding numerous significant projects during the period for which many stated that he was the leading architecture of the fascist regime (Archibugi, 2005) (Etlin, 1991)(Kirk, 2005b) (Fried, 1973). His works in Rome included instances such as the fascist party headquarter, designing of the plan for new campus of the University of Rome and also he was the leading committee member of designing the 1931 master plan and E42 project (Kirk, 2005b).



Figure 3-34: Città Universitaria
Source: Kirk, 2005b, p, 93

One important architectural current which is categorized as part of the movement was Rationalism. The current mainly developed by a group of architects, calling themselves Gruppo 7, in 1926, in Milan. Rationalism defined its position as adhering to “constant use of rationality” in practice of architecture by searching for a form which would be a “perfect correspondence between the structure of the building and the purpose it serves” (Kirk, 2005b, p. 74). The style which rationalists promoted mostly became known as similar to the other developing and flourishing style in other western and European countries, namely “international style”. The both styles shared common features such as abandonment of decoration along with emphasize on functionality and pure forms.



Figure 3-35: Città Universitaria
Source: Kirk, 2005b, p, 93

Some suggest this important Italian expression of modernism had one particular difference with its abroad counterpart. While the proponents of the international style forbade any historical association especially in decoration of a building, the rationalism had compromising view regard the history in terms of accepting that there exist enduring forms throughout the history which an architect must be aware of in designing process. Some associate this attitude of Italian modernism with the rich architectural tradition of the country as one commentator cites in contrast with other counterpart modern styles of the time, rationalism equipped with “an awareness that Modern architecture is also part of a long and exciting line of architectural tradition and has to use this to find types for new kinds of building” (Grundmann & Fürst, 2007, p. 297) (Kirk, 2005b). The current institutionalized by the organization- the Movimento Italiano per l’Architettura Razionale or MIAR, to promote rational design in Italy through exhibitions, publications, and conferences and it left its imprint on the landscape of Rome by influencing the design of functional and governmental buildings as well as unique apartment housings (Grundmann & Fürst, 2007).

Development in the field of planning was also another aspect which is associated with the modern movement. It was during fascist era that urbanistica or city planning is recognized officially as a profession and a discipline (Fried, 1973). In 1921 a division made for disciplines of architecture, urban planning and civil engineering in many Italian universities including the University of Rome and each discipline were given separate facilities (Kirk, 2005b). Planning within this era became a professional advisory tool on aspects such as aesthetics, law and technicality (Fried, 1973). In Rome the discipline became concern with counterbalancing the issues related with both the old city center and the emerging modern city around it. This included concerns about the historical preservation and the enhancement of the old monuments on one hand, and issues related with traffic flow, housing, business and recreational activities on the other (Fried, 1973). The 1929 congress of the International Federation of Housing and Town planning in Rome and a year after the establishment of the National Institute of Planners or Istituto Nazionale di Urbanistica (INU) and the ratification of the Legge Urbansitica-Urban Planning by 1942 were some of the major developments for the profession (Fried, 1973).

3.3.3 POST-WAR ERA

By the June 1940 the important decision of Mussolini to enter the World War II on the side of Germany not only costed him his political career and his life but also subjected Italy and its capital to torrents of misfortunes. In 1943 as allied troops defeated German and Italian forces in the North Africa they crossed over to Sicily and begun the two years military operation called Italian campaign. Meanwhile Italian leaders deposed Mussolini and made a truce with allied forces. Germans in response took over Italian cities and towns including Rome. Finally Rome was liberated on 19 July 1944 and soon after whole Italy was liberated and a republic government seized the power in the country.

The post-war era includes a series of events and developments forming the history of the city in the middle decades of the 20th century. The era in its earliest stages was directly influenced by the developments under the fascist regime while the follow up

events of acquiring new directions for the future began to influence the lives of Rome's inhabitants and their place-making activities. The city in this era saw a radical growth and becoming home to more than 2 million inhabitants (Fried, 1973).

Facing with war consequences was the earliest experience that Italy and its capital had in the post war era. Bombings and other war events which led to the liberation of the country had also left damages to many structures so as socio-political tensions for the citizens. Within this context the actions which carried out in respond formed a chapter within the contemporary history of the nation known as the "reconstruction" period both socially and physically.

The early reconstruction era in Rome was coincided by actions such as repairment and restoration of damaged structures as well as the erection of monuments to the fallen victims of the war. One important war memorial constructed in this period is "Monumento ai martiri delle Fosse Ardeatine" to commemorate the 335 massacre victims committed by German forces on March 2, 1944, in response to a partisan attack killing 33 German soldiers a day before (kirk, 2005b, pp. 147-48). The reformation of government into the republic on 2 June 1946 became an important expression of the socio-political reconstruction of the era. The fascist regime and its legacy, as the main deemed responsible figure for the misery of the nation, discredited on the public and on the street level rallies and ceremonies held to celebrate the return of democracy (kirk, 2005b). The names of many streets, piazzas and other facilities related with the former regime changed and the symbols of fascism shaved from the landscape of the city (ibid).

Building industry was among the early sectors that strongly resumed its activity within this period. Many commentators emphasize that within the history of the city, the post war era was among the crucial periods that the construction activity practiced intensely which in turn resulted to the great physical growth of the city (Archibugi, 2005) (Fried, 1973) (Ginsborg, 2003) (Kirk, 2005b) (Ghirardo, 2013). Shortage of housing due to the increase of population, immigration and the war

damage, confronting pervasive unemployment, economy development and foreign assistance were among the important factors contributed to this phenomenon.

The issue of housing, as repeated many times, played a crucial role in shaping place-making activities of the contemporary era. Within the context of this issue, the post war era is considered as important period for which the related actions carried out since this period greatly altered the landscape of the city till the present day. Some suggest the issue of housing was also among the important factors that influenced the developments within professional place-making activities such as planning and architecture in 20th century especially since the post war era (Ghirardo, 2013) (Fried, 1973). Similar to pervious eras both private sector and government held the significant share of the construction activities while at the same time the phenomenon of illegal housing continued to influence the landscape of the city.

By the late 40s the new government initiated programs to deal with the housing crisis due to the war damage, with an estimate suggests Italy had lost “six percent” of its housing, “over two millions rooms” as a result of the war, and the growth of population (kirk, 2005b). Rome as the most populated city of the country with population reaching to over 1.5 million inhabitants, and also as the capital of the country, was among the earliest places that saw the implementation of the programs. The same public agencies which had been operating on the issue from the early 20th century such as the local offices of ICP among the other national agencies and institutions such as banks and ministries began to initiate their program of public housing within this period. One of the most important public housing projects in Rome during this period was related to a government-sponsored program known as INA-Casa.

The program initiated by ratification of the Law No. 43 which considered both existing problems of unemployment and housing nationwide in February 1949. The program according to records was a 14 year plan aiming for construction of 355000 housing units and employment of 40000 workers annually in building industry (Ghirardo, 2013, p. 137). One important INA-Casa project in Rome was the housing

construction in the Tiburtino IV district, east to the city, along the old road-Via Tiburtina (Kirk, 2005b, 157-8). The project initiated in 1949 and completed in 1954. The area had already seen some development in 30 years ago, 1926-8, by ICP agency. The project headed by architects Mario Ridolfi and Ludovico Quaroni featuring 771 apartment units in terms of row houses, three to five story apartments and free-standing towers with seven stories for 4000 residents on 8.8 hectares area.



Figure 3-36: The plan of Tiburtina project
Source: Grundmann & Fürst, 2007, p. 331

The project became synonymous with a progressive development within professional place-making activities of the post-war era. It is believed that the architectural style Neo-Realism or the Roman school emerged through the design of the Tiburtino project (Ghirardo, 2013). Commentators suggest within the architectural discourse of the post war era the rationalism discredited for its association with former regime which in turn had the architects to employ another distinct styles (Ghirardo, 2013) (Kirk, 2005b). Neo-Realism found its origin in film making profession through which the style with the same title became the rubric for several filming projects about outskirts dwelling of lower and poor classes in

periphery of many Italian metropolises including Rome (Kirk, 2005b). It is suggested that this film genre had greatly influenced the consideration of the poor dwelling phenomenon which was one of the main national concerns of the post war era.

Architects also draw from this issue and came up with the idea of incorporating elements associated with rural and vernacular traditions. This included design of such features as covered passageways, kitchen gardens, ornamental gardens, balconies and fences with specific materials associated with the local tradition (Ghirardo, 2013). An important work related with this development was the publication of a guiding textbook by Mario Ridolfi with the title of “Manuale dell’Architetto” (Kirk, 2005b). The textbook contained information about traditional building crafts and material resources to standardize the construction activity.

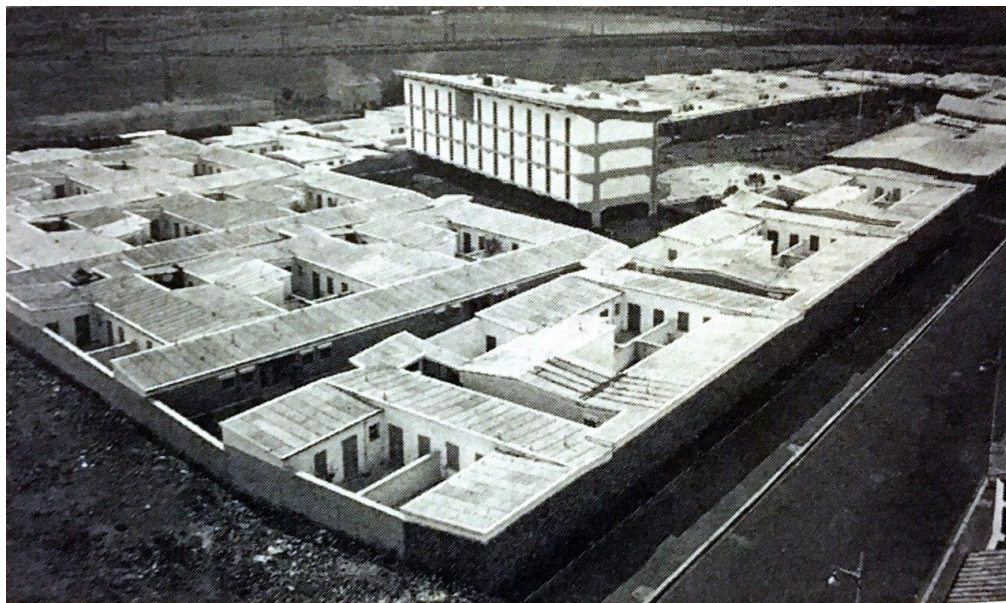


Figure 3-37: Tuscolano III project
Source: Grundmann & Fürst, 2007, p. 334

Many other INA-Casa projects through the 50s also draw from the same line as in the case of instances such as Quartiere Viale Etiopia, northeast to the city center, featuring eight 9 to 10 story apartments (1951-54) and project for Tuscolano neighborhood. Quartiere Tuscolano, southeast to the city, was the largest INA-Casa housing project in Rome. The project was conducted on three phases starting in

1952. Tuscolano provided 3150 housing units for approximately 18000 residents on a total area of 35.5 hectares. Tuscolano II was high density housing complex featuring five to ten story apartments divided on an axial road. Tuscolano III, however, was among the few low density instances of such projects containing four story blocks with private opening to courtyard gardens.

Commentators suggest that although the designers of such projects defined their position as contrary to rationalist agenda by emphasizing on particularities of the location on which the projects conducted but, these projects followed a distinct spatial organization which became known as part of the spatial strategy of the modern movement (Ghirardo, 2013) (Kirk, 2005b). The idea of growth in height and detaching the new structures from pre-existing ones, the free-standing buildings, to open up spaces between the structures for green spaces, was the pervasive strategy which practiced in the post-war era. This new tradition within Roman urbanism had also coupled with the other related policy under the rubric of modern urbanism which is the separation of functions. Based on the records some of the major projects during the period were deliberately constructed without containing the services such as shops, churches and schools (Ghirardo, 2013). In order to organize the space efficiently the services within these neighborhoods were aggregated into a distinct center.

Based on evidences practices correspond with the above mentioned strategies became an urbanism trend since the post-war era covering more recent periods of 70s and 80s. One instance was Vigne Nuove high-density residential complex constructed between 1971-79, northeast to the city. The project included 524 residential units for 3330 residents on an area of 8 hectares. The project has the reputation of being associated with the ideas of the famous modernist urban designer Le Corbusier who promoted the strategy of towers in the park (Ghirardo, 2013). The other example identical with the urbanistic trend of megastructures and the other Corbusier's idea of Unité d'habitation was Corviale project west to the city (ibid). The project started in 1972 and it took a decade to be completed, featuring 1200

apartment units for 8500 residents on 60 hectares of land, the project was conducted on a kilometer long singular concrete structure.

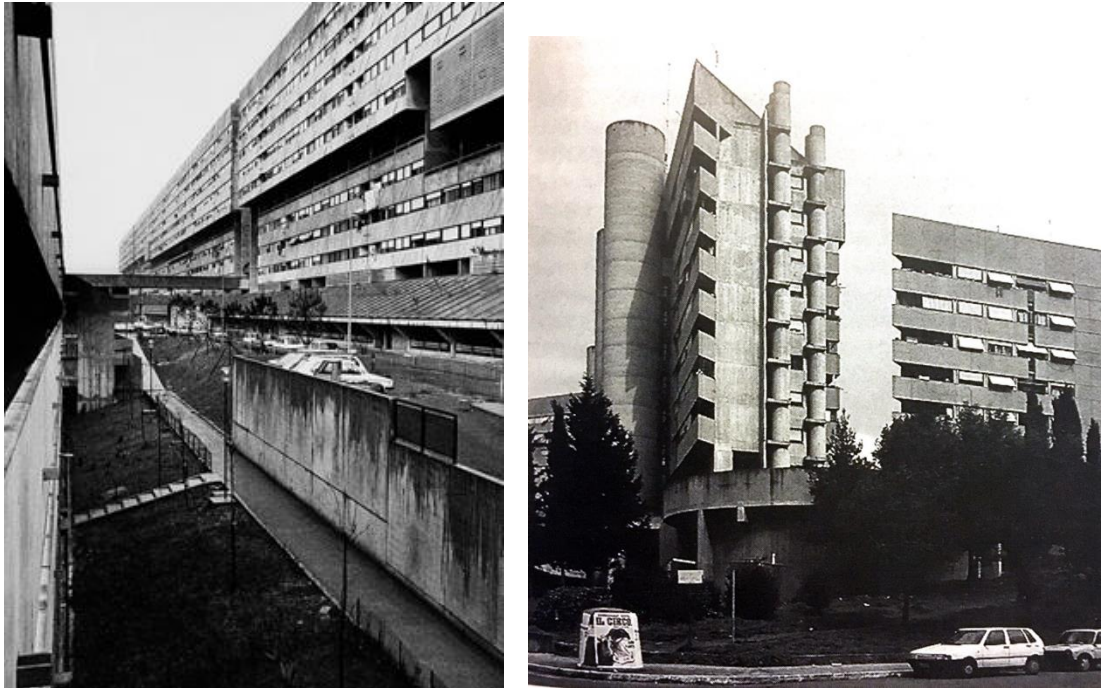


Figure 3-38: Corviale (left) and Vigne Nuove (right) quarters
Source: Kirk, 2005b, p. 195; Grundmann & Fürst, 2007, p. 349

One important factor which influenced the Rome's building boom within the mid-20th century was an economic development known as "Economic Miracle" within the history of the contemporary Italy. During the period from 1950 through 1960s Italians experienced a considerable growth of income and employment which according to commentators this development was resulted by the industrializing policy initiated in the late 19th century onward and also the flourishing of international trade at the time. It is believed the development had great effect on socio-cultural scene of Italian society so as developments within place-making activities.

The dramatic increase of immigration to the major cities led to the familiar phenomenon of building speculation and illegal housing, especially at the periphery. Rome was among the most targeted destination as one record shows during 1951-1961 the city ranked in the third place among Italian cities by having 19.2 percent of

average annual increase per thousand population due to immigration (Fried, 1973, p. 80). Many suggest following this economic development and the new waves of immigrants and also the long policy of private contractors safeguarding and encouragement played a major role in boosting the construction activities of the post-war era including building speculations and illegal housing, outpacing those government sponsored.

Private contractors and real-estate corporations were accounted as influential actors within this era whose activities often were associated with poor architecture and structure. Società Generale Immobiliare is one of the instances of the giant private real-estate developers whose name repeated many times in many accounts as an influential contractor within the period. According to these sources the company's activities in Rome has a history since the Italian unification period in 1870 while the post war era became a stage for the company to expand its activities in both the city itself and its periphery. According to a record the company owned 1685 acres of land within the city in 1954 (the city itself owned 1250 acres) (Fried, 1973, p. 116).

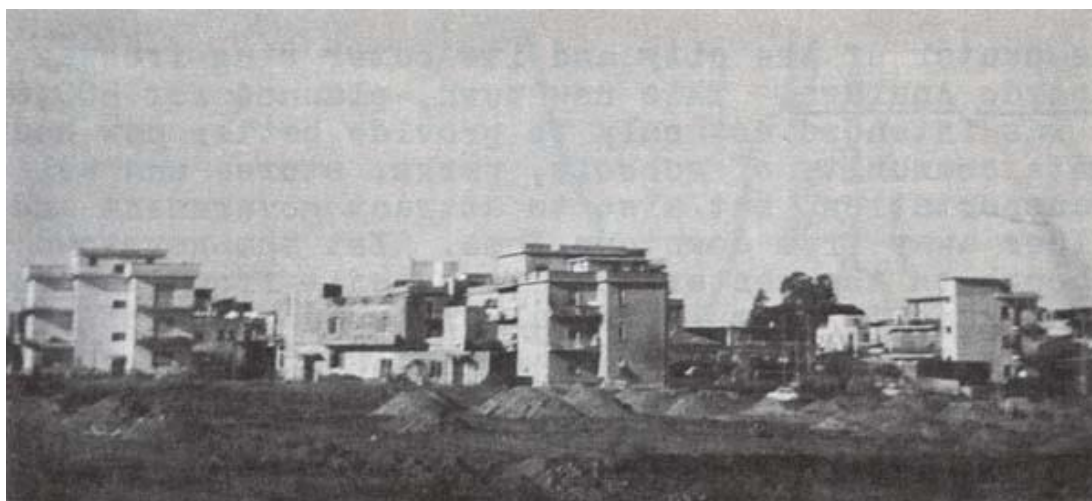


Figure 3-39: A photo taken from illegal developments near the ring road in 1972, by Leonard Downie, Jr
Source: <http://aliciapatterson.org/stories/modern-sack-rome> (Last accessed: 11/12/2017)

One factor that stimulated real-estate developers during the period was the construction of infrastructures such as public and transportation facilities. According to records the financial improvement of the post war era had provided the government to enhance the infrastructure of the city (Kirk, 2005b). This contained

the execution of the projects which planned during the era and also those that envisioned under the fascist regime. The completion of Foro Mussolini at the northwest, the sport complex, which now called Foro Italico in 1955, the completion of the E42 project as a new center at the south, with the new name of EUR, the completion of Via Flaminia bridge at north in 1950, the enhancement of the Termini train station at east in 1947-50, the completion of the first subway line of the city in 1955 connecting EUR to Termini station, the construction of a new airport-Leonardo da Vinci-Fiumicino Airport, which since 1960 became the main airport of the city till today and also the construction of the ring road around the city between 1948-70 were instances of intense infrastructure construction within the period.



Figure 3-40: the Flaminio district
Source: Ghirardo, 2013

An important event which contributed to this process was the holding of 1960 Olympic Games in the city. Commentators cite that the government at the time found the event as an opportunity to reinforce the urban infrastructure and boost the image of the city (Ghirardo, 2013) (. The plan for the event started in 1951 and two main

sites at either edges of the city, Flaminio district at north and EUR at south, designated to contain the needed facilities for the event. The both sites saw the construction of new roads, new sport facilities and residential complexes for participating athletes known as Olympic Village.

The northern part, the Flaminio district, which had already seen the construction of Foro Italico sport complex, was utilized to house the northern Olympic village and also several new sport facilities such as Palazzetto dello Sport and Stadio Flaminio. The design of the sport structures was headed by architecture Pier Luigi Nervi who has the reputation of using most advance construction technics at the time. One instance was the use of prefabricated reinforced concrete sections which decreased both the cost and the time of the construction. The structures were located between the newly constructed axial streets, Viale Tiziano and the Corso Francia viaduct. The streets were designed to link the northern periphery developments with the city center and authorities of the time envisioned that the whole Olympic complex would become a new urban quarter for 6500 residents (Grundmann & Fürst, 2007, p. 339). The EUR district also saw the same developments through the construction of sport facilities and residential complex firstly for athletes then converted to permeant housing units. On the larger scale the construction of major throughways to connect these sites on a north-south axis of the city was the important development which reinforced the infrastructure at the time and also stimulated real-estate development.

Illegal building and housing was also another considerable phenomenon within this period which greatly influenced the landscape of the city. In fact the pervasiveness of the practice within the era and its remaining effects till the present day made many commentators to suggest that the post-war era was the most important period in which the issue is originated. According to a record by the 1970 one house out of six houses in the city was constructed illegally and 400000 of the Rome's population lived in a dwelling which was not existed officially (Ginsborg, 2003, p. 247). The same reasons that stimulated construction activities within the period such as the growth of population, the large scale immigration, the economic

and financial matters and the intense infrastructure construction are accounted as influential factors for this phenomenon. The absence of an effective controlling policy and the private sector encouragement policy are also accounted as other factors that directly contributed to this phenomenon. Same as pervious eras within the contemporary period most of the activity occurred outside the city perimeter while providing additional floors on top of the existing buildings within the city became a new dimension for this activity during the period (Kirk, 2005b).

Another important event which occurred within the context of the above mentioned developments was the ratification of the new master plan for the city in 1962. After several revisions to the former plan and through the years of intense debate between different political and interest groups the new master plan ratified to oversee the needs of current population reaching to over two millions and also of the future population with the estimate of five millions, containing such major objectives as preservation of historical center, expanding the city eastward and establishment of a controlling mechanism over the construction activities (Fried, 1973, pp. 41-69).

Preservation of the historic center was among the few major goals that centered within the consensus of the most parties involved in the preparation of the plan. This was due to the pervasive perception that the area's condition was worsening every day as the ancient center of the city was still remained the main center for the modern city. It was observed that out of the drastic change in the demographical condition of the city, within the contemporary era, and also other socio-political changes, within this timespan which led to the uncontrollable development in the area, the city center became the scene of heavy traffic congestion and socio-physical erosion. In response the planning instrument came up with such policies as zoning, new for this time the utilization of use control, promotion of renovation and new traffic rules and regulations.

One major policy of the plan to save the historic center was decentralization. This policy paralleled with the new emphasize on directing the expansion of the city eastwards, which was in contrast with the former regime policy to encourage the

expansion westward toward the sea. In accordance with this objective, based on the records, the plan contained a 1.6 billion dollars program to build a new regional center east to the city. The key feature of the program was to build a 13.5 miles long eastern north-south axial communication belt, named Asse Attrezzato or eastern axis, which would hierarchically feed a new polycentric development at the area. This new envisioned development was designed to accommodate business and office centers and also residential neighborhoods with sufficient services for 225000 residences. In addition to these objectives the planning institution foresaw a detailed and regulatory framework for the current and future developments of the city, perceiving that the absence of strict measures over construction and development activities could result to both failure of the future goals and the current problems that the city fell victim to at the time. Accordingly many rules and regulations in terms of selective expansion regulatory, development and urbanization necessities regulatory and use control zoning installed by the plan.

The other important development within this era was the emergence of critical voices about the current professional place-making practices and their directions under the rubric of development. This important issue, as commentators suggest, was embedded within the thoughts of many actors of the Roman society ranging from public to professionals whose shared concern was the great and rapid transformation of the city's landscape and along with it, associated environmental and social consequences. It is suggested that as the city's population had grown tenfold in less than a century, from over two hundred thousand in 1870 to over two millions in 1970, which had fueled the mentioned building boom within the contemporary era led many to become dissatisfied with different aspects of the city's condition. There are records suggesting that there has been always a pocket of resistance against the development schemes during the contemporary era which often succeeded to change or dismantle some of the projects throughout the city, but as many suggests within the post war era this influx became a considerable voice in cycling the ideas regarding these practices in the future ahead.

Fueled by such sensibilities as so-called the modern “sack of Rome”, this time not by the foreign invading forces but by the home grown ones, the degradation of environmental qualities, the exploitation of the city’s landscape and the ineffectiveness of the policies regarding the development and expansion of the city were among the most pronounced issues (Bonomo, 2016) (Ginsborg, 2003). Based on the evidences the city had suffered from the both air and water pollution (Downie, Jr, 1972). The immense road construction and the drastic growth of automobile usage were accounted as the most important factors contributing in the air pollution, besides the insufficient infrastructure for the ever growing population of the city as in the case of proper sewerage system made many water resources contaminated. For instance, it was witnessed that the color of the Tiber turned into a bronze like color (ibid). It is as well argued that within the many Roman suburb neighborhoods, especially within those that constructed illegally, the hygiene was a serious problem (ibid). The streets of these neighborhoods saw the accumulation of the garbage and as the records shows there were reports about the outbreaks of hepatitis and diphtheria (ibid).



Figure 3-41: Slum dwelling near the new developments, photo by Leonard Downie, Jr, 1972
Source: <http://aliciapatterson.org/stories/modern-sack-rome> (Last accessed: 11/12/2017)

The city's landscape was also another important issue which had craved the attention of many and as the housing held the great share of the construction activities during the era most of the attention directed toward this development. Many housing projects which had been carried out by the both government and private sector described by many critics as disorganized expansion of monotonous structures with no any sign of respect to the coherence of the city's landscape, which had been constructed by the gradual growth of the city through the ages (Bonomo, 2016) (Ghirardo, 2013) (Downie. Jr, 1972) (Kirk, 2005b).



Figure 3-42: Rome suburban in 1972, photo by Leonard Downie, Jr,
Source: <http://aliciapatterson.org/stories/modern-sack-rome> (Last accessed: 11/12/2017)

Such strategies as the separation of function and the construction of detached structures within the open space, which were practiced pervasively during the era, were discredited and regarded as outdated offspring of CIAM-based urbanism through the city. Many housing complexes lacked the services such as shops and as they mostly constructed far from the city center, where the most of the work places

located, the neighborhoods of this sort became dormitory like structures with less vibrant street life which was opposite to Italian and Rome's urban tradition, besides based on the evidences the policy of opening the space as it turns out has not ended in more green spaces, but to parking spaces, which is the case of many Roman neighborhoods today. Along with these the condition of suburb was also due to consideration as the most of the illegal construction occurred there, and rendered unpleasant scene of poor dwelling side by side of the newly developed environment.

The other important factor which centered within the main focus of many was the different aspects of development policies carried out during the period, especially those that made by the planning instrument (Archibugi, 2005). Within many contexts it is frequently cited that many rules and regulation, which were drafted through the master plans, either remained on the paper or subjected to frequent revisions to meet the demands of many interest groups; whose intentions, according to these sources, were maximizing the profit rather than the fulfillment of inhabitants needs (Archibugi, 2005) (Fried, 1973) (Ginsborg, 2003).

Within the context of these problems and associated dissatisfactions the cycling of the ideas with humanitarian impulse has become an influential rhetoric within professional place-making activities till the present day. Consonant with the same international experience, this progressive shift within such discourses associated with architecture, urbanism and planning included an array of debates over the orientation of these professions which issues such as culture, historical identity and human association received the most attention (Kirk, 2005b).

3.3.4 RECENT DEVELOPMENTS

By reaching to the last decades of the 20th century and the early 21st, the city has continued to expand yet with the slower pace. Facing with the consequences of a century of rapid changes and transformations along with the new socio-cultural atmosphere, associated with the broader changes on both national and international level, can be accounted as essential developments within this ongoing period.

Based on the records the late 60s and 70s were a nation-wide chaotic period which Rome among the other major cities of the country was a scene of simultaneous strikes, riots and often violent clashes (Kirk, 2005b). It is believed out of the formation of different socio-cultural currents that was embedded in the great developments within the 20th century, the turbulence manifested in a pervasive dissatisfaction with the working condition and political distrust, and among the different social classes of Italian society, the working class and students were the main contributors (ibid). The effects of this development on the future ahead were to a degree important that it is suggested Italy through this period had undergone “great cultural revolution” (Ginsborg, 2003).

By reaching to the 80s and the decades ahead till the present day, this social shift merged into the new interest in cultural matters which provided grounds for different place-making activities through the city of Rome. As commentators suggest this new interest in culture has been associated with the broader economic and political reformations which are often argued through the notions such as “globalization” and “post-industrialization” (Marinaro, 2014) (Ghirardo, 2013).

The rise in the service sector activities is among the important manifestations of this development which both craved the attention of the city’s officials and the private sector. Being already one of the most experienced cities in the tourism industry, investment in this activity has been the consistent policy during this period. Some records suggest today Rome has thirty million visitors annually (Higgins, 2014, p. 194). Holding different global events, construction of the new museums, hotels, galleries, other culturally landmark structures, and also many other policies to safeguard and promote this activity are among the important instances of place-making activities during the period.

Construction of new museums and fitting the historic structures with new services are some of the instances of such place-making tendency (Kirk, 2005b). One important related project was an investment in the Palazzo Delle Esposizioni, an exhibition hall and cultural center on the Via Nazionale built in 1883. By 1982 the

city officials began to adopt the structure with new purposes in terms of modern services and technologies such as climate control and lighting and it also contained a multimedia cultural research center and a film forum.



Figure 3-43: A view of the historic center of the city, by Filippo Monteforte

Source: <https://www.lonelyplanet.com/italy/rome/trastevere-and-gianicolo/travel-tips-and-articles/a-perfect-day-in-trastevere-romes-favourite-neighbourhood/40625c8c-8a11-5710-a052-1479d277b005> (last accessed: 25/03/2018)

This influential tendency has also become a current through which many world-famous architects found the opportunity to imprint their design on the landscape of Rome. The construction of Museo dell'Ara Pacis Augustae by American architect Richard Meier is among the notable instances of this sort. The project was mainly commissioned to build a multi-cultural area featuring shops, offices, and a museum to house the Ara Pacis (the altar of peace) initially constructed by Emperor Augustus. The Altar had been transferred to the site beside the imperial mausoleum during the fascist era. The structure put to use for different events of being most notable, fashion shows.

The other instance is a new museum for contemporary arts Museo delle Arti del XXI Secolo, or “MaXXI”. Another famous architect Zaha Hadid won the competition to design a new multi-cultural center at the site near the northern Olympic Village for the twenty-first century featuring a multimedia, multifunctional space for conceptual and interactive media arts. The functions of the new museum will include galleries for architecture and experimental installations, a library, auditorium, offices, and services.

Another notable instance is the music performance complex-Parco della Musica at the site near the northern Olympic Village. During the clearance projects within the fascist era, Rome lost its only auditorium dedicated to the symphonic concert performance in 1936. The city officials held a competition for a music performance complex with three variously sized concert halls and associated services such as offices; a media research center, museum, and shops. The Centro Congressi Italia, as the new convention center, which is the nation’s largest such facility can also be mentioned here which has been designed by Massimiliano Fuksas and located in the middle of EUR center (Kirk, 2005b).



Figure 3-44: a view of EUR district, modern center of the city

Source: https://www.reddit.com/r/europe/comments/6jkild/business_districts_of_europe_eur_rome/ (last accessed: 23/03/2018)

Another manifestation of the above mentioned shift can be found within the developments in the built environment professions. This development manifested in the formation of pluralistic approaches, new theories, and new reference points for the design process and the introspection of the related fields (Ghirardo, 2013) (Kirk, 2005b). It can be said that the development is rooted in the mentioned pervasive reactionary thoughts over place-making activities during the contemporary era which had greatly transformed the landscape of many Italian cities including Rome.



Figure 3-45: Parco della Musica

Source: <https://www.ruggeroarena.com/sony-dsc-90/> (Last accessed: 24/03/2018)

Within this shifting development emphasize on historical identity, cultural particularities and human scale have been the main issues that craved the attention of many. Parallel to the same associated events on the international level as many countries have also relatively subjected to the same experiences of Italy, these subjects centered within the debates over the role and the practices of professional place-making activities.

The architect Ernesto Nathan Rogers is known as one of the leading figures who mediated these debates through several publications and academic efforts within the

Italian context (Ghirardo, 2013). Within the pages of an influential architectural magazine, “Cassabella”, Rogers was among the most critical contributors who drove an array of debates over the professional place-making practices under the rubric of modernism within the both interwar and post-war era. His arguments involved issues regarding deficiencies and ineffectiveness of the strategies associated with the modern movement and its Italian expression rationalism. He argued that the movement fell short in addressing the changing condition of the Italian society. In this sense he urged his colleagues to draw from other elements, most notably cultural and political matters, especially those that pertained to particular locality, for the work of architecture and urbanism in which the history could provide valuable lessons.

Other instances of this change can be found in the formation of new architectural and urbanism currents and further theoretical musings since the post-war era. Aldo Rossi and his initiative La Tendenza can be named as one of the important currents of this sort (Kirk, 2005b). Through his publication *Architecture of the City* in 1966 Rossi is another thinker whose ideas became synonyms with emphasize on historical identity and humanitarian impulse within the recent decades in reaction to technical superiority that prevailed in preceding periods. On academic endeavors, the evoking of ancient concepts of *genius loci* in studying a city’s identity and application of new approaches such as phenomenology became expressions of this shift as well (ibid).

One of the architectural projects associated with this movement was the construction of Islamic cultural center (Kirk, 2005b). Since the 70s and 80s Rome has also witnessed the abroad immigrants which the project aimed to address some of the needs of the new inhabitants of the city. The center was designed by Paolo Portoghesi, in 1975 and finished in 1979. The unique architectural style of this project has inspired by both Roman and Islamic elements.

The issue of illegal housing has also continued and influenced this continuous period. This issue included several developments within the management, policy making, actions and even developments within the affected areas. One of the actions

was a survey in 1977 which according to a record “fifty-five” illegal areas covering more than “300ha” was identified and the government began to provide these areas with basic infrastructures such as gas, water, electricity, and sewage (Mudu, 2014, p. 66). Another action was the mobilization of the inhabitants to the new housings. “Retrospective building amnesties” which transitioned the status of the illegal housing to legal has been the other policy which carried out during this period (ibid).

Another important development associated with the issue of illegal housing was the formation of participatory planning which has been aimed to crave the cooperation of the inhabitants of the areas for management and regeneration. One policy was the establishment of “consortium of self-regeneration” (Cellamare, 2014, pp. 211-212). Consortiums were the landowners union which by collecting a specific amount of share and the aid of the government initiated programs to improve urbanization of the designated areas. Valle Borghesiana, located at the eastern part of the city, is one of the new unauthorized areas in which regeneration policies as such conducted (ibid).



Figure 3-46: Valle Borghesiana

Source: <http://www.smur.eu/intersections/valle-borghesiana/> (last accessed: 21/03/2018)

The planning instrument after a period of decline reinstated to foresee the future of the city once again (Archibugi, 2005). The adopted master plan of 2003 in the words of one of its drafting members Francesco Rutelli, the mayor of the city, is “a new master plan for growth for a city that does not need to grow” (Kirk, 2005b, p. 252). Aligned with new ideas within the profession to change the strategy of planning from envisioning for expansion to vitalizing existing resources, the mayor described the master plan in this way,

“Rome hopes to offer to visitors from all over the world an avant-garde metropolis with the ability to combine the patrimony of its glorious past with an improved quality of life, a modern and compatible infrastructure, efficient services and cultural stimuli.”
(ibid)

Restoration of public spaces with the aim of improvement for pedestrian flow, construction of integrated mass transportation system urban rail transit and subways plus the economic and social regeneration policies have been the important goals of the plan.

One important policy consonant with the aim of the plan is to identify what has been called “microcities” to strengthen different parts of the city through step by step development (Kirk, 2005b). Encouraging commercial activities, providing various services and facilities and their linkage with the transportation system are regarded as necessary steps to guide the development within these areas.

Accordingly, construction of multiple shopping malls, based on a record now there exists 28 of them, along with the major roads especially the ring road has been one of the important actions (Cellamare, 2014, p. 143). The Bufalotta district is the first of the series of this type of development which started at the late 90s and completed in 2007 by opening the first branch of IKEA, the shopping center then residential units constructed and ended in 2011. Based on the records the project received mixed reactions. While some argued about the project as successful

experience in designing and executing the planned action (Valle 2005), the majority of others, based on the same source, regarded the project as one of the extremely speculative projects realized per the increased consumerism (Cellamare, 2014).



Figure 3-47: The Bufalotta district
Source: <https://divisare.com/projects/249165-valle-architetti-associati-bufalotta-master-plan> (last accessed 18/01/2018)

CHAPTER 4

UNFINISHEDNESS OF PLACE AND DISCUSSIONS

After reviewing the concepts of place and place-making beside the review of a constant interrelation that exists between human and place, this chapter is set out to conceptualize the central theme of the thesis, the unfinishedness of place.

4.1 UNFINISHEDNESS, A CONCEPTUAL PERSPECTIVE

To address a bigger frame for the following discussions, this part begins by incorporating the aspect of human experience with the notion of unfinishedness. Accordingly, it might be better to start with not much of familiar word unfinishedness.

Literally, unfinishedness means the quality or state of being unfinished. The first impression of this meaning is when we use the word unfinishedness about a subject be it a concept, a project or something else, we, in fact, suggest that there is no end or state of completeness for it. The second impression of this meaning suggests we are addressing an ongoing process. While we can state that the subject has a beginning point, at the same time, we may suggest that there is no end to it. Many humanistic concepts resemble such quality.

For instance, Paulo Freire in his book *Pedagogy of Freedom* (1998) explicitly uses the word “unfinishedness” about human beings engagement in education, as an unfinished and an ongoing process of human condition. He suggests that there is an inherent unfinishedness quality for human being’s curiosity, which enables them to be active learners. The awareness about change through different conditions such as material, social, political, cultural and ideological which defines life, made the act of learning as a manifestation of the unfinished human condition. He quotes,

Whenever there is life, there is unfinishedness, though only among women and men is it possible to speak of an awareness of unfinishedness. The invention of our existence developed through our interaction with the material world at our disposal, creating a life support in which life, the life of women and men, became sustainable. (1998, p. 32)

Here, unfinishedness explicitly suggests that we are addressing a fluid or a dynamic concept. What is essential for a concept to be unfinished is to acknowledge that the concept addresses some kind of ongoing process. This process could be an activity or ability or anything that we are aware of its existence and its ongoing influence.

Human experience is such a concept. It is a dynamic and fluid concept addressing the very fabric of how we reflect on ourselves and the outside world. Through our sensory abilities to the way we act, move, feel, understand, expect, desire, interpret and reflect, which made us interrelate and interact through and with larger and broader social and political systems, human experience resembles an unfinished human condition, lasted and lasting till there is life. Without a doubt, human experience is an inherent quality of being human.

Nevertheless, what does this unfinished quality of life tell us about the place? From a conceptual perspective, it is essential to discuss how the unfinishedness of human experience relates to the topic of place.

First, it must be highlighted that there is an inherent aspect of human experience which is defined by interaction and interrelation with the environment. The physical world around us is the part of the reality which we live in, and to a certain extent, it is one of the profound determinants of the ways of life. The topic of place is part of our endeavor to know our environment. Therefore, it presupposes that, when we discuss place, we also discuss our experience of the environment. Here unfinishedness suggests that as long as there is human experience, there is an association with the environment and therefore, there is an association with place.

In the second chapter, it was overviewed that the concept of existence is of importance for the conception of place. As the impression of the “way of being”, existence has the human experience as its inherent aspect. Therefore, there is an inseparable bond between human and the environment as an expression of existence. The existence of Rome is dependent on its inhabitants, and the existence of inhabitants is dependent on Rome. This mutual relationship is inseparable, and through the ages, while this interrelationship possesses different consequences and circumstances, it is not disconnected. From this conceptual perspective, we need place and place needs us.

The second aspect which conceptually incorporates the ideas of place, experience and unfinishedness is to acknowledge that human experience possesses a kind of dynamic quality. The unfinished quality of human experience implies that experience is fluid and dynamic. Place as an aspect of human experience also acquires such quality, and therefore, it possesses unfinished quality. Here dynamism stands for the changing condition of human experience. Our experiences are always subjected to change through and from varying (f)actors.

On the personal level, it is possible to have a relative understanding of how our experiences are created and changed through multiple events, situations, and circumstances. On the collective level, the manifestation of human experience in the forms of human activities, institutions and alike and their changing conditions demonstrates that human experience is a dynamic process. Accordingly, place is also a dynamic concept; although we bond to it permanently, this does not suggest it is a fixed and linear relationship. This suggests we are witnessing an unfinished relationship of varying conditions and situations that shape our experiences and, of course, an inherent part of these experiences is our experience of place.

One question arises here: what are the components of our experience of place? This was one of the central questions of this study to examine whether place can be mapped out along its contributing (f)actors? The answer to this question could be both yes and no. The answer could be yes since through thousands of years of

practice and accumulation of knowledge about our environment and the ways to alter it, we can name many contributing (f)actors which influence our experience of place and place-making. The emergence of the discourse of place is a product of such endeavor, and as part of this endeavor, the conception of place can be named as a very young attempt, with ancient roots. The answer could also be no since there is uncertainty about whether we can be fully aware of the components of our experience. Again, the emergence of the discourse of place is the result of a rise in our awareness about our environment, and as this process progresses, we may find new perspectives about our relationship with the environment.

Continuing with the answer of yes, it is crucial to mention that from this point of view, we can find another manifestation of unfinishedness here, as we think of how the apparent and tangible connection we have with our environment could be the result of many known and unknown agents.

The examination of Rome as an amalgam of thousands of years of place-making activities in chapter III is the imminent case in hand to identify some of these (f)actors. It is feasible to recall that place includes two main physical and social/cultural dimensions. These dimensions can frame people's experiences of place at their grassroots. Place ultimately can be seen as a kind of socio-spatial phenomenon having both dimensions central to its definition. In the case of Rome, we can distinguish this bilateral relationship. In every development stage of the city, there is an obvious interconnection between many specific features which can be related to each of these dimensions or both.

In the following diagram, it has been attempted to extract these specific features. Accordingly, it is suggested that the geographical entity which we know as Rome can be framed through personal and collective experiences of its inhabitants. These experiences can be mapped along three major categories, namely natural environment and its features (physical), human landscape (physical) and human activities (socio-cultural). It would be wise to consider each of these categories separately while it must be noted people's experience of place cannot be reduced

merely to any of these categories since place experience is simultaneously shaped through different interplays of these features under different circumstances.

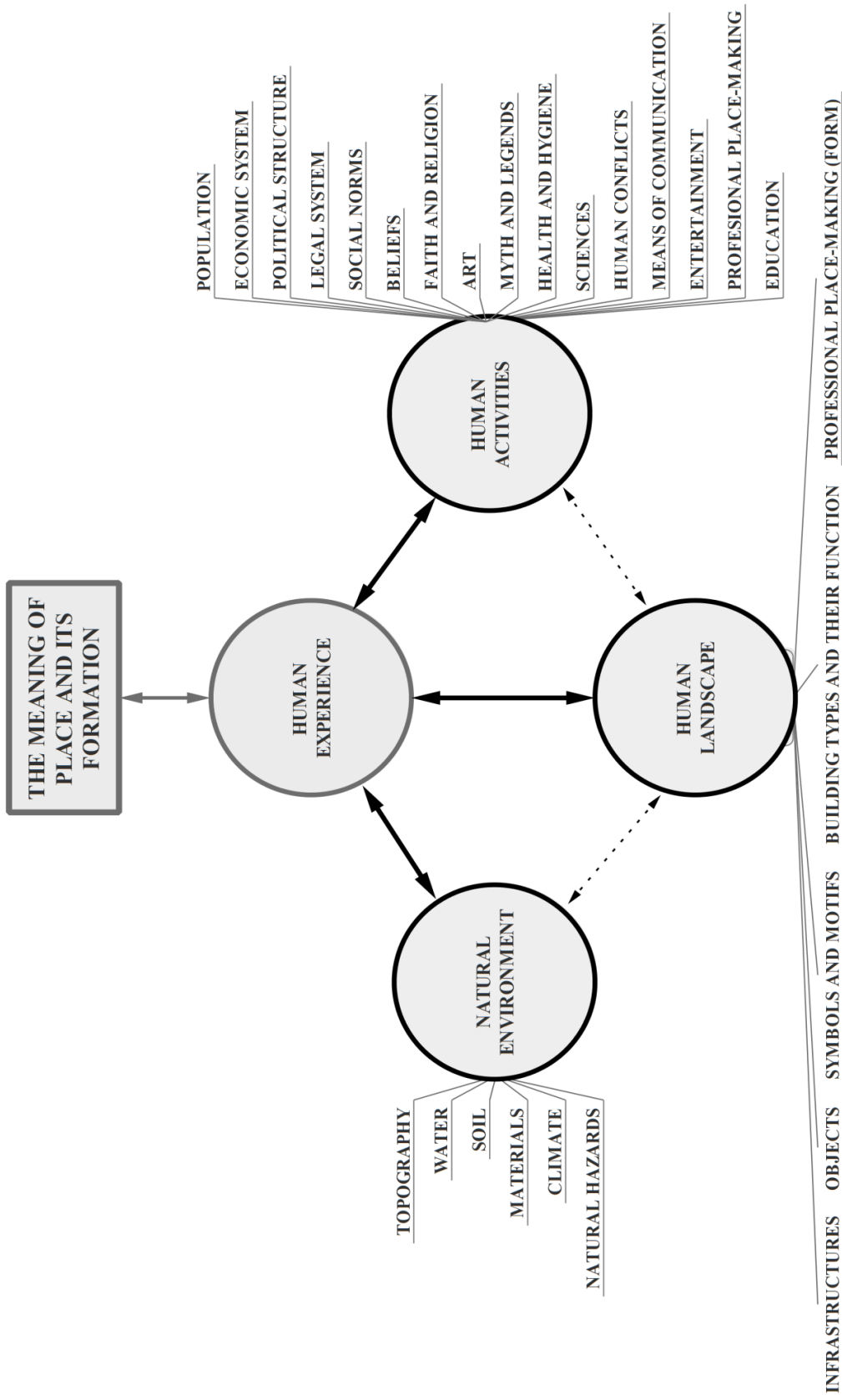


Diagram 4-1: Unfinishedness, a conceptual perspective

NATURAL ENVIRONMENT AND ITS FEATURES

Natural environment and its features play an influential role within People's experience of physical dimension. This can include such features as climate, light and air condition, topography, cosmic events, quality of soil, water and also natural hazards. These features can influence any place-making activity at any given location and as in the case of Rome, in its almost every stages of its development; it was overviewed that how these features were contributed in either boosting or delimiting place-making activities.

Nature can be deemed as a virgin space, a context, through which concepts of place and place-making find their initial expressions. In other words, nature is the initial form of what we call environment. In many accounts related with the topic of place, the definition of the concept, as it was stated in the second chapter, is elaborated through the formula-space plus meaning; by taking the foundational role of the nature into account, place and place-making can be considered as nature plus human.

Yet, the role of the nature should not be considered merely foundational. As the case of Rome demonstrates, nature has always played an influential role in shaping place and place-making experiences, from the cluster of hilltops and the river Tiber which has provided the earliest context on which the city emerged to today when the environmental problems out of human activities have become an important preoccupation.

Besides, it is important to mention that nature has further and deeper implication in that, ultimately, neither our cities and the places within nor people can be separated from the nature as the all-present context on which life starts and continues. By affording the very basic requirement of place and the life itself, the space on which the known and unknown laws of physics and biology determines the way we build and structure our physical environment, to our ongoing endeavor in understanding this crucial element of our world to extract and inspire from it.

HUMAN LANDSCAPE

The built environment is another contributing (f)actor in people's experience of the physical dimension, addressing those parts of the landscape which is directly altered or constructed by humanity. This is the most tangible aspect of place and also the most noticeable product of place-making. Within its broader environment, Rome is a geographical entity, an amalgam of different physical forms and structures which is shaped by direct involvement of human through the environment.

From the simple hilltop villages to the today metropolis of over 3 million inhabitants, Rome has been the complex of intertwined physical structures. This has included different building types with different functions along with other functional objects and infrastructures which through their architectural details (form) made up the physical totality of Rome.

Human landscape is a crucial part of human consciousness about environment, gradually shaped by human construction activities to give the desirable form for specific purposes. For many Romans Rome's physical structure is and was the most influential landscape through which their experiences of life take shape and as in the case of the larger environment on which we live, the whole earth itself, it is the human landscape in terms of urban and rural areas that has supported the life-line of humans.

Then, it is important to note that human landscapes are more than physical objects, shapes and masses in that they directly correspond to human intentions, feelings and aspirations. In every development stage of Rome, it was overviewed that how Romans imbued this particular product with meaning and identify with it in return. To put it in a nutshell, human landscape is the physical identification of place.

HUMAN ACTIVITIES

Moving beyond the physical dimensions of human's experience of place, the other foundation concerns with socio-cultural dimension of human experience, framing

those reoccurring human activities, which are formed through and out of developments in human interrelations and interactions throughout the history of a given environment. This is the most intangible, complex and intertwined side of human experience which cannot be easily identified through its forming elements.

Yet, it is important to state that this is a broad dimension where meanings and experiences of human, being an inseparable part of it the experience of place, shaped and are shaping through an array of informal and formal instinctual, social, political and cultural constructs.

Addressing the basic survival needs can be regarded as the first impression of this side of human experience which possesses many place-based manifestations. The survival instincts as in the form of need for such basics as food, water, air, shelter and hygiene are among the important aspects which constantly influenced human experience of place and place-making.

The socio-political structures as in the form of governments, economic and legal systems are among the most influential contributors of this sort. By regulating and forming different human activities these (f)actors have played a major role in shaping everyday life experience of people. Within the case of Rome, it is overviewed that how these aspects have a decisive role in shaping place and place-making experiences in two ways (1) their immediate impact in terms of emergence of places associated with different functioning elements of these particular institutions (2) by influencing and directing aspirations and intentions of people on greater scale.

Social norms and beliefs through their varying informal and formal forms such as worldviews, ideologies, myth, legends, faith or religion can be accounted as another contributing (f)actors. By influencing enduring patterns of human behaviors, these aspects have played a great role in human experience, either through the mundane or spiritual and symbolic dimensions. As in the case of religion, Rome can be accounted as one of the unique places. Through almost every stages of its development, this

aspect, in a way, was tied to everyday experiences of the inhabitants, rendering different experiences of place and place-making.

Human conflict is another aspect within this dimension that needs to be addressed in that not every aspect within human activities revolve around commonalities, but that conflicts and struggles over such aspects as resources and power have also greatly contributed to human experience. This may include large-scale events such as wars to everyday struggles such as socio-political struggles, which may have decisive role on everyday life of inhabitants in any given environment.

The other aspect within this dimension, which must be emphasized here, is the construction activity, expressing one of the major reoccurring activities of human which exclusively deals with the direct involvement of human in shaping the environment. Corresponding with the idea that there is an inherent professional association within human experience toward environment, in the case of Rome it is studied that how a specific experience of altering physical space and turning it into a habitable and meaningful space are shaped by ongoing construction activities. The most prominent expression of this activity can be seen through the emergence of built environment professions such as engineering, architecture, planning and alike. These professions through the specific activities and experiences have developed as a particular knowledge to shape the environment for the desired purposes.

4.2 UNFINISHEDNESS, A HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE

As already being said human experience as the central aspect of place is a dynamic and fluid concept which in turn renders an unfinished quality for place. Within this conception there can be identified a temporal/historical dimension since for something to be unfinished clearly the passage of time seems to be a prerequisite. By incorporating the passage of time and human experience through the conception of place we may identify a crucial aspect of place which can be determined by the concept of change.

History, ultimately, can be regarded as an unfinished context of many happenings and events, as an ongoing process of human experience and changing conditions. Place within this conception can be seen as all-present entity either as being produced by these events or as being actively or passively engaged in producing them.

To see this remark in its broadest sense the familiar concept of existence may provide initial insights. As it was frequently highlighted in the second chapter our existence is in constant relation with a location/place. Generally, existence refers to the conditions or the ways that an entity maintains its objective reality or simply its being. An interpretation of this for human beings can be seen through the ways that humans created and maintained their life-line on earth. For many anthropologists and archeologists this significance has been the matter of investigation as when and how humans have achieved this kind of life-line and according to some of these studies a time span of 25000 years is suggested as starting point for this life-line (Morris, 1972).

It is important to note that this life-line would not be maintained if the earth was not transformed into a more habitable place. From simply making a shelter through to the sophisticated structures of today by actively engaging with environment and transforming it to the desired purposes, this life-line has always been bonded to place-making activity. In this sense it would not be a false claim to say that right now we are the inheritors of this way of being. The places we are living in today are the heritage of thousands of years of human endeavor in transforming the earth into a more habitable place. Here we may define the unfinishedness of place as an ongoing and endless process of human endeavor in creating, maintaining, altering, constructing and demolishing different places from the dawn of the time.

Nevertheless, it must be noted that this life-line within the history of human kind has not been a fixed or a linear process that the history is filled with many occurrences and circumstances rendering different experiences in different periods. As a result it can be said human experience of place is also concerned with this

process. If we accept that human experience can change⁴⁵ then we can accept that the crucial part of it, the one that is determined by our interaction and interrelation with environment can also be subjected to change.

Correspondingly, the example of Rome can elucidate this process vividly as how changing conditions ultimately resulted in different manifestations of human-place interrelations and place-making activities. In the following diagram it has been attempted to delineate some of the most influential experiences that made up the history of the city from its emergence till today. This diagram is the basis of the preceding diagram which has intended to provide a conceptual frame of grassroots experiences in relation with place. Accordingly the follow up discussion will be directed toward the examination of some of these experiences and their changing condition within the case of Rome.

⁴⁵ As it can be revealed through history, for instance historians tend to distinguish different historical stages based on the different ongoing aspects of that given period such as the pre-industrial era suggesting the examination of human condition before the great technological advancement which has achieved in 18th century. This in fact complies with changing condition of human experience before and after industrialization experience.

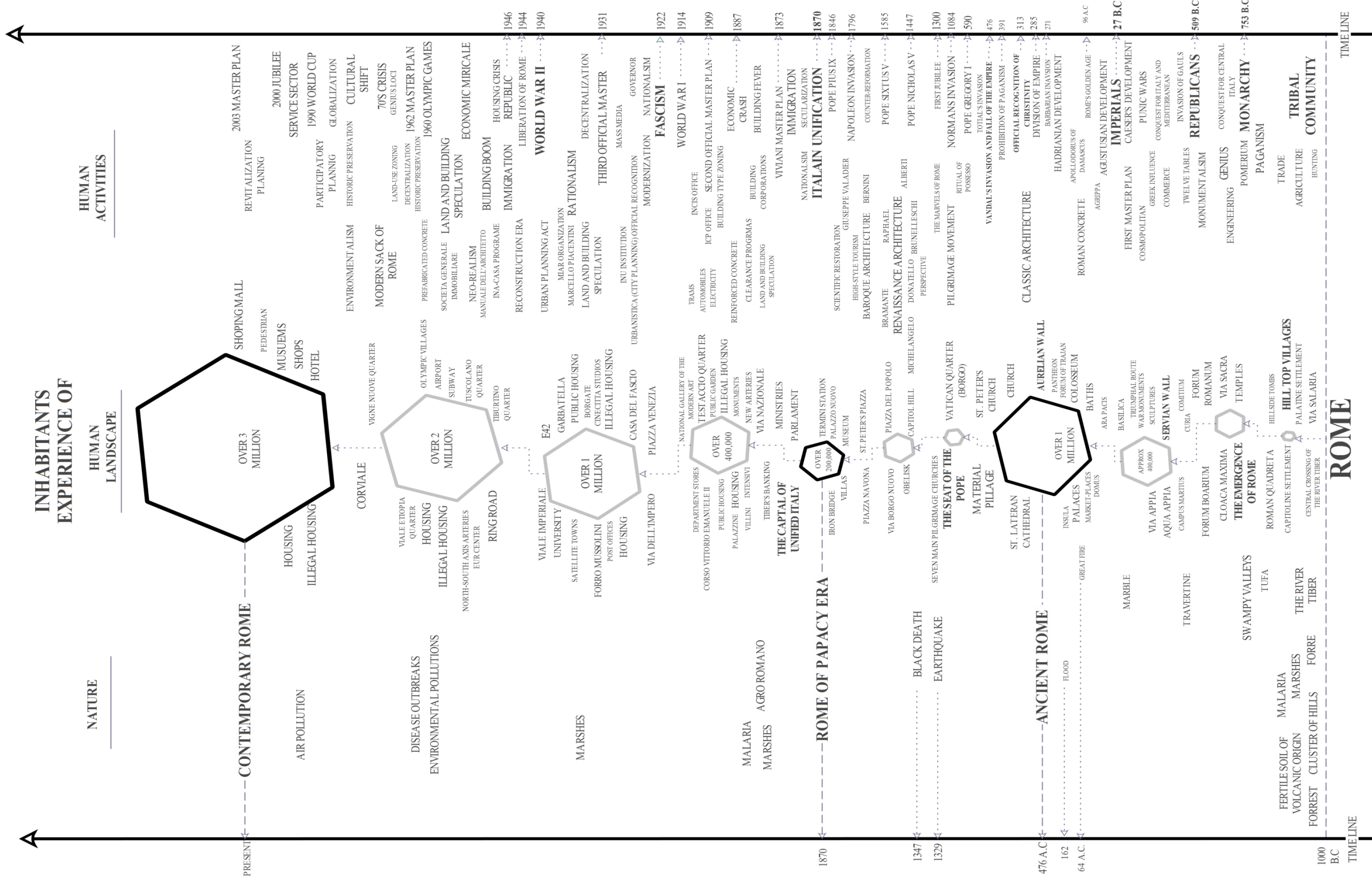


Diagram 4-2: Unfinishedness, a historical perspective

One important stage within the history of the city is the earliest experiences which have resulted in the emergence of Rome and its development within the ancient times. Without a doubt, experiences of nature constitute one of the most important aspects of this era in a way that several major experiences can be identified within a time span of 1500 years. An important instance can be found in the earliest stages of the shaping of the city as the emergence of Rome has directly associated with the improvement of habitation within the natural context of the site.

Experiences such as the emergence of the early engineering practices to drain and construct different type of sewage systems within the inhabitable marshes, as well as, the construction of aqueducts were some of the instances which greatly influenced the development of the city in this stage. Another instance can be found along the usage of several existing materials and natural features within site which influenced the landscape of the city. Besides, the role of the cluster of hills within site can be also highlighted for which along their functionality as to provide earliest habitable and defensible spaces, they have possessed a symbolic meaning for the inhabitants as well. The phenomena such as the periodic floods, earthquakes, fire outbreaks and diseases had also affected the Romans experiences of their environment which the emergence of earliest construction codes was directly associated with these occurrences.

The emergence and empowerment of human institutions are other aspects which within their developments influenced the experiences of place and place-making. This influence can be viewed through the formation of social, political, economic and cultural foundations which till today hold a great share in directing everyday experience of people. The formation of different political and legal systems along with the emergence of different traditions and beliefs are among the major manifestations of this experience. For instance, as it is known to history the formation of the city is regarded to be coincided with the formation of a political structure within the site which is known as monarchy when, the settling community acquired a social cohesion with a distinguishable structure. This significance can be

mapped out through the whole history of the city while within the ancient times it followed by the formation of republic and empire.

The most obvious influence of this experience can be seen through the emergence of different places associated with different activities embedded within the political structure of a given period. By evolving from tribal community to monarchy and republic then empire it is witnessed that the city saw the emergence of such places as forums, public and administering buildings. In addition to this, variety of policies and aspirations associated with each political structure are also greatly influenced place-making activities.

Human conflict can be accounted as one of the factors associated with this aspect, directly influenced the life within the city so as its landscape. The construction of enclosing defensive walls was directly associated with this experience which, through the perception of vulnerability of the city to different invasions, became one of the most defining parts of the city's landscape within the ancient period. The other major influence of this experience can be found within the partaking of Romans in different conquests through Italian peninsula and beyond which in turn left a great imprint on many aspects of the city.

The economic flourishing was one of the influences of this development which led to the reinforcement of places associated with this activity. Out of the growth in sea trade, harbors and warehouses were begun to emerge so as market-places and shops in varying scales. It is as well witnessed Rome out of such developments became a cosmopolitan city which in turn influenced some of the elements of Roman place-making. Monumental place-making is also another notable product of this experience which left a major imprint on the landscape of the city. Construction of different monuments with different architectural details, ranging from sculptures, columns and arches to many other major structures to commemorate victories and victorious commanders were some of the instances.

The formation of social beliefs and traditions which are mostly regarded as part of the symbolic dimension of human identity is the other major contributor to the experiences of Romans. The most notable instance of this can be seen through the establishment of a religious and ritualistic tradition known as paganism. The construction of temples as the places for worship is a significant instance associated with this experience. Other than stimuli for direct involvement in construction activities, the formation of beliefs regarding the symbolic dimension of physical environment such as pomerium, the religious boundary of the city, genius as guardian spirit of the city and the places so as naming of some of the major physical elements of the city with symbolic and religious expressions such as Via Sacra are testimony of how this aspect influenced Romans experience of place.

Consideration of technical and aesthetic dimension of construction activities in varying scales is the other aspect which deserves attention. This important experience, which is greatly influenced by the increase of population and the expansion of the city, is included such manifestations as construction of infrastructures like roads, bridges and hydraulic structures, so as the architecture of major structures of the city like forums, temples, monuments, baths and other public and functional buildings. The construction of Basilica as the multi-purposed structures which became a major building type for numerous important places is one of the important instances of such experience. The invention of composite materials such as Roman concrete is also another instance which led to the larger scale constructions.

Here, it is also important to consider the role of the known and unknown individuals, groups of people and agencies behind these developments. By inventing different technical solutions and artistic styles along with ratification of rules and regulations these people directly influenced the design, construction and maintenance of different places in varying scales. The instances of this experience includes variation of engineers, masons, construction workers, architects and consultant figures and agencies to political figures such as emperors whose often personal

inclinations to urban development left a major imprint on the landscape of the city. For instance, the planned development under the rule of Julius Caesar is regarded as one of the most comprehensive actions of this sort which entitled as the first master plan for the city in its earliest stages.

Within this context, the issue of housing can be regarded as one of the important aspects through which many manifestations of this experience can be found. The rise in height as in the case of multi-story housing blocks-insula which formed a great portion of Rome's urban fabric due to the increase of population, reaching to over one million inhabitants in the mid-empire period, was one of the perpetuated solutions conducted in the ancient period. The other instance is the ratification of construction codes for this type of housing which included often height restrictions and mandatory technics in construction and material usages.

One of the important manifestations of changing experiences as in the form of socio-political aspects can be found within the upheavals and weakening of political structure across the empire by the late imperial period. While the stability of government had provided a context for flourishing of place-making activities and a sense of place associated with the glory and power of the empire, the beginning of upheavals which ultimately led to the fall of empire became synonymous with the great halt in place-making activities and changing experiences of place in respect to the decline of the capital. This can be witnessed in such decisions as division of empire and displacement of capital which alongside the foreign invasions and also natural disasters led to the dramatic and prolonged decline for the city.

Becoming the center of a universal religion amidst the following centuries, which the city kept distancing from its former significance, can be viewed as a new experience accompanying new dimensions for place and place-making experiences. By the official recognition of Christianity by the emperor Constantine in the late empire period, a new era for Rome and Romans had begun as the city became the seat of the faith leaders-the popes. As the most prominent places associated with the

rituals of the faith and also its administering policies, church and church-making became an important manifestation of new experiences associated with the era.

Another manifestation of change can be found within the early encounters with remaining ancient landscape. It was witnessed for a long period of time, within middle ages through to the beginning of renaissance; the material pillage of inherited structures became one of the most practiced activities to provide the needed material for new constructions. One important reason for this experience was the conflict between new socio-political order stemmed from Christianity and paganism characterizing the former era. Associated with this, the adaptations of temples to function as a church can be regarded as another example.

Other important change within this period is the emergence of pilgrimage movement which became the main source for the economy of the city. Different to the past which commerce, taxation and militarism were among the main sources of wealth for the city, the spread of the faith well beyond the site led the city to become the host for many traveling believers. This experience became one of the most influential contributors in shaping place-making activities within the period. The earliest coherent place-making activity out of this development and the perception of a need for a new administering center can be found within the formation of Vatican quarter. The quarter had already seen the construction of St Peter church as the seat of pope and most important place within Christian clergy which was originally constructed by the emperor Constantine. The adding of hostels and other churches and structures associated with the new government and also construction of an exclusive fortification became the manifestations of this experience which is still can be witnessed today.

Investment in symbolic dimension of the urban landscape and the places within can be regarded as one of the relatively similar experiences within history of the city in this era. The perception that consideration of aesthetical qualities of landscape could result into the more influence of the ideology associated with the place, here Christianity and Rome, alongside the consideration of such issues as accommodation

and flow of the pilgrims, turned into one of the major place-making experiences within this era. The most prominent instance of this can be found within the planned actions of the pope Sixtus V, which in terms of linking major structures of the city both visually and physically, and other place-making activities such as the construction of piazzas rendered a new image for the city.

The realization of such policies in terms of considering technical and aesthetical specificities is the other important experience which in this period acquired new dimensions. Drawing from the past experiences in place-making activities, in terms of architecture and urbanism, associated with the ancient heritage, is one of the new dimensions in respect to this experience. The utilization of perpetuated solution for construction activities as in the case of using basilica as a responsive structure for the new buildings can be seen as one of the instances of such experience.

History can be regarded as a context of many events and happenings which are derived from human experience in encountering many deficiencies and opportunities. These experiences may be new or repetitive; it is important to understand that this process is dynamic and it certainly accompanies a relation with place and place-making.

4.3 UNFINISHEDNESS, A PROFESSIONAL PERSPECTIVE

By accepting the depth and dynamism of human experience of place as endless interrelations and interactions of human when encountering environment, one should also notice the profound aspect of this flux, when it comes to the professional association of human to exclusively and directly participate in creation of place. Corresponding with the idea that there exists an inherent professional association through human experience in altering environment, this activity has already been identified within the case of Rome as “professional place-making activity”.

Professional place-making expresses the human active engagement with environment. It is a specific experience which directly involves an activity of altering physical space and turning it into a habitable and meaningful space. In Rome, from

very its dawn, as it was overviewed through the practice of many individuals, groups of people and agencies whose professional association is exclusively directed toward designing, creating and maintaining different places in varying scales. The most prominent expression of this experience can be found within emergence and development of such professional practices as planning, architecture, engineering and alike which according to the definition of each, from encountering the most technical aspects of the construction activity to the most artistic, alteration of physical space to serve a specific purpose is the shared denominator,.

One important facet of this activity which the thesis put forward from the beginning is to acknowledge that professional place-making is an aspect of human experience of place, and also it should be considered as part of the larger and endless human-environment interrelations and interactions. This has enabled the activity to evolve consonant with changing condition of human experience acquiring different sensibilities as well as the unfinished quality that has been emphasized repeatedly. In this sense, the follow up discussion will present some of the interpretations of this remark within the case of Rome and it will be followed by answering the opening questions of the thesis in respect to the relevancy of urban design to the concept of place-making.

Professional place-making directly corresponds with the needs, emotions, intentions, desires and aspirations of human. This can range from addressing basic survival needs to the larger aspirations within the socio-political structures. This is the most obvious dimension of the activity which manifested in the constant construction of different corresponding places within a given environment. Including the construction of the earliest structures as shelter through to the drafting of several master plans to guide the future growth of the city consonant with socio-political aspirations, the manifestations of this dimension in Rome can be seen from the early moments when the site was inhabited to the present day, and as we might not have a reason to doubt that the city and its inhabitants will continue to live on, then the activity will continue as well.

Given that point, professional place-making activities are also reciprocally corresponded to changing human condition, suggesting that key events and situations either human related (e.g. out of the activity itself, human conflicts, changing regimes, technological advancement) or else (e.g. natural or unknown) can essentially serve as a grounding for human capacity to think, act, feel and desire in a specific period.

Part of this intertwined process can be seen through the dynamism of professional place-making as it simultaneously engages human awareness about the intended activity and its consequences. For instance, the perception that the draining of inhabitable marshes was vital to enlarge the Roman community in 5th century B.C. can be regarded as early practices of “engineering”. While we might never know that the intention here was to raise a powerful civilization, we do know that this has been a pivotal event for the emergence of the city and its history till today. The activity, as well, became the initiation of a particular professional place-making activity which has attained some kind of problem-solving characteristic, and also it has evolved aligned with the technical aspects of building and the construction of infrastructures to sustain the functionality of the city. Another instance can be found within the construction of monuments beginning in the ancient era which has raised the awareness that how symbolic meanings can be communicated through a physical structures to boost the image of the city. This awareness and its effect became part of the tradition of another particular place-making activity known as “architecture”. Attaining kind of expressive characteristic, the activity has evolved through several styles aligned with the artistic and also the socio-political context of different periods.

Another interpretation of the above mentioned intertwined process can be discussed through the fact that any professional place-making activity starts at a specific point in time to address a specific issue ahead. Then, any given point in time can be influenced by pre-existing and existing condition, suggesting that professional

place-making is always bonded to the larger human-environment interrelations and interactions.

It was overviewed in the third chapter that in Rome any professional place-making activity at any given time was bonded to specific circumstances and situations associated with that time. Evidently, socio-political context at any given time was one of the most prominent (f)actors in this regard. Such forms as legal systems, economic system and situations, cultural and political structures, policies and also the intentions of the rulers all greatly contributed to the orientation of professional place-making activities. By not having an equal share, the landscape of Rome was to a great extent shaped through the actions of kings, governors, emperors, popes, political geniuses, private contractors and also immigrants. This flux has also took on extreme conditions as for instance, on one hand, the fall of the empire in the 5th century caused the city to be at the brink of total destruction, not to mention a prolonged halt in professional place-making activities, and on the other hand, the post-war era and the economic “miracle” that the city went through caused relentless professional place-making activities at great and varying scales.

In such extreme conditions, nature has also done its part through several floods, disease outbreaks, earthquakes and fire outbreaks which led to some innovative solutions such as mandatory material usages, construction codes and construction of specific infrastructures. The list can be filled with many other contributing (f)actors which may or may not be included in this study. As it was highlighted frequently, different elements that are interplaying through human activities and institutions such as technological advancement and scientific discoveries, education system and evolution of transportation systems all contributed to the orientation of professional place-making activities.

However, of particular importance for this discussion is the existing and pre-existing landscape that a professional place-making activity is initiated at any given point in time. As an aspect of human experience of place, the places of the past also played an influential role in affecting professional place-making activities in any given time. As also noticed by Winston Churchill as he once said “we shape our buildings; thereafter they shape us”⁴⁶, the end-product of any professional place-making activity will always intertwine with the new reality of a specific period, and if it remains, it will continue to influence future experiences.

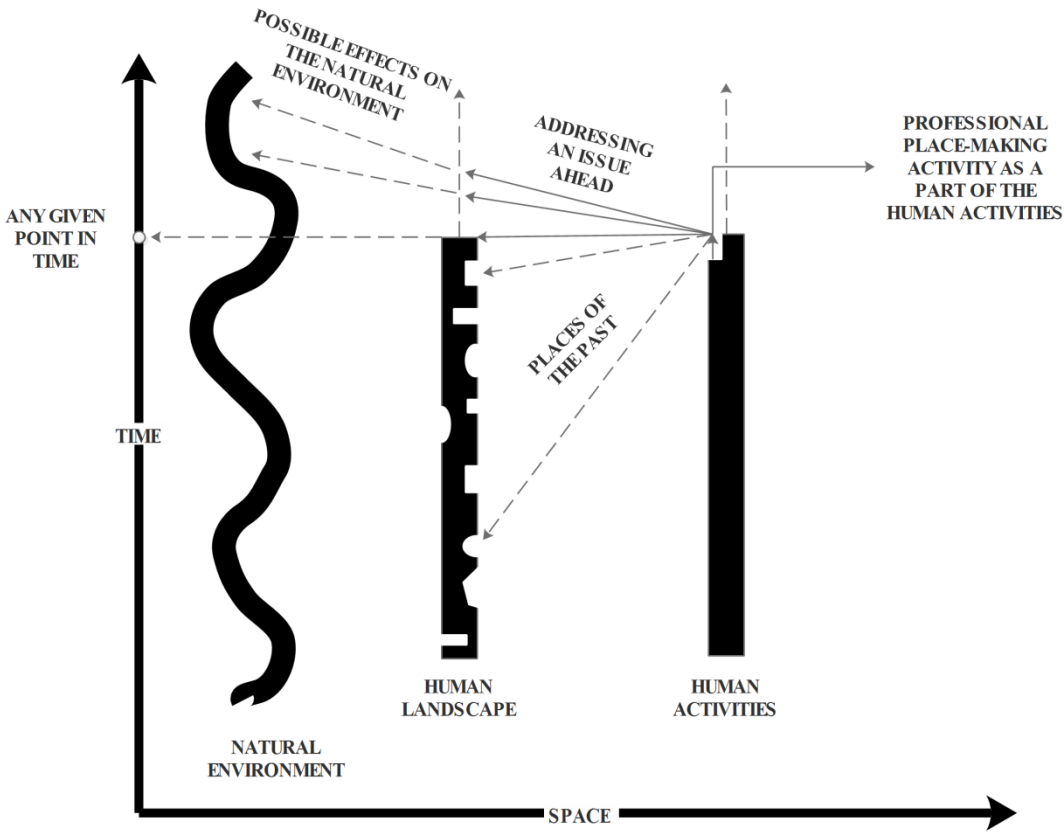


Diagram 4-3: Unfinishedness, a professional perspective

The most prominent instance of this remark is the remaining places of the ancient times, in that they represent the memories and also the experiences of the past. The ancient landscape of Rome has been one of the most important instances of this sort.

⁴⁶ In a 1943 speech calling for the historical reconstruction of the House of Commons that had been bombed in 1941 (Bull, 2007, p. 62).

These landscapes influenced many professional place-making activities of its future such as many architectural styles, historic preservation movement, and many other urbanistic projects through the long history of the city which utilized the scenery of these places to draw a sense of pride and glory, as well as a source of income for the city.

While, from this point of view, ancient landscapes, and the others which are regarded as cultural heritages, are mostly craving the attention, but the contemporary human landscapes can easily be fitted in this discussion. Out of many contextual (f)actors, the contemporary era has constantly been the scene of flourishing of professional place-making activities at varying scales, as well as many associated emerging thoughts, confronting ideas and different solutions. The past hundred years of Rome demonstrates this cycle vividly, as for instance another particular professional place-making activity known as “planning” constantly evolved in respect to changing realities out of the rapid growth of the city. From providing general guiding policies through to law binding strict measures then decline and rise once again, the activity has equipped with efficient spatial distribution technics such as building-type zoning, land-use zoning, participatory planning, revitalization planning. However, the efficiency that is mentioned may be the matter of dispute for many. As already overviewed within the history of the city, many found this particular professional place-making activity as responsible for many deficiencies the city saw in the last century.

Then, it is important to emphasize that professional place-making activities are deemed as an improvement for their existing condition. This may pose questions such as for whom and how the improvement is, which are critically important questions and that they can be considered as a basic reference for a system of value through which “bad” place-making and “good” place-making can be identified from different point of views. Yet, here it is intended to emphasize that beyond our judgment, the above suggested remark has been the endless nature of the activity which has ultimately enriched and enriching, what can be called, the knowledge of

professional place-making, as the amalgam of the awareness of the actions mentioned above, and also others overviewed before. They are all expressions of our unfinished activity in experiencing environment and the visions we develop to improve it.

That being said, it can be suggested that “urban design” has also emerged out of this endless process. Since, it can be argued that long before the inauguration of the profession, the activity had been practiced simultaneously. The long history of Rome can be suggested as testimony for this claim as we think of how the city has been shaped through the constant practice of different professional place-making activities within almost 30 centuries.

The changing reality of human contemporary landscape, as it was also seen through the case of Rome has been the pivotal moment for the awareness for urban design as a new expansion for the knowledge of professional place-making. Could it be the final solution? Through the human experience the answer is no, in that the very nature of the process is endless.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION

After considering the arguments mentioned above now, it is essential to ask, what the central theme of this thesis “the idea of unfinishedness of place” can offer for the future? To answer this question, some remarks need to be highlighted.

It is important to acknowledge that the ideas of place and place-making, and also the way that this thesis has attempted to uncover them, are all fall under the larger understanding of human-environment interrelations and interactions; that there coexist different ways to consider all of the raised issues here, which are not necessarily ignore the validity and importance of human experience nor necessarily wrong for having different point of a view. Yet, one thing is obvious, these interrelations and interactions are mutual and of crucial importance.

Although according to the aims of this thesis, it has been attempted to avoid any judgment to an extent possible through which the intended case of Rome has subjected to change, it was overviewed that in any stages there was a direct association between the inhabitant’s life and their environment. And, this included both negative and positive conditions. In that, it can be said, the environment in which people reside and conduct their activities is integral to their condition and that any change in-between could lead to real consequences.

In this sense what cannot be denied is the very importance of the actions, which what has been realized and being realized is the product of the gradual actions that people made through their environment, either consciously or unconsciously of the possible consequences.

In this thesis, although the main goal was to suggest that place is an unfinished concept, this should not be conveyed as no matter what we are bonded to place and

we will be anyway. The aim here was not to erase the question, but, conversely, it was attempted to suggest that the question has always been relevant and it will be, and therefore we always have to consider place as a crucial element of life and also we have to think of the solutions to enhance it.

In the light of these issues, the following pages are devoted to present the derived insights of this endeavor with which the thesis hopes to contribute to our long lasted and endless quest for making better places.

THE RECOGNITION OF HUMAN EXPERIENCE

Human experience is the most important aspect that this thesis suggests one should exhaust in comprehending place and place-making, where the human needs, senses, feelings, emotions, intentions and reflections meet the outside environment. Even though in some ways these are indescribable, cannot be grasped fully, too subjective or too variable, unfit for scientific methodologies, human experience is the most common ground, concrete and, if recognized, obvious aspect that glues us all.

This thesis realized that if we might think of an effective place-making, through which human experience simultaneously respected and addressed, the recognition of human experience is the first and most important task that everyone should adhere, since human experience tells us that place is visual, functional, physical, cultural, social, political, spiritual and historical. Given this, the thesis suggests human experience can be regarded as a comprehensive intellectual core for built-environment professions especially for urban design which has arguably observed the task since its inauguration.

Human experience also calls us to be humble, respectful and inclusive. It calls us to learn from the past and acknowledge that what we know today is the result of the past. Moreover, it tells us to always keep in mind that every line we draw on a paper or on a computer screen, and that every signature we put on documents will

ultimately contribute in people's experiences as well as our professional experiences, since through human experience we are all place-makers.

THE ASSESSMENT OF HUMAN EXPERIENCE

After the recognition, the next step is to assess human experience. Probably, this is the hardest step which has also centered within the consensus of the academic community both by the proponents of the task and also the detractors. By being aligned with the proponents of the task, the thesis suggests that although it is hard and maybe impossible to fully comprehend the totality and the complexity of human experience, this should not be regarded as being ignorant of and uninvolved in the very importance of the task.

Why do people behave differently in different circumstances? What are the needs of human? How do desires and intentions take shape? Why is human inclined toward rationality?

Why and how do people imbue their environment with meaning? What constitutes human consciousness about the environment? What are the levels of this consciousness? What should be the relationship between the designer and the people? What kind of physical forms can evoke stronger sensibilities and vice versa?

How human has formed social and political systems? What is the nature of these human structures? What type of a legal system can better address the needs of the people? Should economy speak first? Is there a limit for development?

These are all can be regarded as questions among many others associated with this step. Obviously, answering and studying each of these questions in their own rights has been far beyond the task of this thesis, but as the case of Rome suggests, all of these questions can be regarded relevant in comprehending the ideas of place and place-making. Moreover, these questions are embedded in the heart of many other branches of knowledge, and the process of answering is still underway.

Then, as these questions have not yet been answered, we should be always learners, or in other words, as they clearly can be regarded as another manifestation of unfinishedness of place, then we should be and always will be unfinished learners for the sake of effective place-making.

Nevertheless, the other important remark here to emphasize is to acknowledge that change is a crucial part of human experience. As it was overviewed and emphasized through the case of Rome many facets of human experience has changed through the course of history; including some of those that correspond to human enduring needs and desires. While the nature of this change can be a matter of question, we should be aware of the change and accept that our experiences change as we keep trying to transform our environment. Then, one of the important tasks that need to be highlighted here is to get involved in assessing new dimensions of human experience, which are relevant in our very present day.

For instance, although mostly regarded as contrary to seemingly static quality of place, cyberspace has been one of the important spheres that today shape our experiences in myriad of interactions and interrelations with many place-based manifestations. Then, one of the important instances, which one can delve into and extract how this sphere can influence our experiences, is the cyberspace. The work of Barlas and Çalışkan (2006) “Virtual Space as a Public Sphere: The political and Professional Agenda of Spatial Planning and Design” can be regarded as important efforts aligned with this task, which includes the examination of this new sphere and its implications about place experience, planning and design. This work and other related endeavors should be promoted and regarded as another manifestation of unfinishedness of place which expanded the boundaries of our awareness about this new experience, place and effective place-making.

THE INTERPRETATION OF HUMAN EXPERIENCE

After recognizing and assessing, the next step is the interpretation of human experience. This step is exclusively concerned with the giving form to place at the

end of the larger process of human-place interrelations and interactions. The physical form is the physical identification of place, without it, it ceases to exist. After assessing the human experience the designers should be able to interpret the assessed experience into the physical form.

In doing so, the thesis suggests that the designers should be aware that they are exercising at the edge of the knowledge of professional place-making, equipped with the latest discoveries of the knowledge as well as being aware of the past actions and their consequences. The intended action may expand the knowledge or already has been a part of it.

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