Map of the Aegean Sea
After Bronze Age - new economic system - iron / alphabet / coinage

Basic and indicating elements:
- Self-governance (aristocracy or democracy), autonomy and independence (city-state)
- City became the “polis”
- Monetary economy
- Coins minted by the city, which bear its own symbols
- Agora (social and economical market place)
- Acropolis citadel, which now bears a temple instead of the Mycenaean palace
- Temples, one or more are dedicated to one patron deity of the city
- Gymnasium, Greek theatre building
- Absorption of villages and the incorporation of their tribes into the substructure of the polis
- Social classes and citizenships (three types of inhabitants)
The various bodies needed to uphold the administration of the city were as follows:

- The common hearth, dedicated to the guardian deity (sacrifices and ritual feasting symbolic place, situated next to the building in which the highest ranking officials of the city resided)
- The council of nobles or officials, which represented the citizenry, was known as the boule. This body sent representatives to the prytaneion and met in a covered hall known as the bouleuterion.
- The assembly of citizens, or agora, who met to listen to the decisions of their rulers or to debate.

The population of Greek cities (excluding slaves and foreigners) was constantly being reduced, not only because of a lack of resources but also because of a conscious political decision: every time the population exceeded a certain figure an expedition would be organised to set up some distant colony. This self-imposed limit was not regarded as being in any way restrictive; it was a necessary pre-condition for the orderly development of civil life. The population had to be large enough to enable an army to be raised, but not so large as to impede the smooth running of the assembly; that is, it had to be small enough for the citizens to be able to have some knowledge of each other and so choose their magistrates.

Aristotle: no real polis if more than 100,000 inhabitants
Xenophon: an ideal polis should have 20,000 - 40,000 inhabitants with 5,000 citizens

The Ancient Greece had ca. 1,000,000 inhabitants and 500 to 700 poleis
The Greek City

Four Main Factors:

- The city was a single, united entity, in which there were no restricted or independent areas. It could be surrounded by walls, but not subdivided into secondary zones. There were certain specific areas (the agora and the theatron) in which the majority, if not the whole, of the population could meet and assert their rights as a single community.

- The city was divided into three zones: the private areas, the sacred areas and the public areas.

- The city was an artificial organism inserted into the natural environment, to which it was attached by a very tenuous link. It respected the natural lines of the countryside.

- The city was basically a living organism, but at a given time it could reach a point of stabilisation.

It is for these qualities - unity, a lack of rigidity, the maintenance of a balance with nature, stability of growth that the Greek city has always been, and will remain, a valid model for all other urban developments. It succeeded in achieving a precise and lasting realisation of the theory of human co-existence.
Acropolis: palace and temple in the Mycenaean period

Development of the settlement along the main roads leading out of the town: Areopag, Kerameikos

No determining axes

The city centre starts developing in 600 BC
Agora is public from Solon onwards (ca. 500 BC)
500 BC large buildings at the Agora
The rectangular Agora is the centre of the city - the position of the main buildings is determined by the landscape
under Pericles extension of the Acropolis (ca. 450 BC)
slow growth
Hippodamus of Miletus has planned Piraeus and prob. Miletus

These cities, and others founded in both the Western and Eastern Mediterranean, such as Olynthus, Agrigentum, Paestum, Naples (Neapolis) and Pompeii, were laid out according to a geometrical plan. This plan governed everything from the scale of individual buildings to the scale of the city as a whole.
The goal of Hippodamus of Miletus was the urban design of an ideal polis - three social classes:
1/3 craftsmen
1/3 farmers
1/3 soldiers
together ca. 10,000 inhabitants

Hippodamus of Miletus might have helped by rebuilding Miletus; it is only proved that he designed Piraeus
The city was rebuild in a grid like layout after the Persians had demolished it in 484 BC:
- 2 km peninsula
- 2 ports - one trading and one battle port
- public buildings between the two ports
- hardly any temples
- large-scale planning;
- slowly built until 2 century BC
- e.g. Southagora ca. 175 -164 BC
- large areas within the city fortifications remained empty
The streets ran in straight lines, with a few main ones (using length as the criterion), which divided the city into a series of strips, and a larger number of secondary streets, which crossed the former at right angles. None of them had any pretensions to grandeur, being of modest dimensions: the main streets were between 5 and 10 metres wide, while the secondary ones measured between 3 and 5 metres across. The result was a grid of uniformly rectangular blocks (insulae), which varied in certain cases in order to fit in with the local terrain. A lesser block—the distance between two secondary streets—would be large enough to accommodate one or two individual houses (often 30 to 35 metres), while a larger one—the distance between two main streets—was designed to provide enough space for an uninterrupted line of houses (from 50 up to 300 metres).
Miletus - theatre
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Priene - 400 BC

Grid layout despite differences in altitude
Cut into the terrain
Priene - peristyle houses
Olynthus - expansion in 432 BC

Residential districts
Residential districts: block-system
1 block - 10 houses (ca. 35 m x 90 m)

Abb. 253. Drei im Zuge der Erweiterung Olynthers erbaute Häuserblocks; sie maßen jeweils 120 x 300 Fuß (ca. 35 x 90 m).
4th century BC: Alexander the Great

Transition from the polis system to an empire

Greek centres of political and military power had to be positioned all across the empire - colonisation

Alexandria is an example of a planned colonial city
Fortifications regardless of the city plan

The style of ancient Greece could not be implanted into the eastern parts of the empire (temple deities, building styles)

The agora was transformed into a bazaar until 250 AD, the road network remains

Dura Europos - founded 300 BC, destroyed 250 AD
Dura Europos - transformation: agora into bazaar
After the death of Alexander the Great in 323 BC the capital of a strong Kingdom of Pergamon - under the Attalid dynasty Great composition, slow growth
Mastery of the Greek to place buildings into the landscape - „urban landscaping"
Pergamon - acropolis

1. Herodion (dem Heidenkult dienendes Gebäude)
2. Geschäfte
3. Haupteingang zur Akropolis
4. Fundamente des Propylon (Eingangsportikus)
5. Treppe zu den Palästen
6. Bezirk der Athene
7. Tempel der Athene
8. Bibliothek
9. Ein Haus
10. Palast Eumenes' II.
11. Palast Attalos' I.
12. Hellenistische Häuser
13. Kaserne und Kommandoturm
14. Arsenal
15. Trajaneum
16. Theater
17. Tempel des Dionysos
18. Terrasse des Theaters
19. Portikus mit zwei Gängen
20. Zeusalär
21. Obere Agora
22. Zur Agora gehörender Tempel
1 Bezirk der Hera Basilica
2 Prytanion (?)
3 Heiligtum der Demeter
4 Monumentaler Eingang
5 Quelle
6 Brunnen
7 Versammlungssaal
8 Tempel des Askulap
9 Oberes Gymnasium
10 Mittleres Gymnasium
11 Zum Gymnasium gehörender Tempel des Hermes
12 Eingangstreppe
13 Quelle
14 Monumentaler Eingang zum Bereich der Gymnasien
15 Unteres Gymnasium
16 Hauptstraße
17 Geschäfte
18 Haus des Attalos
19 Untere Agora
20 Haus mit Peristyl
Urbanization in the West:
Greek colonies only in southern Italy and Sicily

Planning based on grid layouts from the 7th century BC
Several Factors for the success of Rome

- The original background to the growth of Roman power; that is to say, the Etruscan civilisation, which between the seventh and sixth centuries BC spread through Italy from the Po Valley to Campania.

- The extraordinary development of Rome itself, which began as a small and insignificant town and finally ended up as a city par excellence and capital of a vast empire.

- The colonising methods used by the Romans throughout their empire, three main aspects:
  (a) The creation of infrastructures, such as bridges, roads, lines of fortification and aqueducts.
  (b) The division of agricultural land into farmed units.
  (c) The foundation of new cities.

- The decentralisation of political office during the latter days of the Empire, a process that resulted in the setting up of regional capitals like Constantinople.
Etruscans invented the procedures for founding a city which the Romans subsequently adopted. These involved, first, the “inauguratio” (consulting the gods before beginning work), secondly, the “limitatio” (tracing the external perimeter and the internal limits of the city) and, thirdly, the “consacratio” (celebrating the newly founded city with sacrifices).

The Etruscan cities, however, did not follow the same geometrical plan as Roman ones.

Town planning in the Roman Empire:
Organic growth until the 4th century BC, when the power of the Roman Empire gets strong. Then new towns are planned and old towns are fortified and extended from a center point with the help of a surveying device called “Groma” the East-west axis (decumanus) and north-south axis (cardo) are determined.
It has been suggested that the earliest inhabited area was at the top of the Palatine Hill, the only one to have steep and easily defensible sides (unlike the Quirinal, the Caelian a.s.o. and also the only one to have enough space at its summit for a village.

The first 4 quarters (Suburbana – Esquilina – Collina – Palatin) were controlled from the hills.

The valley in between was drained (cloaca maxima) and on this land was built a new commercial area known as the Forum Romanum.

The Capitoline Hill fulfilled the function of an acropolis.
The insulae were residential blocks on several floors, designed for multiple occupation and covering an area of 300-400 square metres. They consisted of a number of equal-sized rooms facing outwards with windows and balconies with the ground floors being occupied by shops (tabernae) or more luxurious residences, and the upper ones divided into apartments (cenacula) of varying sizes for the middle and lower classes (6-7 stories).
1 790 domus and 44 300 insulae

The domus were the characteristic single family houses of Mediterranean cities, built on one or two storeys and facing inwards rather than outwards. They were composed of a number of rooms, each of which had its own specific use, grouped round an atrium and aperistylem, and they covered an area of 800 to 1,000 square metres, like the famous ones at Pompeii and Herculaneum.
Ostia - township and port of ancient Rome
Aqueduct in the South of France constructed by the Roman Empire in the 1st century AD
Water supply for Nimes, h = 50 m, l = 265 m
Leptis Magna, Libya - development (from 46 AD)
Timgad, Algeria - a Roman colonial town in North Africa (founded ca. 100 AD)
Spalato (Split, Croatia) - Diocletian's Palace (ca. 300 AD)
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Parcelling nowadays
Introduction

Since the 5th century > barbarians occupy the north-western areas of the former Roman Empire (Gaul, Italy, Germany, Britain) > threat of an Arab advance from the 7th century onwards > isolated on the edge of the ancient civilised world + their cities in a decline

11th century > cities once more began to grow > but the post-Roman decline broke the continuity of their development (different as in the rest of the Mediterranean)

Many new towns and cities founded on the remains of old ones - but all that remained of old Roman cities were ruins (the new towns had different social character and architectural layout)

On the other hand, medieval cities (Viterbo, Siena, Chartres, Gubbio and Bruges), which have remained essentially unchanged - are still lived in and still retain their original characteristics > original medieval zone has been reduced to a small central nucleus; yet some medieval elements still exercise an influence on the much larger contemporary city
The most obvious effect of the economic and political crisis that gripped Europe following the collapse of the Roman Empire was the decay of the cities and the dispersal of their inhabitants into the countryside, where they were able to live off the land.

Countryside was divided into large estates with hundreds of farms; at the centre was the owner's place of residence (cathedral, abbey, castle); each section would be controlled from the local manor.

The land controlled by the manor was divided into three parts:
- seigneur's private domain,
- farming land shared by the serfs and
- common land (woods, meadows and marshes)

In this rural society, which formed the basis of feudal society, cities played a very secondary role: they no longer functioned as administrative centres, and they became less and less important as trading and manufacturing centres.
City walls - fully maintained or reduced so as to protect a very limited part of the city
Churches - outside the walls near the tombs of the saints

Great similarity between the way of living in small, impoverished urban communities in Roman cities and in villages in the countryside, that sprang up on sites that were naturally favoured

Features of the new buildings are their spontaneity, their individuality and their infinite variety >> resulted from a lack of resources, a scarcity of skilled artisans, the absence of any organised artistic culture and the pressing need for defence and survival, but also from a new spirit of freedom and confidence

The final result was that they eradicated the difference between nature and geometry by gradually breaking down the linear precision of the ancient buildings and roads with small additions and variations, and by shaping the formless elements of the countryside by emphasising the outlines of hills, inlets and rivers