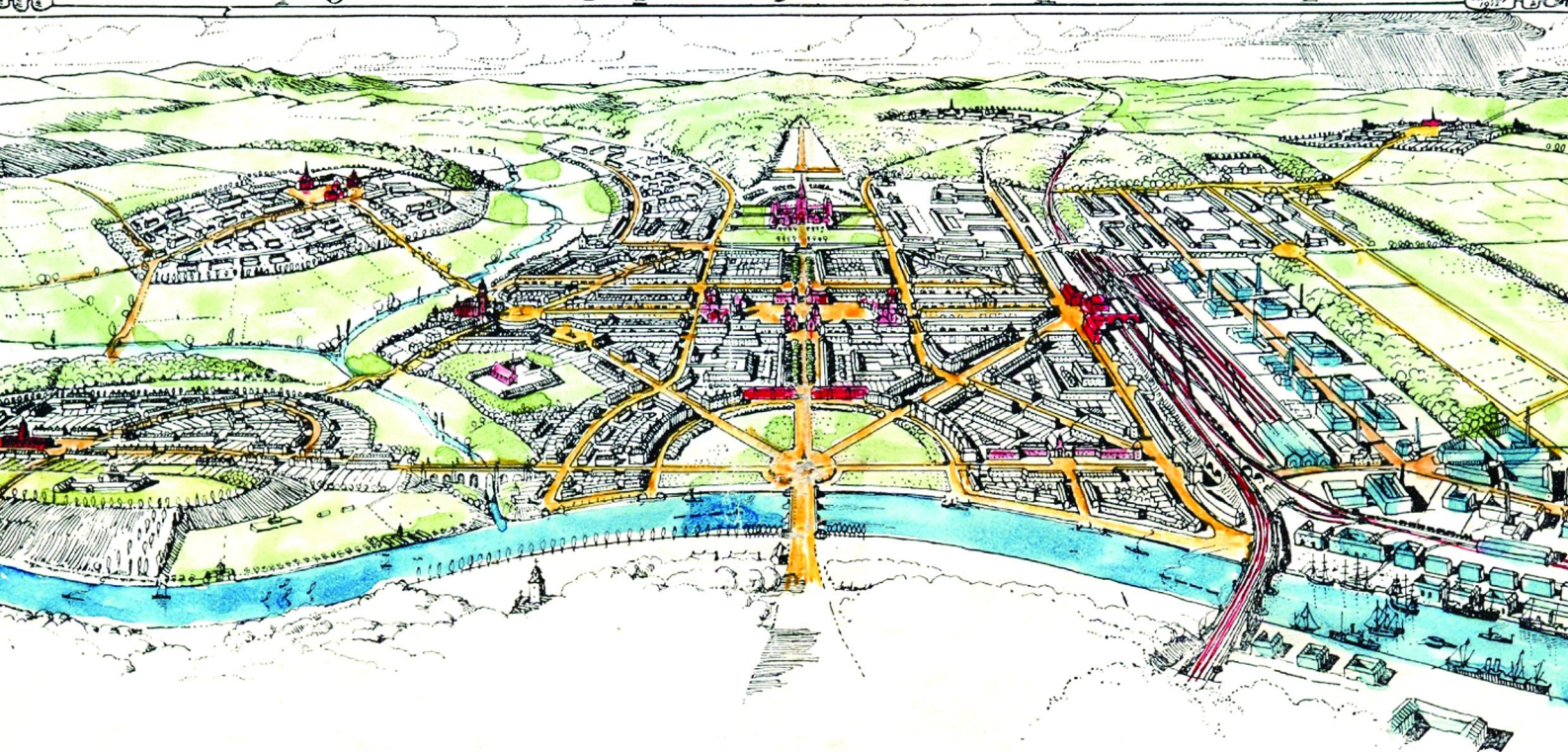


# nothing gained by overcrowding!

a centenary celebration and re-exploration of raymond unwin's  
pamphlet - 'how the garden city type of development may  
benefit both owner and occupier'

*The · Garden · City · Principle · applied · to · Suburbs ·*



The Lady Margaret  
Paterson Osborn Trust



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Letchworth Garden City



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Nothing Gained by Overcrowding! A Centenary Celebration and Re-exploration of  
Raymond Unwin's Pamphlet – 'How the Garden City Type of Development May Benefit  
Both Owner and Occupier'

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### **Reproduction of Raymond Unwin's *Nothing Gained by Overcrowding!***

The middle section of this publication is a reproduction of Raymond Unwin's *Nothing Gained by Overcrowding!*, which was first published in 1912 by P.S. King & Son (Orchard House, Westminster) for the Garden Cities and Town Planning Association (which later became the Town and Country Planning Association). There are no known copyright restrictions on the use of the text.

### **Acknowledgements**

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**Illustrations:** Photographs on pages 4 & 5 courtesy of Letchworth Garden City Heritage Foundation; diagrams on pages 33 & 34 courtesy of URS Infrastructure & Environment UK Ltd.

The TCPA is grateful to both Professor Sir Peter Hall, for his insightful foreword, and to Dr Patrick Clarke, Technical Director of Strategic Planning and Urban Design at URS Infrastructure & Environment UK Ltd, who was the lead author of the 'Everything to be gained!' section of this publication. The views expressed in the latter section are those of the author and do not necessarily represent the views of the TCPA or of URS.

# nothing gained by overcrowding!

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# Foreword

Readers of *Nothing Gained by Overcrowding!* who know little about it save for its reputation in the textbooks of planning history may be surprised (and possibly even dismayed) to find that it is full of arithmetic. They probably had the same reaction to the TCPA's centenary reprint of Ebenezer Howard's seminal work *To-Morrow*. The pioneers of the modern planning movement may have been utopian visionaries, but they were eminently practical visionaries. That is because, working before the birth of the modern welfare state, they had to persuade hard-headed businessmen-philanthropists that their propositions stacked up. In this age of retreat from the welfare state, their example has extra salience.

Unwin's arithmetic makes three points. First, that the traditional by-law housing layout, universal basis for the growth of British cities between 1870 and 1910, was inherently inefficient in its use of space because of its excessive street length. By turning the traditional layout inside-out, whereby houses faced outward onto streets but inward into a huge communal garden, effectively street space was turned into green open space. Unwin successfully applied this superblock principle to some of the housing he designed for Brentham Garden Suburb in Ealing. It had actually been discovered much earlier: it was used in the design of the Norland Estate in Notting Hill in the 1850s, and then widely in Maida Vale and West Hampstead between 1870 and 1900. But, since those garden superblocks are cunningly obscured to the passer-by outside, it is possible that Unwin (and nearly every subsequent planning historian) was unaware of their existence. Interestingly, they have provided a model for the design of the Olympic Village in Stratford, albeit at a higher density than Unwin would have thought acceptable. Today, they are as relevant as ever – as pilgrims on TCPA study tours to best-practice examples in mainland Europe soon realise. Patrick Clarke's examples, developed for the final section of this publication, give a rich picture of the possibilities open to planners in the UK.

The second point is that the garden layout offers a great reduction in rent to the tenant (a century ago, almost everyone rented their house) at no loss to the landlord, but only so long as that landlord was so well funded as to be able to develop large superblocks as a single unit and

take the larger view – as in the Co-Partnership Tenancy scheme pioneered by Henry Vivian MP and the artisan-builders of Ealing, where landownership was pooled.

The third piece of arithmetic is the argument that as a city grows, the commuting distance to central-area employment does not proportionately increase, because the increasing circumference accommodates more and more people comfortably without the need for crowding. The trick lies in two of the best known propositions of geometry: that the circumference of a circle is  $2\pi r$  but the area is  $\pi r^2$ . Unwin was to see the truth of that proposition realised, because after he incorporated it in the hugely influential Tudor Walters Report of 1919 and then made it universal as Chief Architect to the Ministry of Health in the years that followed, the density he laid down – 12 houses to the acre, 30 to the hectare – became almost a universal norm for suburban development around London and other big cities. Lord Ashfield and Frank Pick, creators of the London Underground system, proved its truth by providing a public transport system that allowed London to double in radius but to treble in area and to accommodate a growth of one third in population, all housed in homes with gardens in a way never previously thought possible and within a 45-minute journey to the centre. And it was all an illustration of Unwin's very simple arithmetic. Read it, and marvel.

On behalf of the TCPA I would like to thank the Lady Margaret Paterson Osborn Trust and Letchworth Garden City Heritage Foundation for their generous support of this publication. Finally, this document would not have been possible without the knowledge, hard work and enthusiasm of Dr Patrick Clarke, Technical Director at URS Infrastructure & Environment UK Ltd, who wrote the final section of this report, and the efforts of the TCPA staff team – particularly Kate Henderson, Katy Lock and Dr Hugh Ellis, who are leading the TCPA's campaign to re-imagine the high-quality, collaborative and co-operative spirit of the Garden Cities for the 21st century.

## Professor Sir Peter Hall

Professor of Planning and Regeneration, Bartlett School of Planning, University College London, and President of the TCPA



# Introduction

This publication marks the centenary of the publication in 1912 of Raymond Unwin's pamphlet *Nothing Gained by Overcrowding!* and is part of a resurgence of interest in one of the most successful stories in Britain's social and architectural history, the Garden City movement. This re-examination of Unwin's explanation of 'how the Garden City type of development may benefit both owner and occupier' is published as the TCPA embarks on a campaign to remake the case for comprehensively planned new communities as part of the solution to the chronic housing crisis in England.<sup>1</sup>

Research by Dr Alan Holmans and Professor Christine Whitehead, commissioned by the TCPA in 2011, highlights the fact that over 230,000 new households are being formed each year in England.<sup>2</sup> However, owing to severe financial constraints (affecting both the developers and the occupiers of housing) we are currently building less than half of the homes we need. Although written to address questions of housing layout, *Nothing Gained by Overcrowding!* has increasing relevance to social and economic conditions today. New research has shown that the number of UK households with three or more generations living under the same roof has increased by 7% in the past five years, reaching levels last seen in Victorian times.<sup>3</sup>

Action taken to meet the nation's housing need must involve more than just delivering housing units; we need also to create a whole range of employment opportunities (through the delivery of development and the promotion of long-term business growth), deliver a complete mix of housing types, including social and affordable housing, and address concerns such as zero-carbon design, sustainable transport, open space provision and local food sourcing – all of which new garden city development can help to deliver. The case

for new garden cities, suburbs or villages is made in two parts.

First, large-scale new communities are an important part of the portfolio of solutions that will be essential in tackling an acute housing shortage which cannot be addressed exclusively on a plot-by-plot basis. Secondly, well planned new communities provide an opportunity to create high-quality, sustainable places. As Unwin's pamphlet illustrates, a holistic approach to designing new communities provides an opportunity to consider how homes and neighbourhoods can be made attractive places in which to live and work, in places which are socially inclusive – and, in today's context, resilient to climate change. Unwin argues for a '*more harmonious combination of city and country, dwelling house and garden*', the exact opposite of the 'bolt-on estates' so often seen today.

The first part of this publication discusses Raymond Unwin's early influences, including Edward Carpenter, William Morris and John Ruskin, before highlighting some of the beautiful places he designed. Together with Barry Parker, Raymond Unwin drew up the masterplan for Letchworth, the world's first Garden City, created as a solution to the squalor and poverty of urban life in Britain in the late 19th century. Based on the ideas set out by Ebenezer Howard in *To-morrow: A Peaceful Path to Real Reform*, published in 1898, Letchworth Garden City inspired town planning across the globe.

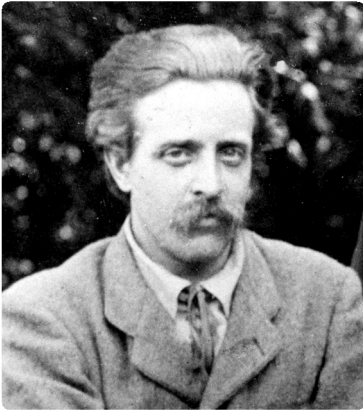
The second part of this publication is a reproduction of *Nothing Gained by Overcrowding!* itself. In the final part, 'Everything to be gained!', Patrick Clarke explores how the application of Garden City principles to layout design can help to unlock the delivery of sustainable neighbourhoods in the 21st century.

1 *Re-imagining Garden Cities for the 21st Century: the Benefits and Lessons in Bringing Forward Comprehensively Planned New Communities*. TCPA, Jul. 2011. [http://www.tcpa.org.uk/data/files/reimagining\\_garden\\_cities\\_final.pdf](http://www.tcpa.org.uk/data/files/reimagining_garden_cities_final.pdf)

2 See A. Holmans, with C. Whitehead: *New and Novel Household Projections for England with a 2008 Base – Summary and Review*. Town & Country Planning Tomorrow Series Paper 11. TCPA, May 2011. <http://www.tcpa.org.uk/pages/new-and-novel-household-projections-for-england-with-a-2008-base.html>; and the Government's most recent household formation projections, *Household Projections, 2008 to 2033, England*. Department for Communities and Local Government, 26 Nov. 2010. <http://www.communities.gov.uk/documents/statistics/pdf/1780763.pdf>

3 *Changing Times*. Ancestry.co.uk. <http://www.ancestry.co.uk> (forthcoming, but quoted at <http://www.anchor.org.uk/about-anchor/anchor-news/anchor-and-sector-news-630>)

# Raymond Unwin



with Morris' political endeavours, campaigning, speaking on street corners and publishing pamphlets.

In May 1887 he took a job as mining engineer for Staveley Iron and Coal Company in Chesterfield. He designed industrial buildings and machinery, but was also given a brief to construct housing for mine workers, to be built at minimum possible cost to basic by-law standards. Unwin's industrial terraces at places like Arkwright Town, built during this period, reflected the predominant housing design and layout of industrial England.

## Nothing to be lost by idealism

Raymond Unwin could claim to be the most significant architect-planner of the 20th century. His work led to a transformation in how we think about the design and delivery of social housing for working people. Unwin's campaigning on housing and planning began in an era when the private sector was almost solely responsible for social housing, with only minimum by-law regulation, and ended with a pivotal acceptance by government that decent housing was a key precondition of a decent society and that the state must play an active role in its provision. His life is of particular relevance today given the acute housing crisis in England. His personal story is one of transformation from a humble mining engineer to the nation's first chief planner.

## From mining engineer to masterplanner

Raymond Unwin was born in Rotherham in 1863. His father ran a business which failed largely because his interest in books kept him away from earning money. Unwin inherited his father's interest in politics and social issues but decided against going to university, possibly on the grounds of cost, and instead became a draftsman at a Manchester cotton mill. It was in this growing industrial city that he first met William Morris, whose intertwining of art, architecture and social reform had a profound impact on Unwin's concern for 'health, light and air'. Unwin became closely involved

## Shared heritage and forgotten friendships

Unwin's personal transformation was the result of a meeting with the extraordinary socialist philosopher and poet Edward Carpenter. Carpenter has been largely air-brushed out of our history, perhaps because of his life-long championship of gay rights, but he was a vital catalyst for Unwin, drawing together a strong strand of revulsion towards the industrial city, the utopian vision and artistic expression of John Ruskin and William Morris, and the industrial power of the emerging labour movement.

One can imagine Unwin, the young engineer, walking to Carpenter's house to be met by people like Kier Hardie, William Morris, Ben Tillett, E.M. Forster and Edward Ashbee, who were all part of the circle. Unwin remained politically close to Carpenter, citing Carpenter's poem *Towards Democracy* as a key inspiration for his work and in particular for his commitment to the Arts and Crafts movement. The contrast between Edward Carpenter's utopian commune at Millthorpe and the harsh realities of the mining industry, where death and deprivation were commonplace, must have been a striking backdrop to Unwin's development. Perhaps it was that double life that drove him to realise the necessity of creating Utopia not just as an intellectual game but as a real-life project in a world where millions of people required new communities.

## A powerful partnership – Parker and Unwin

In 1893 Unwin began a life-long collaboration with fellow architect Barry Parker. Their first shared design was for a modest chapel in the mining village of Barrow Hill. Parker shared, in a quieter way, Unwin's political aspirations and together they began an architectural practice in Buxton. While they worked on private commissions, the pair shared not just a love of the Arts and Crafts movement but a new sense of the importance of site planning and residential layout. It was in this endeavour that they found an expression for their political commitment to high-quality environments for working people. They both shared the conviction that *'it is difficult to over estimate the importance, or... the enormous influences for the good of beautiful surroundings and the degrading influence of ugly surroundings'*.<sup>4</sup>

By 1901 Unwin was already advocating the need for new free-standing settlements and acknowledging the influence of Ebenezer Howard and the Garden City movement.<sup>5</sup> The 1901 Garden City Association conference in Bournville proved to be a vitally important forum where architects, engineers and campaigners met with philanthropist landowners such as Seebohm Rowntree. Unwin gave an impassioned speech at the conference, advocating principles of beauty and civic art and Garden Cities as a *'community inspired ideal'*.<sup>6</sup> Crucially, architecture, social reform and planning were seen by Unwin as an indivisible set of ideals: *'If Civic Art is the expression of the life and ideals of the citizen we may define the duty of civic artists as 'the well doing of what needs doing:'*<sup>7</sup> The Rowntrees had already purchased land for a settlement at New Earswick near York, and on Seebohm Rowntree's advice Parker and Unwin were commissioned to draw up designs. The brief was to demonstrate the highest possible standards of design and layout for working people that were 'affordable'. Significantly, the Rowntrees also sponsored the design competition for Letchworth, won by Parker and Unwin.

## Lessons from Letchworth

It is hard, in retrospect, to comprehend the explosion of positive and progressive activity undertaken by Unwin during the Edwardian period. Having already



The building used as Barry Parker and Raymond Unwin's office during the design and development of Letchworth

completed design work on New Earswick, by the winter of 1903 Unwin was making the first survey of the Letchworth site in Hertfordshire. At 3,800 acres, the site, administered by the Garden City Pioneer Company (and subsequently First Garden City Ltd), was of a greater order of magnitude than anything Unwin and Parker had tackled before. Inspired by Howard, at Letchworth Unwin pioneered design concepts which we now all take for granted. Here was a settlement planned to work with the grain of the landscape so as to preserve as many natural features as possible; a clear sense of economic functionality and movement; a Baroque-inspired civic centre with a strong emphasis on cultural facilities; the neighbourhood unit with its own social facilities; and above all enormously generous green open space, ranging from gardens and allotments to parkland and dedicated agricultural land for local food sourcing.

## Political influence

New Earswick, Letchworth and later Hampstead Garden Suburb not only demonstrated a breathtaking break from the industrial terraces of the 19th century, they also pioneered new forms of co-operative ownership and governance. And despite his formidable achievements, there was still more than a hint of the young Manchester street corner campaigner about Unwin. In 1912 he published *Nothing Gained by Overcrowding!*, which distilled many of the lessons on site layout, density and development economics learnt in the previous two decades. The contrast between the illustrations of by-law housing and Unwin's more

<sup>4</sup> R.B. Parker: 'The Artist'. *Letchworth Magazine*, Jun. 1907, p.69

<sup>5</sup> M. Day: 'The contribution of Sir Raymond Unwin (1863-1940) and R. Barry Parker (1867-1947) to the development of site planning theory and practice, c.1890-1918'. In M. Sutcliffe: *British Town Planning: The Formative Years*. Leicester University Press, 1981

<sup>6</sup> *Ibid.*, p.176

<sup>7</sup> *Ibid.*, p.176





Housing layouts in the Pixmore neighbourhood at Letchworth were designed with communal areas at the rear

informal humanised designs are even more striking when we reflect that Unwin designed both of these forms of layout.

*Nothing Gained by Overcrowding!* was influential in its own right, but it was also to influence Unwin's second transformation, from campaigning outsider to perhaps the UK's most influential chief planner. In 1914 Unwin was appointed as the Local Government Board's chief town planning inspector, overseeing the remarkably high standard of housing built for munitions workers during the First World War. The ideas presented in *Nothing Gained by Overcrowding!* were substantially incorporated in the recommendations of the 1919 Tudor Walters Committee Report on housing design and layout. The report dealt with many of the design elements pioneered at Letchworth and enshrined in its pages the by now familiar '12 houses per acre' standard for working-class urban housing. The publication of the Tudor Walters Report in 1919 amid promises of 'homes fit for heroes' coincided with Unwin being made chief technical officer for planning and architecture at the new Ministry of Health, a post he would keep until retirement in 1928.

The Tudor Walters Report and Unwin's influence on town planning schemes left, for some, a mixed legacy. On the one hand, the report transformed the standards of working-class housing, setting guidelines on external design, internal space standards, and the wider importance of the provision and design quality of social, cultural and transport infrastructure. The standards it set were not fundamentally altered until the Parker Morris Report of 1961. Between 1919 and 1932 1.8 million homes, provided by both the private and public sectors, were guided by these standards.

However, although individual buildings and site layouts were transformed by the Tudor Walters Report, the

gradual watering down of standards in the period after Unwin's retirement has led to some legitimate criticism of the location of many of the estates built during the inter-war period. Some private sector speculative development, in particular, became forever associated with the arterial sprawl around cities such as London. It is certainly true that Unwin was not able to bring about the sort of comprehensively planned, large-scale new settlement that had been so important in his earlier work. But the primary cause of this failing was not Unwin himself but a wider political indifference, despite the campaigns of those such as Frederic J Osborn and the TCPA for effective and comprehensive town planning regulation. Unwin died in 1940 on the cusp of the introduction of the post-war planning regime which finally created the tools to secure high-quality new settlements.

## Urban legend

Unwin's legacy is enduring and germane to the current debate on housing and planning. Many of his conclusions are now being challenged: the audacity to dream of a better, more co-operative society; the positive role of government in ensuring that everyone has access to a decent home; the importance of civic art in our collective future. We now seem less able to think 'big' about the future, but Unwin had the courage and tenacity to take high ideals and put them into practice. His passion for art, beauty and justice, combined with a powerful practicality, immeasurably improved the quality of all our lives.

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The TCPA is indebted to Michael Day for his excellent chapter 'The contribution of Sir Raymond Unwin (1863-1940) and R. Barry Parker (1867-1947) to the development of site planning theory and practice, c1890-1918' in *British Town Planning: The Formative Years*, edited by Anthony Sutcliffe (Leicester University Press, 1981, pp.156-200)



# NOTHING GAINED BY OVERCROWDING!

How the Garden City type of development  
may benefit both owner and occupier.

By **RAYMOND UNWIN, F.R.I.B.A.**

Published by  
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**3d.**



# NOTHING GAINED BY OVERCROWDING

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**T**HE Garden City movement, as the name implies, stands for a more harmonious combination of city and country, dwelling house and garden. The rapid growth of towns and cities during the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, due to the organisation and concentration of industries, took place without any proper regard being shown for health, convenience or beauty in the arrangement of the town, without any effort to give that combination of building with open space which is necessary to secure adequate light and fresh air for health, adequate un-built-on ground for convenience, or adequate parks and gardens for the beauty of the city.

Many attempts and proposals had been made to counteract this evil, but it was only after Mr. Ebenezer Howard had put forward the bold proposal to build a city on new lines, and with his supporters actually commenced to carry out that proposal, and only after Mr. Horsfall had explained what was being done to regulate the growth of towns in Germany that the public realised either the extent of the evil or the possibility of the remedy.

Mr. Howard's suggestions included then the proper planning and limiting of a town, so as to keep it always within reasonable touch of open country; this may be called the larger aspect of the question; but they also included the proper arrangement of the individual buildings and the limitation of the amount of building in relation to the area of open space, and this may be called the detailed aspect of the question.

What is meant by the founding of a new Garden City is now fairly generally understood, but it is perhaps too often assumed that the Garden City principle is only applicable where it is possible to start a new and entirely independent town right away in the country. Mr. Howard in his book recognised that it is not possible to regulate the aggregations of population in such a way that there shall be only detached towns of a limited size scattered about independently of one another. He fully recognised that one such town having reached the prescribed limits might need to provide for the development all round it of subsidiary towns at a short distance, intimately connected with it; that in fact there might be developed a federated group of towns recognising one general centre. It is important to regard this principle as forming a constituent part of the Garden City movement because of its applicability to existing towns.

The fact that many of these towns have already far exceeded the limit of size which is deemed desirable by the advocates of the Garden City is, no doubt, unfortunate, but it can hardly be urged as a good reason for making no protest from the Garden City point of view against these towns being allowed to continue to grow in a homogeneous manner, swallowing up and obliterating the country all round, like the

spreading of flood water over a shallow valley. Nor is it enough that the Garden City movement should urge that suburban development be carried out with such a relation between the amount of building and open space as would accord with the detailed principles advocated for a Garden City. If it is deemed desirable to limit the size of a new town like Letchworth to something like 35,000 people and to plan for an agricultural belt to intervene between this town and the federated townlets which may be permitted to spring up around it, surely it is still more desirable to make some effort to secure definite belts of open space around existing towns and to encourage their development by means of detached suburbs grouped around some centre and separated from the existing town by at least sufficient open ground to provide for fresh air, recreation and contact with growing nature.

This federal aspect, if we may so term it, of town development has the great advantage of expressing in outward form the natural organisation of a large community.

People tend to flock together in villages or towns that they may enjoy the advantages of social intercourse with the wider opportunities for pleasure and culture that spring from it, and that they may enjoy the material advantages which arise from the co-operation of many individuals working for some common purpose. But it is impossible to secure effective action from any large number of people if they all try to act directly. Effective individual co-operation is limited to the comparatively small number who can have immediate personal knowledge of each other and can come into immediate and constant personal relation. Such a limited number of individuals form a group, and where other similar groups exist they cannot effectively co-operate as individuals, but each group must as a whole come into contact with another group through the medium of some central person representing the group. In the same way when the number of minor groups results in the selection of so many representatives that they exceed the number possible for individual co-operation, these representatives must again form a larger district group and come into contact with others through some district representative. This is what we mean by organisation, and though it takes many different forms the essential features are common to all the forms, whether to the companies and regiments of an army, acting through and controlled by their officers, the lodges or districts of a friendly society, or the departments and workshops of a great industry.

This basic principle of organisation should find its expression in the form of the town which, instead of being a huge aggregation of units ever spreading further and further away from the original centre and losing all touch with that centre, should consist of a federation of groups constantly clustering around new subsidiary centres, each group limited to a size that can effectively keep in touch with and be controlled from the subsidiary centre, and through that centre have connection with the original and main centre of the federated area.

In the development of existing towns therefore, the Garden City principle has much to offer which is of the greatest value because it is based on the natural principles of organisation and would give expression in outward form to such organisation. Detaching the units or suburbs one from another, giving them each their subsidiary centre around which they should be grouped and upon which they would depend, while the overgrown centre might have to remain a larger unit than is desirable, it would yet be possible to secure limitation to the units constituting the new growth and to secure between these units and between them and the parent town some defining and dividing belt of open land which would be of inestimable value.

Many towns are beginning to regulate their growth by means of the Town Planning Act. Now, therefore, is the opportunity to press upon the notice of the public this

aspect of the Garden City movement and to secure if possible some recognition of the principle. See Diagram VII.

In many cases development has, in fact, taken place along some such lines. An examination of the map of London, and of many other large towns, will show how their growth has largely consisted in the absorption of older townlets or villages which had sprung up near the town around some centre point. In many cases the old centre remains, and is still a focus of life and local movement within the larger town.

Such places as Westminster, Hampstead, or Dulwich, in London, date back to the ancient villages well outside the town, and still constitute effective centres of local organisation. The Garden City principle would recognise these centres, would maintain their definition by limiting their growth and the growth of the town in such a way as to preserve some belt of open country, meadow, park, or woodland, sufficient to give outline and emphasis to each unit and to provide for the ready access to the country of all the individuals living within the urban area of the unit.

But, as in the larger field the Garden City movement defines the proper relation and proportion between urban and rural areas, so within those urban areas it defines in detail the relation and proportion between the buildings themselves and the ground surrounding them; and it is this aspect of the question I wish chiefly to consider, for it will be found that much the same economic principles which determine the possibility of limiting the proportion of the individual building to the surrounding garden space, will also influence the limitation of the proportion of urban area to surrounding country.

The overcrowding of buildings upon the land has been so generally practised, and is so generally assumed to be necessary, that one cannot hope to advance far without first considering carefully whether there is any economic difficulty standing in the way of limiting the number of houses or other buildings to be erected upon a given area of land, and, if so, what that difficulty is.

To most people, whether they are interested in the land as owners or builders, or are disinterested inquirers, it seems at first sight so obvious that the more houses you put upon each acre of land the more economical is the use made of that land, and the less will each person have to pay for it, that few have really troubled to test the matter. It has generally been assumed that though it may be necessary, to some extent, to put a limit to the number of houses that may be crowded upon an acre, that this limit should be made as high as possible, and that any limitation must necessarily be a serious tax upon the community.

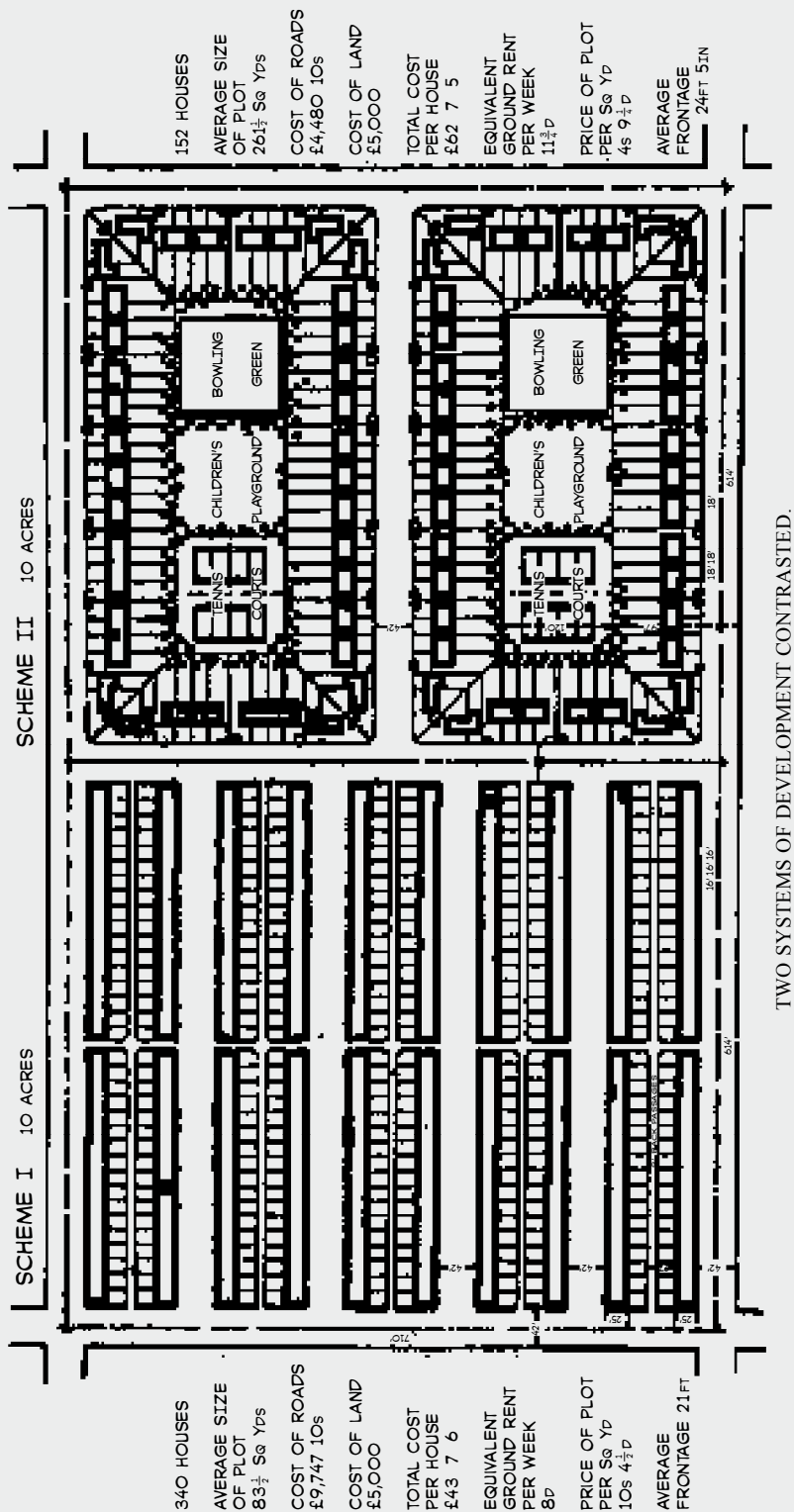
It can, however, be shown that this view is very far from correct; that on the contrary, the greater the number of houses crowded upon the land, the higher the rate which each occupier must pay for every yard of it which his plot contains, the smaller will be the total return to the owners of land in increment value, and, indeed, the less will be the real economy in the use of the land.

I do not say that nobody can obtain advantage from overcrowding buildings; that point we will deal with later; but first let us, by definite figures, thoroughly establish the facts. This can best be done by taking two exactly similar areas of ground and working out the costs of development with the larger and the smaller number of houses to the acre.

As a first example we will take the conditions as they exist in many large towns, where by-laws of the usual type are in force, and where provision is made for a back road to give access to the cottage yards, and we will assume two schemes of development for similar areas each containing ten acres of land, measured to the centre line of the surrounding road. See Diagram I.



Diagram I.



Scheme No. I shows one of these ten acres developed with approximately the maximum number of houses permitted under modern improved by-laws, assuming the type of house which occupies 16 feet of frontage. It will be seen that a total of 340 houses can be placed upon the ten acres, at the rate of thirty-four houses to the acre, the roads being included in the measurement. These houses are built up to the road line; the roads are made 42 feet wide, and back passages are provided 9 feet in width.

Scheme No. II is developed in accordance with the Garden City principles. The houses are to be of the same size and occupy the same frontage as before; but instead of being built in continuous rows they are built in groups of two, four, or six, and a space is left between each group; in addition to this, provision is made for passageways through the groups so that direct access is obtainable to all the gardens from the front roads, and no back roads are required. In this case only 152 houses are arranged for on the ten acres, that is at the rate of 15.2 houses per acre, considerably less than half the number of houses in Scheme No. I.

In both cases the value of the land before development is assumed to be £500 per acre, the main roads to cost £7 5s., and back roads £1 per lineal yard. These costs of course include not only the making of the roads and the laying of the drains, but also the making up of the roads when they are taken over by the Local Authorities, as both these costs have, in one form or another, to be borne by the cottage. Although very often the owner or builder may incur the first cost, and he may leave the purchaser of each plot to bear the second, it is necessary, for fair comparison, to take the total cost of the road.

The following table gives the cost of development in each case, that is, the main costs of land and road making, together with the average size and cost of plot and the equivalent ground rent on a 4 per cent. basis. Some of these figures are also given at the side of each scheme in Diagram I.

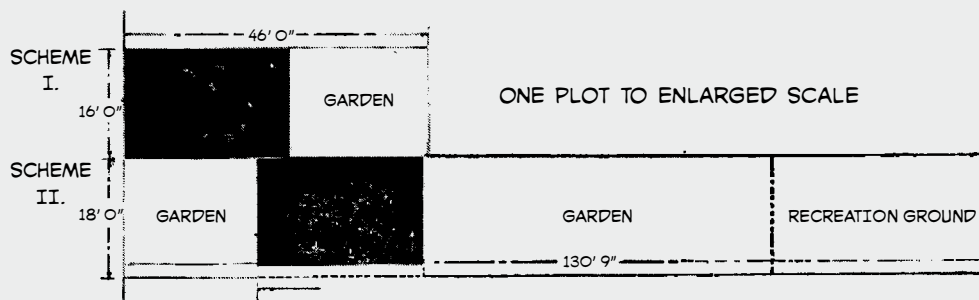
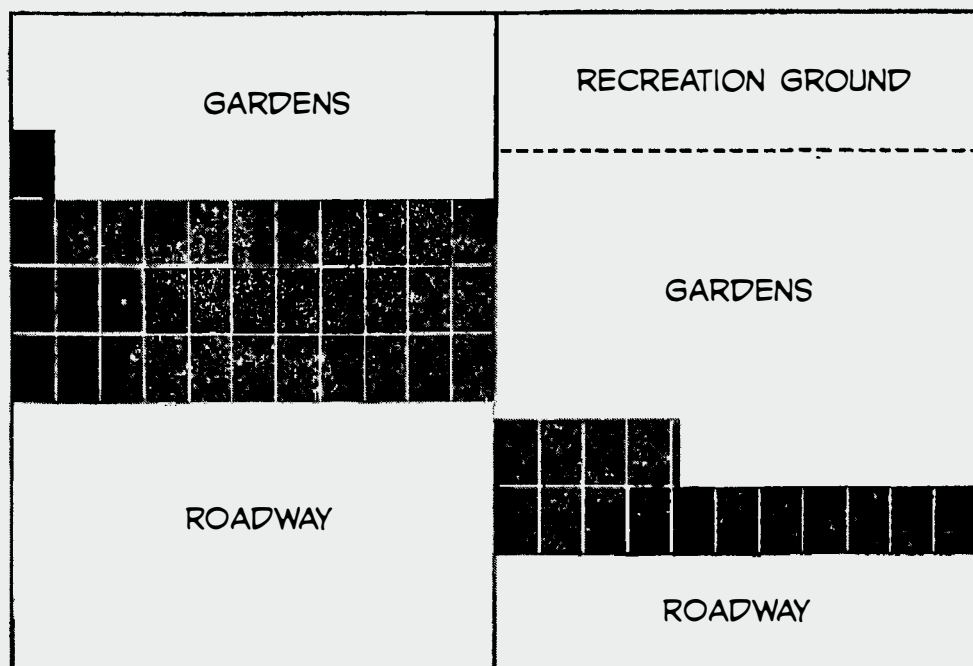
TABLE I.				SCHEME I. With land at £500 per acre.	SCHEME II. With land at £500 per acre.	SCHEME II. With land at £250 per acre.
Number of houses	..	..	..	340	152	152
Average size of plot	..	..	..	83½ sq. yds.	261½ sq. yds.	261½ sq. yds.
Cost of roads	..	..	..	£9,747 10 0	£4,480 10 0	£4,480 10 0
Cost of land	..	..	..	£5,000 0 0	£5,000 0 0	£2,500 0 0
Total cost of land and roads per house				£43 7 6	£62 7 5	£45 18 6
Equivalent ground rent per week	..			8d.	11¾d.	8½d.
Price of plot per sq. yard	..	..		10/4½	4/9¼	3/6

It is apparent that in Scheme No. I a large proportion of the ground must be occupied by the roads, to provide frontage for the large number of houses. In Scheme No. II

the greater part of this land is available to be added to the gardens, or to be arranged as recreation grounds in addition to the gardens, as shown in the diagram.

## Diagram II.

SCHEME I. ONE ACRE. SCHEME II. ONE ACRE.



EFFECT OF TWO SYSTEMS OF DEVELOPMENT ON EACH ACRE AND EACH PLOT.

Now roadways represent perhaps the most expensive form in which open space can be provided: not only so, but every additional road means a serious loss of frontage available for building, because at every point where one road joins another there is

lost not only the frontage occupied by the width of that roadway but the frontage occupied by the depth of the building and plot. In Scheme No. I it will be seen that the whole of the frontage of the vertical roads is occupied in this way, and is therefore ineffective for the purpose of affording frontage for buildings. There is, of course, a similar loss at each corner in Scheme No. II but there are only eight comers where the loss can occur, while there are twenty such comers in Scheme No. I. Thus it happens that the greater the number of houses crowded upon an area of land, the greater must be the length of road provided per house, the greater the proportion of the land occupied by roads, or, in other words, the greater the waste of the land. It will be seen from the table how this affects the area of the plot and the cost of the roads. In Scheme No. I there are only  $83\frac{1}{2}$  square yards of ground actually available for the building and backyard, while in Scheme No. II an average of  $261\frac{1}{2}$  square yards is available. Although the number of houses has only been reduced by rather more than half, the area of the plot has been increased more than three times.

The cost of the roads in Scheme No. I comes out at £9,747 10s., while in Scheme No. II in spite of the much more liberal provision of frontage, to allow for passages between every pair of houses and spaces between every group, it only comes to £4,480 10s. The cost of the land in each case would be £5,000. If this is added to the cost of the roads in each scheme, and that total divided by the number of houses arranged for, it will be found that in Scheme No. I the cost of the small plot of  $83\frac{1}{2}$  square yards is £43 7s. 6d., equivalent to a ground rent of 8d. per week on a 4 per cent. basis, while in Scheme No. II the cost of the large plot of  $261\frac{1}{2}$  square yards has only risen to £62 7s. 5d., equivalent to a ground rent of  $11\frac{3}{4}$ d. per week. From the point of view of the tenant, therefore, in Scheme No. I, he pays £43 7s. 6d. for the freehold of  $83\frac{1}{2}$  square yards of land, equivalent to a price of 10s.  $4\frac{1}{2}$ d. per square yard. In Scheme No. II he pays £62 7s. 5d. for the freehold of  $261\frac{1}{2}$  square yards, which is at the rate of 4s.  $9\frac{1}{4}$ d. per square yard.

Let me ask whether in purchasing any other commodity, the public are content to take such very bad value for their money. Supposing there were two village shops, and one offered to supply eighty-three common marbles for 8d., and the other one offered 261 marbles of the same size and character for  $11\frac{3}{4}$ d., can it be supposed that there would be any village boy who would not know which shop to patronise? To put it quite bluntly, these are the two offers, made by the old-fashioned speculative builder on the one hand, and by the Garden City or Garden Suburb on the other. The exact effect upon each acre of ground is illustrated by means of Diagram II, in which the roadway, the houses, and the gardens are collected into separate areas. Comparing these sample acres from the two schemes, it will be seen how the space occupied by the roadway and by the additional number of houses swallows up so much of the total area of ground as to leave very little to be divided among the larger number of houses as back yard or garden for each.

The financial effect of reducing or increasing the number of houses to be placed upon a given area of ground will, of course, vary as the cost of land and road making varies.

Where the land is comparatively expensive, and road making comparatively cheap, the advantage in the price per plot to be gained by overcrowding will be greater than where land is relatively inexpensive and road making relatively dear. It is important also to distinguish between variation in the number of houses to the acre and variation in the building frontage provided to each house.

It will be well to take one other example of two comparative developments, adopting land at the cheaper rate of £300 per acre, and taking the total cost of roads



per yard lineal in both cases at £5 8s. A comparison of the figures in this case is still more remarkable, as will be seen from the following table:—

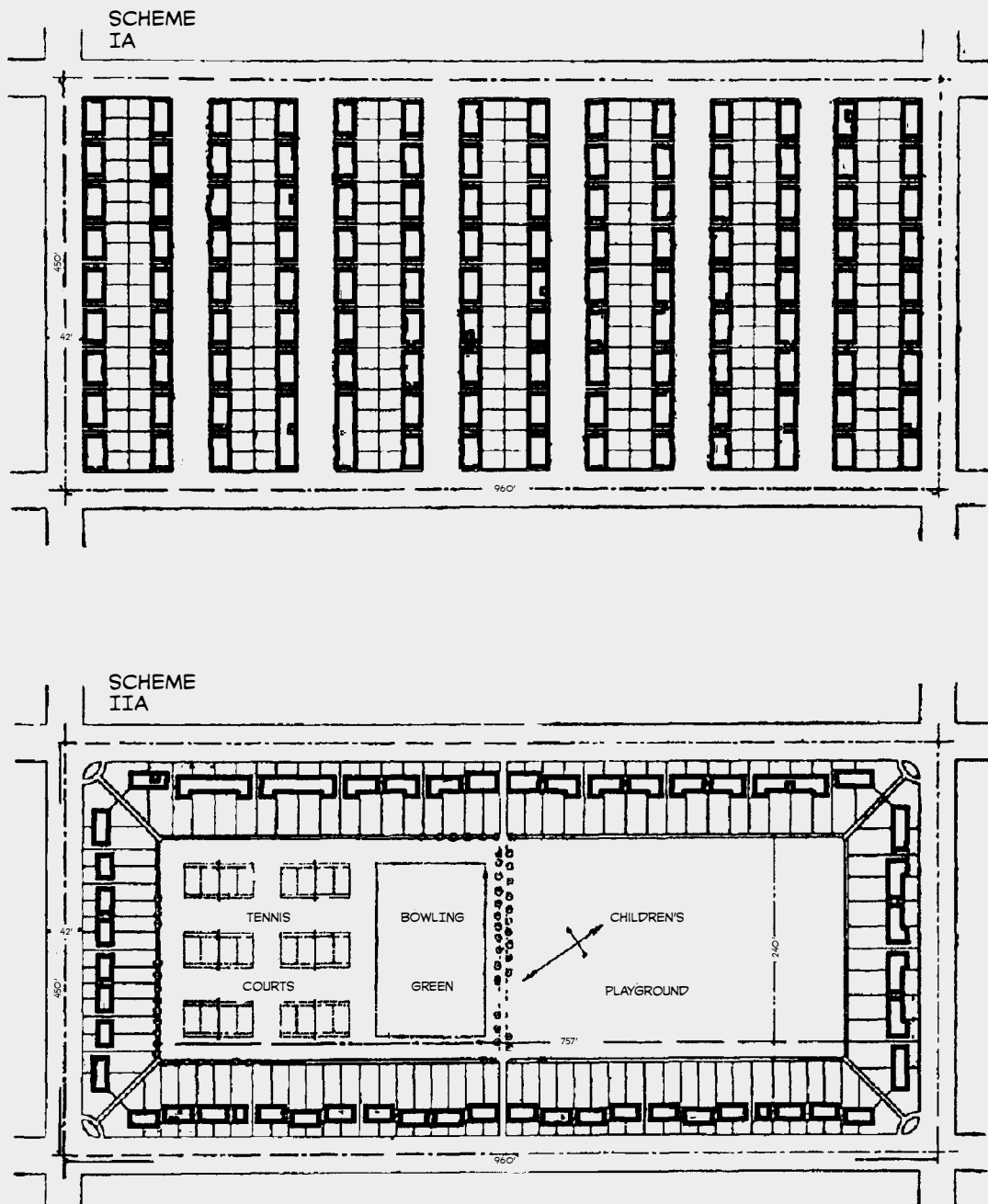
TABLE II.				SCHEME IA. With land at £300 per acre.	SCHEME IIA. With land at £300 per acre.	SCHEME IIA. With land at £150 per acre.
Number of houses	..	..	..	252	106	106
Average size of plot	..	..	..	98 yds.	398 yds.	398 yds.
Cost of roads	..	..	..	£7,942 0 0	£2,478 0 0	£2,478 0 0
Cost of land	..	..	..	£3,000 0 0	£3,000 0 0	£1,500 0 0
Total cost of land and roads per house				£43 8 6	£51 13 7	£37 10 6
Equivalent ground rent per week	..			8d.	9½d.	7d.
Price of plot per sq. yard	..	..		8/10¼	2/7	1/10¾

In Scheme IIA the frontage of the individual buildings has been varied to suit particular types of cottage adapted to the aspect shown. In some cases the frontage of the actual building is as much as 25 feet, in others as little as 15 feet. In order to compare quite fairly with Scheme IIA, the frontage of the actual buildings in IA has been taken at 20 ft. 6 in., which is exactly the average frontage of buildings in Scheme IIA; and in addition to the 20 ft. 6 in., passages have been allowed between every pair of cottages so that direct access is available to all the back yards without any back roads.

It will be seen, on comparing these figures, that the economic results of overcrowding are even less favourable than in the first example taken; that as compared with Scheme IA, with twenty-five houses to the acre, there is only an increased cost equivalent to a ground rent of 1½ d. per week in Scheme IIA, with only ten houses to the acre, which allows a large area of land either for big gardens or for recreation grounds, as shown in the diagram. While the tenant would only pay for his large plot of 398 square yards at the rate of 2s. 7d. per yard, he would have to pay for the small plot of 98 yards, just a quarter of the size, at the rate of 8s. 10¼d.

This remarkable result is not only due to the fact that so much of the land is occupied by the numerous roads to give access to the additional number of houses, but to the fact that, to provide for the same actual frontage of buildings, a greater amount of road is required per house in overcrowded schemes of development, than in less crowded schemes. In this case, taking the whole of the road length, in Scheme IA there is an average of 15 ft. 3 in. of road, or 30 ft. 6 in. of road frontage per house, although the frontage of each building averages only 20 ft. 6 in.; while in Scheme IIA, with the same average frontage for the buildings, there is only required an average of 13 ft. of road or 26 ft. of road frontage per house, in spite of the fact that in addition to passages between every pair of houses, as provided for in Scheme IA, there are provided wider passages between every group of houses. This is due to the waste of frontage that occurs at so many road junctions in Scheme IA.

Diagram III.



TWO SYSTEMS OF DEVELOPMENT CONTRASTED.  
SEE TABLE II, PAGE 8.

This point must be clearly borne in mind, because there is a general impression that for development with a few houses to the acre, a greater expense of roads, drains, etc., is required per house than would be needed if more houses were placed upon the acre. This impression is no doubt partly due to the fact that it has usually happened that schemes which have been planned with a reduced number of houses to the acre have also given greater frontage per building and greater distance between the groups of buildings, but in order to understand clearly the effect of reducing the number of houses to the acre this complication should be eliminated. If the building frontages are taken to be exactly the same in each case, as in the scheme now under consideration, it will be seen that there is required, in the overcrowded development, an average length of 15 ft. 3 in. of sewer, surface water drain, gas, water supply pipes, etc., for every house built; moreover, if all the roads are to be equally patrolled, the policeman and the scavenger's cart will have to travel 15 ft. 3 in. for every house; whereas in the scheme with a reduced number of houses to the acre, there will only be required 13 ft. of road, sewer, gas, water, etc., per house. Setting back the houses from the road and leaving a small front garden does indeed increase the cost of scavenging slightly, because the distance to be walked in each case is that much greater; but reducing the number of houses to the acre need not, by itself, increase the cost of any of these services.

It is possible, however, that to a slight extent the cost of main drainage will be increased by reducing the number of houses to the acre, because, necessarily the houses will cover a larger area and the lines of main drainage and main gas and water pipes will have to be carried further at a larger size to distribute over the greater area, but generally speaking this will only mean a slightly larger pipe for a greater distance along a main road, and can be but a very small matter, whereas we have seen that a positive saving per house in the length of road, and therefore of all the services, may result from reducing the number of houses to the acre.

The figures given in connection with the two schemes we have discussed have sufficiently demonstrated the first proposition which we set out to prove, namely, that the greater the overcrowding of houses upon the land the higher must be the price that the tenant will pay for the available land which he can use. We have seen that, in one instance, he pays more than double the price per yard, and in the other instance more than three times the price per yard in the overcrowded systems of development, compared with what he would have to pay in the less crowded system advocated, to provide for the owner the same price per acre for the undeveloped land in both cases.

The second statement, that the return in increment to the owners of land is *reduced* by the crowding of houses to the acre instead of being increased thereby, as is generally supposed, still needs to be proved; for at first sight it will seem that, in the particular cases under consideration, the landowner was not affected by the different systems of development, because the land was assumed to be sold by him at the same price per acre in both cases. But the increment which we are considering, being the difference between the value of land for building purposes and its agricultural value, is affected not only by the price at which the land is sold, but by the quantity of land which is converted from agricultural to building uses. From this point of view let us see how the two systems of development affect the owner of a large estate upon which there is developed some new centre of population. Suppose for example, that coal is discovered under the estate, and that several coal-pits are sunk. If we assume that, as a result, there are required 6,678 new houses to accommodate the miners and their families, together with the necessary complement of professional men, tradesmen and

artisans, or a total population of something like 33,000 people; if, further, we assume that the surface value of the land for agricultural purposes is £40 per acre and that its value for building purposes is £300 per acre, it will be easy to compare the result to the owner of developing all the building areas on his estate on the old-fashioned, crowded system shown in Scheme IA with what it would be if he adopted the Garden City method shown in Scheme IIA.

To accommodate 6,678 houses on the basis of Scheme IA he will be able to sell:—

6,678 houses	=====	265 acres of land, at £300	..	£79,500
25.2 houses per acre				
Deduct agricultural value of 265 acres at £40		..	..	£10,600
Gross increment due to the building operations		..	..	<u>£68,900</u>

If, however, having come under the influence of the Garden City Association, he should decide to limit the number of houses per acre to an average of 10.6—that is, as in Scheme IIA, the result will be as follows: He will now sell:—

6,678 houses	=====	630 acres of land, at £300	..	£189,500
10.6 houses per acre				
Deduct agricultural value of 630 acres at £40		..	..	£25,200
Gross increment due to the building operations		..	..	<u>£163,800</u>

or an additional increment of £94,900

So long, therefore, as the estate of the owner is large enough to accommodate the whole of the development, however much it is spread out, the owner's profit or increment is reduced as the overcrowding increases. Where many owners are concerned this would be true of the owners as a class, but might not be true of the individual owner who might sell the whole of his land in any case. The amount of this increased increment due to the limitation of the number of houses to the acre by the Garden City method of development of course depends on the land being sold at the same price. There seems, however, no reason why the land should be sold at the same price, no justification for the Garden City method of development conferring this enormous increased increment value upon the owner. We have seen that increment is due to the increased value of land for building purposes, and it would seem more natural that it should be estimated rather in relation to the amount of building than in relation to the size of the garden attached to the building, and it is obvious that the owner of land could afford, without loss to himself, to estimate his increment at so much per house instead of so much per acre, and where larger gardens are provided, let or sell the land at a reduced rate sufficient to recoup him first for the loss of agricultural land, secondly for the amount of increment due per house.

Let us now see at what price on these lines the owner could afford to sell the greater quantity of land required to accommodate the population we have been considering under the Garden City type of development shown in Scheme IIA. If the increment is to be per house instead of per acre, he will need to receive the same amount of increment in both cases, and the total sum which he ought to receive for the 630 acres would be as follows:—

630 acres deducted from his agricultural land, at £40 per acre	..	£25,200
Add the increment value assumed to be received under Scheme IA		<u>£68,900</u>
Total	..	<u>£94,100</u>



If we divide £94,100 by the 630 acres, we shall find that this represents in round figures £150 per acre. We see therefore that if the landowner in this case were willing to accept a certain increment per house, irrespective of the size of the garden, he could afford to supply the land to a Garden City Association undertaking the housing of the whole of the population springing up on his estates on the basis of Scheme IIA, at the rate of £150 per acre, and be in the same position as if he had allowed the old-fashioned speculative builder to develop the land for the same population on the basis of Scheme IA, and charged £300 per acre for the land.

If now we refer to Table II we shall see that the result to the tenant of this reduction in the price of land is that he may have, under the Garden City system of development a plot of 398 yards at a cost of £37 10s. 6d. or at a ground rent of 7d. per week, without reducing the return to the owner of the land; whereas, under the old fashioned system he would have had to be content with 98 yards of land which would have cost £43 8s. 6d., or 8d. per week ground rent; while the actual cost per yard of his plot would be 1s 10 $\frac{3}{4}$ d. in place of 8s. 10 $\frac{1}{4}$ d.

There would, however, be certain allowances to be made; the larger garden would cost a little more for fencing and the cost to the owner would no doubt be slightly greater in providing a larger area for building operations, if only in the matter of survey expenses, so that in all probability it would be necessary for the tenant to contribute at least the same ground rent and perhaps a fraction more in order that the larger plot should give the same return to the owner; but the point which I wish to emphasise is this, that there is no economic difficulty in providing for the development of land on Garden City principles, but that for practically the same cost it is possible, if the owners of land will accept the same total return in increment, to give every house a garden, which, even from the point of view of the value of its produce will be worth vastly more than the 1d. or 2d. per week that it may sometimes cost.

In the above example we have assumed the simplest case of a large estate which could accommodate the whole of an industrial population settling upon it.

By way of further example we may consider the result due to the steady growth of a town, which would follow from each of the systems of development shown in the first example, Schemes I and II; and in this case the results to the owners will be true of the owners collectively, but not necessarily of the owners individually.

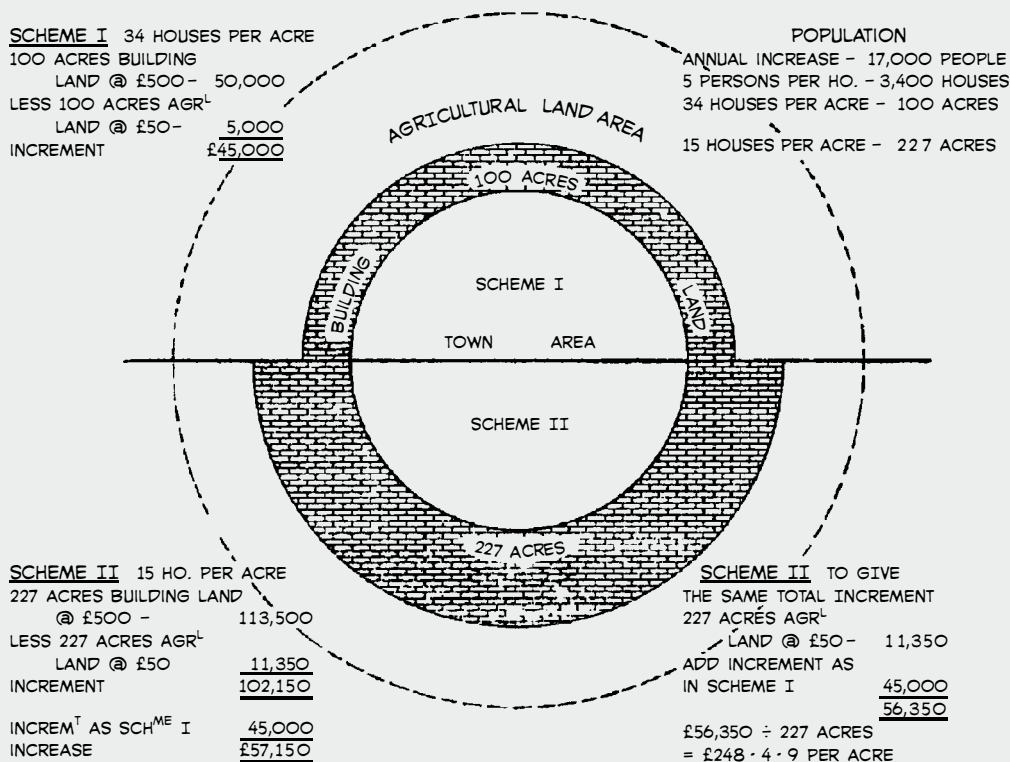
Diagram IV illustrates the effect when the two Schemes are applied to a town in which an increase of population of 17,000 people takes place every year. Assuming five people to the house, that would mean 3,400 houses to be built every year. The upper half of the diagram shows the development before the adoption of a town planning scheme, the lower half shows the development after the adoption of a scheme limiting the number of the houses in the same proportion as we have limited them in Scheme II, as compared with Scheme I, and the figures show the total increment value and also the reduction of the price per acre which would give the same increment value in both cases; while the third column in Table I shows how the reduction of the price of land here arrived at would affect the cost of the individual plots.

It will be worth while at this point to consider the effect which the extra acreage required to provide for the population with the limited number of houses to the acre will have upon the size of a town; because at first sight it might be imagined that a very serious difficulty would arise in the increased distances to be travelled from the centre to the circumference. Owing, however, to the fact that the area of a circle increases not in proportion to the distance from the centre to the circumference but in proportion to the square of that distance, it follows that the increased radius required

to give an area sufficient to provide each year for a given increase to the population of a town is a rapidly diminishing one: a glance at diagrams V and VI will illustrate this. Further it is probable that the application of town planning to the development of land around towns will lead to considerable economy in its use. It is only necessary to examine town maps or to move about outside the central area of any town to realise that for want of good planning there is much waste of land.

It may be useful to illustrate this question of expansion by reference to the city of London. The area of Inner London administered by the London County Council represents a circle having a radius of  $6\frac{1}{4}$  miles. The present population of this area is

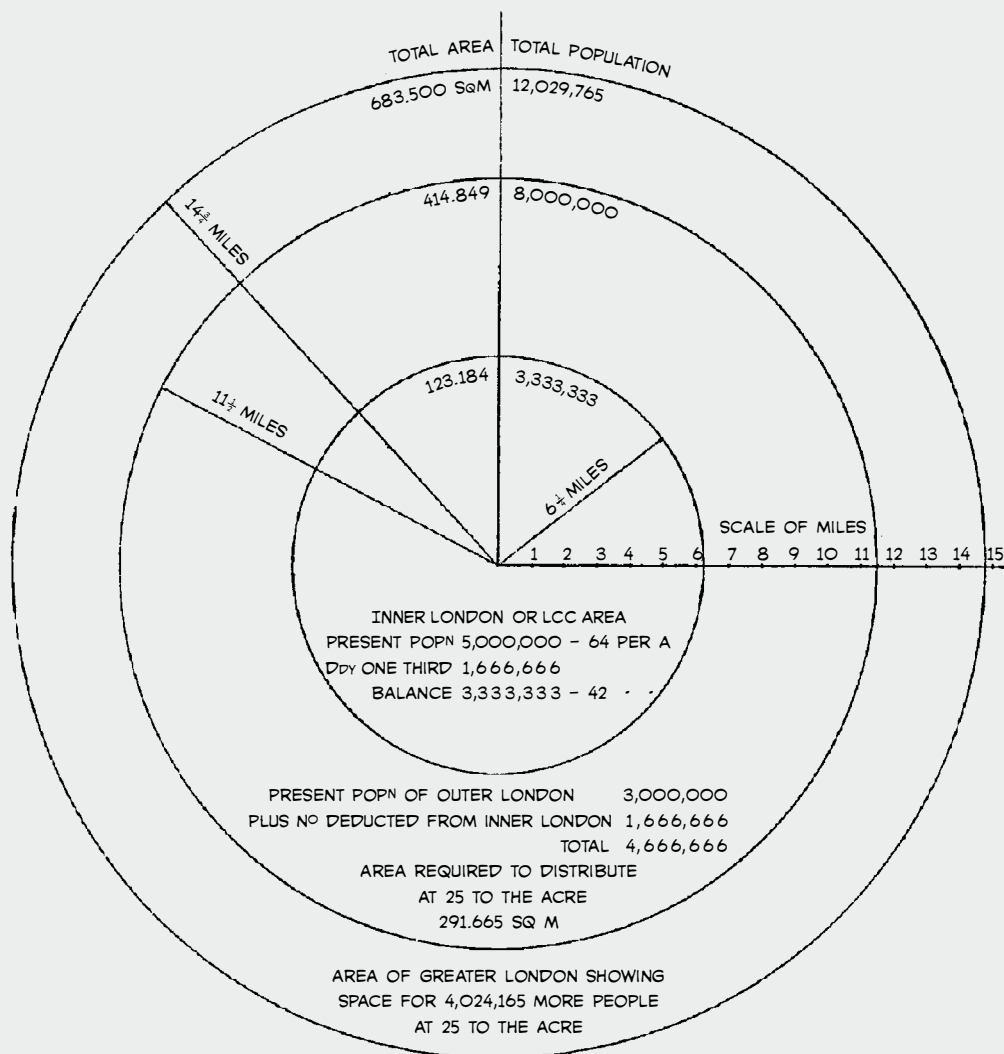
Diagram IV.



approximately 5 millions, equal to sixty-four people per acre on an average. There are still considerable areas quite unbuilt upon within this district of Inner London. Supposing it possible to reduce the density of population of Inner London to an average of forty-two per acre by inducing one-third of the people to live outside the boundary, let us see how this would affect the distribution of population in Greater London. The Metropolitan Police Area is approximately represented by a circle having a radius of  $14\frac{3}{4}$  miles. The present population of this outer area is about 3 millions. If we were to add to this the  $1\frac{2}{3}$  millions which we have assumed to be persuaded to move out we should have increased the population of Outer London to  $4\frac{2}{3}$  millions of people. See Diagram V.

In the Hampstead Garden Suburb there will, when it is completed, be an average of something like seven houses to the acre, but the Suburb being a residential area does not have its full proportion of land occupied by business premises and workshops. If

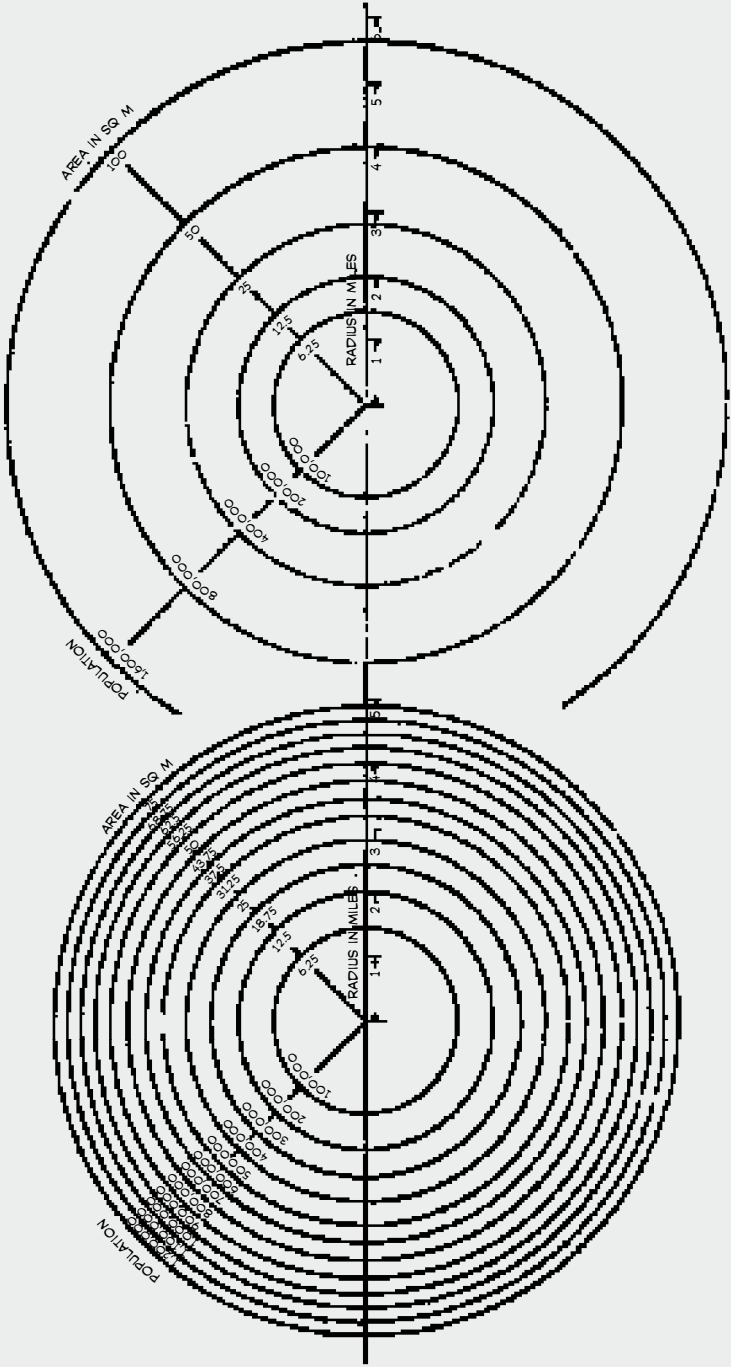
Diagram V.



we add to the area of the Suburb the greater part of the eighty acres of open space around which it is planned, to represent an area devoted to these purposes, we should then find that the average population to the acre would be something like twenty-five people, equivalent to about five houses. Assuming that the  $4\frac{2}{3}$  millions of population,

Diagram VI.

DIAGRAM SHOWING RELATIVELY SMALL INCREASE OF RADIUS REQUIRED TO PROVIDE AREA SUFFICIENT TO HOUSE A GROWING POPULATION TAKEN AT AN AVERAGE OF 25 PEOPLE TO THE ACRE.





which we have considered should be provided for in Greater London, were to be spread out on this basis of an average of twenty-five to the acre, I find that including the population supposed to be left in Inner London, the total of 8,000,000 people would only need an area having a radius of  $11\frac{1}{2}$  miles, while the present area of Greater London would allow of the population increasing from eight millions up to twelve millions distributed on this same basis.

It will be seen, therefore, that the total additional distance to be travelled as a result of preventing overcrowding is a comparatively unimportant matter. Indeed overcrowding, though very bad in certain areas, is very much a local evil, and it is remarkable to find how small is the average number of people to the acre in many districts of London, where one knows that the overcrowding on certain individual acres is very bad. We may, therefore, safely say that there is no sound argument against reducing the number of houses to the acre on the score of seriously increasing the distances to be travelled. See Diagram VI.

It may well be asked, how is it if the economic advantages of overcrowding are so small and the disadvantages so great that the overcrowding system has so generally been adopted? The reason is simply this, that the one person who can secure the advantage happens to be the person who is generally able to settle the type of development, namely, the individual who, having a limited plot of land, sets out to secure the maximum return he can from it by building upon it; and it is true that the value of land as a definite stand for a building is greater than its value as garden land around the same building. In the case of the owners of land, the reason is probably due to the fact that they have not thoroughly thought out or understood the matter, and have looked at the price per individual acre, and have not realised, for example, that if they could sell two acres of land for £300 every year, they were doing better than if they sold one acre of land for £500. But, unfortunately, the majority of people, and particularly the occupants of small houses, which are the ones usually most overcrowded, care chiefly to get a house of some sort at the least cost, and have no means of knowing, because no choice is ever put before them by which they may judge, that they are paying at an extravagantly high rate for their small plots as compared with what they might pay for much larger plots.

When a hard pressed working woman goes to look for a house she considers chiefly the rent, and it will be seen that even in the most favoured circumstances, unless there is some alteration in the value of land, the bigger plot does cost a trifle more. In our first example the difference is the substantial one of  $3\frac{3}{4}$  d. per week, a difference which is truly small compared with the difference in the size of the plot, but is a substantial one none the less.

So long as each individual speculative builder looks at his own acre of land only, having bought it and paid the price for it, it is probable that he can sweat out of that land a little more profit by building the maximum number of houses upon it, because in spite of the increased cost of development, under present circumstances the return, whether he sells the land or lets the houses, will increase a little the more buildings he puts upon it, and increase a little faster than the increase in the cost of development. But if the number of houses to the acre around a growing town is limited under a town planning scheme, this does not mean that the builders will get less profit in the future. It may mean that an individual speculator, who has bought an individual plot, will make less profit out of that particular piece of land than he would have done, though, as has been shown, the difference will be very much less than he imagines. He need not, however, lose anything of his profit per house, because the same number of houses will be required; and though it may require a little more

capital to purchase enough land for the same number of houses, there seems no reason to suppose that the limitation of the number of houses to the acre is in any way liable to reduce the builder's profit either on the buildings themselves or on the increased value of the land due to development, if this profit is estimated per house, as it should be, and not per acre, as at present is the custom. And we have seen that this is true for the owner of land also. In spite, therefore, of the fears of the landowner and the speculative builder there does not seem to be any reason why town planning should not prove to be to the real benefit of both parties. It is, of course, not contended that the limitation by a town planning scheme of the maximum number of houses that may be erected upon the acre of land will not cause loss to anyone. It is probable that no change can be introduced, however beneficial, that will not cause individual hardships.

When anyone purchases land he estimates its probable value and takes the risk of increase or diminution. If a railway station is opened adjacent to his land, its value will go up; if a factory is built on the next plot, it may go down. In one case benefit and in the other injury results; but the fact that these risks may work hardship does not prevent either the station or the factory from coming; and there seems no reason why the community should refrain from putting upon the use of land for building purposes a limitation of the number of houses to the acre, because this may diminish the value of certain pieces of land and increase that of others. Indeed, there is another point of view which might be put with some force by those who have purchased land a little farther out of the town. May it not be put thus: A. has purchased land on the assumption that the overcrowding of buildings would continue to be allowed long enough for him to develop it. If, in the interests of public health, that overcrowding is forbidden, he has simply made a mistake in his speculation, and he loses thereby. But can he really claim that there is any injustice? For B., who has purchased some other land a little further out, has calculated that the general tendency to check overcrowding which has marked the development of by-laws for some time past, would, at an early date, bring a building value to his land, and he will be a loser if overcrowding continues. Could he not, with equal force, say that it is very unjust to him that so many houses should continue to be allowed to be built to the acre that building value is prevented from reaching his land, a value which would accrue to it if such overcrowding were prevented, as it ought to be in the public interest?

It seems to me that in matters of this kind it is the obvious duty of the community to provide for the right system of development, and not to be turned aside because of hardships that may fall upon a few individuals who have laid their plans on the assumption that they would continue to be allowed to do something which has proved to be detrimental to the community. The fact is that nobody can acquire a prescriptive right to injure the community.

But, however this point may be regarded, I think that the figures which I have given prove that the hardship to anybody of limiting the number of houses to the acre would be very much less than is generally supposed, owing to the fact that the advantage due to crowding houses upon land is a constantly diminishing one as the crowding increases; and I think, further, I have proved that the overcrowding system is injurious to all parties and really beneficial to nobody.

It is quite startling to see the extent to which this is true, and it shows how a haphazard system of growth in a community may result in the introduction of the most serious evils on account of some supposed interest, which, when this method is contrasted with the rational and co-ordinating system, proves to have the very smallest amount of real weight, out of all relation to the evils which have been caused.

Startling as the figures above are, it is important however, in framing regulations for limiting the number of houses to the acre, that the fact should not be overlooked that a particular plot of land is more valuable in proportion to the amount of building put upon it. Where there is no limit to the number of houses which may be built on any area of land, it is obvious that the larger the house the fewer the number that can be built, and therefore the cost as between the different sizes of house tends to adjust itself. It is only to some extent, however, because it is quite true that the smaller the house the greater in proportion to its cost must be the costs of the plot on which it stands, and the cost of the roads required to give access to it.

Now, the limitation of the number of houses has the effect of securing that every individual plot is large enough to hold quite a considerable sized house. Quite apart, therefore, from the cost of the plot the result of limiting the number of houses to the acre is to take away even such natural tendency as at present exists for the cost of the plot to be adjusted to the cost of the building by reducing the size of the plot as the buildings grow smaller. We have seen that with ten houses to the acre the average size of the plots will be about 400 yards. Now, on a plot of 400 yards area, there are often built in suburban districts houses costing £600 or £700, and even then a fair-sized bit of back garden is left. The extra road frontage required for such a building to be put on a plot over that required to erect upon it a small cottage, costing about £200, is small in proportion to the difference between the costs, while the actual price of the land of the plot remains the same in both cases. But there can be no doubt that the ground rent which could be charged to such a plot, with a £600 house upon it, would be very much greater than the ground rent which could be charged if there were a £200 cottage upon it.

A very considerable inducement will therefore result from the limitation of the number of houses to the acre for the builder to use each plot for the biggest type of building for which he can secure a demand. Experience has shown that where plots have been laid out by a land owner, not of the minimum size, and where they have been let at a fixed ground rent, it is very difficult to induce the speculative builder to erect upon them small cottages, even where the demand for small cottages is very great. In many towns, of which Cardiff affords a notable instance, it will be found that the builder has erected upon each plot a large type of cottage, having three rooms and a scullery on the ground floor and three or four bedrooms on the first floor. This large house is so costly that the workman cannot afford to pay the whole of the rent himself, and is therefore forced to take in another family to lodge in part of the house to help pay the rent. I think it is of great importance, therefore, when limiting the number of houses to the acre, whether this is done by a town planning scheme or by an individual owner leasing or selling land for building purposes, that the reduction of the number of houses to the acre should not be by means of a simple flat rate of ten or twelve, but should be in accordance with a scale bearing a relation to the size of the house. In this way only can the tendency to build larger houses than are required in any district be checked, and in this way only can the excessive overcrowding of the medium and larger sized house in places where there is a great demand for them be prevented. In several cases of development on Garden City and Garden Suburb lines, in order to secure that too large buildings should not be erected on the more generous sized plots there provided, it has been necessary to fix for each plot a maximum size of building to be erected upon it. The following scale has been adopted in one instance, as between the landowner and the Society developing the land, and it affords an example of the way in which the limitation of the number of houses to the acre can

Diagram VII.



Diagram illustrating the development of a town by means of self-contained suburbs with defining belts of open space. See page 2.

be secured while to some extent guarding against the difficulties that have been referred to:—

TABLE III.

Houses not exceeding in cost,									
		when cubed at 6d.	..	..	£225	not to exceed	14	to the acre	net.
do.	do.	cubed at 6d.	..	..	£350	”	”	12	”
do.	do.	cubed at $6\frac{1}{2}$ d.	..	..	£500	”	”	11	”
do.	do.	cubed at $6\frac{1}{2}$ d.	..	..	£700	”	”	10	”
do.	do.	cubed at 7d.	..	..	£900	”	”	8	”

The average over the whole Estate not to exceed 7 to the acre, gross measure.

In framing the regulations at the Garden City at Letchworth it was sought to meet this point to some extent by the following provisions:—

1. That in the case of houses on ordinary sites, not more than one-sixth of the site should be covered by buildings.
2. By stipulating that dwelling houses costing less than £200 should not exceed 12 to the acre; houses costing from £200 to £300 should not exceed 10 to the acre; houses costing from £300 to £350 should not exceed 8 to the acre; and so forth.

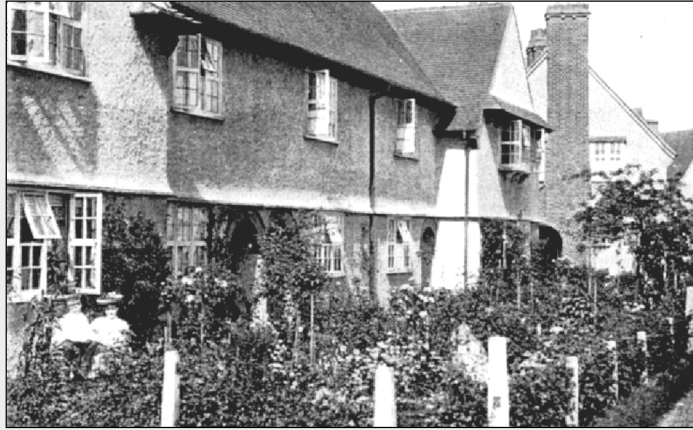
These regulations being framed under the Company's lease, it was possible to allow more discretion in their interpretation and application than would be practicable if they were to be enforced by Local Authorities as building regulations under a town planning scheme. But it is suggested the difficulty may be met by some such arrangement. Certainly to limit to a fixed amount, say ten or fifteen for example, the number of houses irrespective of size which may be erected on the acre, would be a very rough and ready way of securing the ends desired; and the alternative method which has been suggested of limiting the number of cubic feet of building to the acre, although accommodating itself more scientifically to one aspect of the subject, is nearly as crude as the previously mentioned flat rate limitation, because quite unrelated to another aspect. The fact is that there are two important and different considerations which make some sort of limitation desirable. One has relation to the amount of building and the other has relation to the population, and the desired end can only be attained by some scale which takes into account both these relations.

A limitation of the cubic contents of the building would have the effect of requiring one acre of ground for a single house when it reached a certain size, and that not a very large size, if, at the same time it was to have the effect of preventing more than ten to fifteen families living on the acre. For the purposes of general amenity, a certain amount of open space in relation to cubic size of building is desirable; but, on the other hand, it is perhaps even more desirable that there should be sufficient area of open ground for garden and recreation purposes for each family, irrespective of the size of the house it occupies. It is for this reason that I think a scale system of limiting the number of houses to the acre would be found to be on the whole simplest and most satisfactory. Such scale can be arranged to allow sufficient space in proportion to the increased cubic size of larger houses, and at the same time provide for the proportionately larger area of garden per family, which is desirable as compared with the cubic size of the smaller types of cottage.

It has the additional advantage of following closely the lines laid down in the Housing and Town Planning, etc., Act, 1909, which permits “restrictions on the number of buildings which may be erected on each acre, and the height and character of those buildings.”



## The Garden City Method of Development.



FRONT GARDENS TO HOUSES UNDER TOWN PLANNING.



FRONT VIEW AT HAMPSTEAD GARDEN SUBURB, ILLUSTRATING  
12 HOUSES TO THE ACRE NET OR ABOUT 10 GROSS.



REAR VIEW SHOWING THE AMOUNT OF OPEN SPACE, WITH  
12 HOUSES TO THE ACRE NET OR ABOUT 10 GROSS, AS IN SCHEME IIA.

## The By-Law Method of Development.



ORDINARY SUBURBAN VILLAS, SHOWING AMOUNT OF SPACE FOR FRONT GARDEN.



CHARACTERISTIC STREET OF ARTISAN HOMES IN INDUSTRIAL TOWNS AND CITIES.



BACKS OF ARTISAN HOMES.

## The Garden City Method of Development.



BACK GARDENS, 12 HOUSES TO THE ACRE NET.

## The By-Law Method of Development.



BACKS OF SUBURBAN VILLAS, SHOWING AMOUNT OF GARDEN SPACE IN REAR.

# Everything to be gained!

## How Garden City planning principles can help to unlock the delivery of attractive and sustainable neighbourhoods for the 21st century

**By Dr Patrick Clarke**

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*'The Garden City movement, as the name implies, stands for a more harmonious combination of city and country, dwelling house and garden.'*

From *Nothing Gained by Overcrowding!*

### Introduction

We need to find new ways of creating high-quality and sustainable homes at a price people can afford and in neighbourhoods where they will want to live.

The current system is not delivering. We are simply not building the number of homes that are needed quickly enough. Moreover, there are significant concerns about the quality of housing layout and design and a recognition that higher levels of sustainability are needed for new homes in order to meet carbon reduction targets. These aspirations for improved quality and higher standards of sustainability have to be reconciled with the need to provide homes that are also more affordable.

Delivering more and better homes more quickly and more affordably is therefore a defining challenge for our generation.

While much attention has been given to the financial and policy mechanisms needed to unlock housing supply, there has been less consideration of the character and quality of the residential neighbourhoods we want to create. This is an important omission because public opinion polls show that concerns about the quality and character of new development are an important factor in public opposition to new home building.

Garden Cities and Suburbs are increasingly recognised as providing important lessons in how to create attractive, enduringly popular and successful new

communities. Planned at a larger scale, they provide the opportunity for a more comprehensive approach that includes not just homes, but also employment, a town or district centre with shops and services, open space, and leisure facilities, as well as high-quality public transport systems.

The benefits of this visionary and comprehensive approach are increasingly clear. However, in differentiating the Garden City approach from everyday practice, Unwin recognised that there is also *'the detailed aspect of the question'* concerned with *'the proper arrangement of the individual buildings and the limitation of the amount of building in relation to the area of open space'*.<sup>8</sup>

This question was important then as it is now, because if we are to deliver the higher-quality and more sustainable neighbourhoods offered by the Garden City approach we need to demonstrate that this can be achieved at a cost and level of affordability comparable to that produced by the general market. The principal focus of Unwin's analysis in *Nothing Gained by Overcrowding!* was therefore different approaches to housing layout. With similar questions now in mind, it is to these same issues that the discussion returns.

### Everywhere but nowhere

Concerns about the 'everywhere but nowhere' character of new housing estates are not limited to affected local communities. The National Housing Audit

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<sup>8</sup> *Nothing Gained by Overcrowding!*, p.1 (see page 8 above)



undertaken by CABE<sup>9</sup> found low-quality design outcomes in both private market and social housing schemes. Of particular concern were projects in suburban contexts or on the edges of urban areas where many larger new neighbourhoods are developed. Only 4% of such schemes were rated as 'good', 52% were considered merely 'average', and 43% were marked as 'poor', indicating to CABE that they should not have been granted planning permission.

In CABE's assessment, suburban schemes performed worse than the wider sample because of the need to integrate a wider range of elements to create a new place. In particular, the survey identified the failure to create coherent, legible urban form and good-quality streets as recurrent weaknesses, along with the arrangements for car parking.

These poor-quality outcomes are nothing short of a tragedy for a country with a heritage of creating world-class residential neighbourhoods and communities.

From the best of our Georgian, Victorian and Edwardian neighbourhoods to the efforts of the industrial philanthropists like George Cadbury at Bournville to the pioneering Garden Cities and Suburbs at Letchworth, Welwyn and Hampstead, Britain has led the world in creating beautiful neighbourhoods which have met the aspirations of successive generations and which remain popular and desirable today.

Despite this, current practice remains focused on satisfying the needs of an increasingly bureaucratic and complex system. Projects have to comply not just with the standards and requirements of the local planning authority but also with the guidelines of a host of other agencies, statutory consultees and stakeholders. Of particular importance are the requirements of highway authorities in relation to highway design, vehicle circulation and car parking.

## Current approaches to housing layout

A new approach to housing layout has become established which works with the standards generally applied in response to these requirements. This approach seeks to create a sense of place by bringing the building line forward to the street edge to create a more urban street scene with a greater sense of enclosure. This model is conceived alongside a highway

design approach which reduces the road width and uses twists and turns to reduce vehicle speeds. A fundamental objective of this approach is that cars are parked in rear parking courts within the residential street block. This approach to layout is illustrated here in Scheme A (see Fig. 1).

This approach can produce attractive streetscapes and has been used in a number of award-winning projects. However, there would appear to be an insufficient understanding of how the approach uses land (the basic raw material of housing production) and how it addresses other key planning and sustainability objectives.

A number of fundamental shortcomings are immediately apparent. In particular:

- The environment is dominated by hard surfaced areas. The objective may be to minimise the impact of cars in the street scene, but the outcome is a neighbourhood with almost half of its area devoted to roads, parking and footways.
- The space available for private gardens is reduced and its value is diminished by the adjacent parking areas. In Scheme A the average size of garden area per home (including space at the front and at the back) is only 65 square metres.
- The dominance of hard surfaced areas provides few opportunities for tree planting, contributes to a heat island effect, and creates requirements to manage more surface water run-off with sustainable urban drainage systems (SUDS).

The underlying weakness in this approach is that it uses a comparatively inefficient approach to car parking provision, in which space needs to be provided not just for parking but also for vehicle access and manoeuvring.

Issues with this approach to parking go beyond land economy. A major study that explored the impact of innovative housing design on crime<sup>10</sup> 'confirmed concerns that rear parking courts are vulnerable to crime. Rear parking courts had higher levels of vehicle crime and criminal damage than other types of parking, and also facilitated offenders' access to the rear of properties.'

The research also 'highlighted the unintended consequences of parking policies designed to move cars away from property frontages. Across the sample the behaviour of residents demonstrated a desire to

<sup>9</sup> Commission for Architecture and the Built Environment, now part of the Design Council

<sup>10</sup> R. Armitage, L. Monchuk and M. Rogerson: 'It looks good, but what is it like to live there? Exploring the impact of innovative housing design on crime'. *European Journal on Criminal Policy & Research*, 2011, Vol. 17 (1), 29-54





**Fig. 1** Scheme A – typical rear parking court layout

*park within close proximity to home; often by parking illegally on pavements.'*

Despite the fact that Scheme A would typically be the outcome of a lengthy design and regulatory process, it fails to produce an attractive and sustainable living environment.

## Learning from the best of our past

This new model is significantly different from the most successful perimeter block approaches to housing layout, which enclose rear garden space and locate car parking on the street or on-plot to the front or side of

homes. This approach was common throughout the Georgian, Victorian and Edwardian eras and was developed and applied in the design of the early Garden Cities, suburbs and inter-war estates.

It was this model of the enclosed perimeter block that Unwin used to demonstrate the benefits of the Garden City approach to housing layout in *Nothing Gained by Overcrowding!*<sup>11</sup> A notable feature of the block developed by Unwin was the inclusion of communal amenities for children's play and recreation within the centre of the block.

The origin of this block layout has been traced to the masterplan for Brentham Garden Suburb, prepared by Unwin in 1907.<sup>12</sup> While only one side of the particular

<sup>11</sup> See Diagram I, Scheme II in *Nothing Gained by Overcrowding!*, p.4 (see page 11 above)

<sup>12</sup> M. Miller: *Raymond Unwin: Garden Cities and Town Planning*. Leicester University Press, 1992, p.126

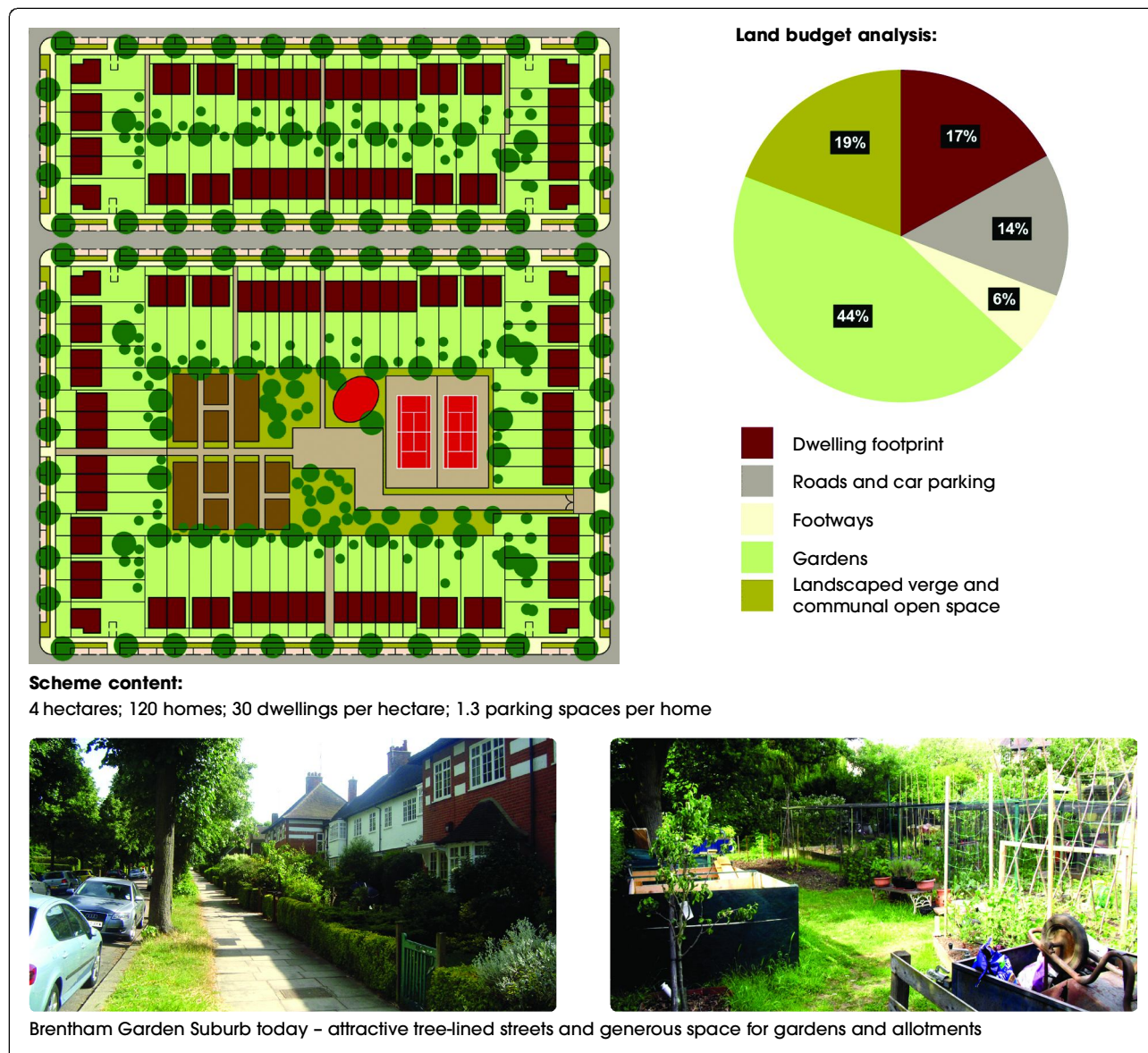


Fig. 2 Scheme B – re-interpretation of a Garden City approach

block was constructed, the layout included a number of larger blocks with a very similar form and dimensions to that illustrated in *Nothing Gained by Overcrowding!* This provides us with a tangible illustration of how the conceptual approach to layout shown in *Nothing Gained by Overcrowding!* was translated into the design of a highly attractive and much loved residential neighbourhood.

Scheme B (see Fig. 2) illustrates how Unwin's Garden City approach to layout could be developed for application today. The layout replicates the straightforward and efficient perimeter block, with cars parked predominantly on-street to the front of homes. The larger of the two blocks includes (in addition to private gardens) a generous communal area for recreation, children's play, allotment gardens and an orchard. This would be shared and managed by the residents of the block and their neighbours who

want to enjoy the space. The second, perhaps more typical block, features good-sized gardens which run end to end.

The Garden City approach to layout turns many of the shortcomings of Scheme A into positives. In particular, the neighbourhood benefits from generous garden space which provides opportunities for recreation, biodiversity and wildlife, as well as for mature landscape and trees which provide shade and cooling in summer. The area of garden space per home (excluding the communal area) in Scheme B is two-and-a-half times larger than in Scheme A.

Within enclosed street blocks the gardens enjoy good levels of security, provide opportunities for species migration, and offer a rear outlook for residents into a large area of very high amenity. The garden and communal areas also provide larger areas for natural

**Table 1**  
**Indicative cost of development for each scheme**

	<b>Scheme A</b> With land at £500,000 per acre	<b>Scheme B</b> With land at £500,000 per acre
Number of homes	137	120
Average size of plot	120 square metres	203 square metres (253 square metres*)
Cost of roads, pavements and car parking <sup>#</sup>	£2,725,000	£1,300,000
Commuted payments for street trees	£60,000	£200,000
Cost of SUDS/communal area	£200,000	£200,000
Cost of land	£5,000,000	£5,000,000
Total cost per home	£58,000	£56,000
<b>Cost of plot per square metre</b>	<b>£480</b>	<b>£275 (£220*)</b>

\* Including an equal share of the communal space

<sup>#</sup> The cost of constructing residential streets and footways to an adoptable standard and including typical inspection and adoption fees plus the cost of constructing communal parking courts

infiltration of rain water, thus including a sustainable urban drainage approach as an integral part of the layout.

Gardens are increasingly recognised as important in promoting biodiversity and mitigating the effects of climate change, but they are also highly valued by residents. A survey of what people look for in a new home found that *'A crucial factor for homebuyers in choosing a house is the provision of outside space, and of gardens in particular. Over three quarters of the respondents preferred to have a private garden rather than sharing a communal space with their neighbours.'*<sup>13</sup> It would seem likely that this percentage would be even higher among those seeking a family home.

The green and leafy character of Scheme B is possible because it adopts a much more efficient approach to street layout and car parking. Overall, it devotes just 20% of its area to roads, parking and footways compared with 47% in Scheme A. While Scheme A provides an extra 0.2 of a parking space per home, it uses almost 20% of its area for parking compared with just 5% in Scheme B.

It is clear from this discussion that Scheme B holds many advantages over the approach illustrated in Scheme A. The question now arises as to whether it would be more costly to build to this better model as compared with that favoured by current practice.

## The two models compared

Taking a similar approach to that followed by Unwin in *Nothing Gained by Overcrowding!*,<sup>14</sup> Table 1 above examines the implications of these different approaches in terms of some of the development costs that would be associated with the two schemes. The costs set out in Table 1 include the cost of land, which is assumed to be £500,000 per acre (c. £1.2 million per hectare) and the cost of constructing and adopting residential streets and laying out parking areas, which would be maintained by a management company. In addition, they include a commuted sum to be paid to the highway authority to cover future management and maintenance of street trees and a notional allowance for the construction of a sustainable urban drainage area for Scheme A and the laying out of the communal open space in Scheme B.

This analysis is by definition indicative, and different assumptions or different ways of accounting for costs would produce different comparisons. Nonetheless, it provides an interesting illustration of how the different approaches to layout might be expected to influence development costs and thus the affordability of the homes.

It can be seen that the much larger area given over to roads and parking in Scheme A translates directly into a much higher development cost than for Scheme B. As

<sup>13</sup> *What Home Buyers Want*. CABE, 2005. <http://webarchive.nationalarchives.gov.uk/20110118095356/http://www.cabe.org.uk/files/what-home-buyers-want.pdf>

<sup>14</sup> See *Nothing Gained by Overcrowding!*, p.5, Table I (see page 12 above)



## Nothing Gained by Overcrowding!

a result, even allowing for the lower density of development in Scheme B and the more generous provision of gardens, communal open space and street trees, the indicative cost per home is £2,000 lower in Scheme B.

However, the real difference between the two approaches becomes apparent when we then take into account the substantially larger plot size of homes in Scheme B. It can be seen that the cost per square metre is more than 40% less for homes in Scheme B, and more than 50% less if one includes a share of the communal open space area.

Aside from the adoption of the highway and footways, no additional cost has been included for the long-term management and maintenance of communal areas in either scheme. However, there are significant differences between the two approaches. In Scheme A only 31% of the total area is looked after by the individual property owners or tenants, leaving almost 70% of the area to be maintained by the highway authority or management company. In contrast, in Scheme B the area to be maintained communally is just 39%, and would be reduced to just 24% if the communal gardens were managed directly by the residents.

## Everything to be gained!

This analysis of different approaches to housing layout demonstrates that the Garden City approach holds significant advantages over a typical layout produced by current practice. It organises streets, homes and gardens in a much more efficient way so as to achieve a comparable density of development while providing

residents with substantially more generous gardens, outdoor amenity space and tree-lined streets.

Moreover, this better approach to neighbourhood planning translates into significant cost savings in the construction of expensive roads and parking areas, so that the benefits of the Garden City approach can be secured at a more affordable cost.

The Garden City approach to layout has a number of further significant benefits. In particular:

- It is a tried and tested approach which has produced places that have stood the test of time and which remain popular today. In planning for new communities it is very important to work with approaches to layout that are proven and robust.
- It utilises traditional and straightforward approaches to street and neighbourhood design that are far less elaborate than those commonly used today. This could bring many benefits, including the opportunity for more custom building and development by small or start-up building companies.
- It is well understood and widely admired. Taking a Garden City approach to neighbourhood design can enable more positive engagement with local communities over the design of a new neighbourhood and thus help to make the planning process more effective and efficient.

Bringing all of this discussion together, we can conclude that Garden City planning principles can help us to unlock the delivery of attractive and sustainable neighbourhoods for the 21st century. There is indeed everything to be gained by rediscovering our tradition of creating world-class Garden Cities and Suburbs.

# about the tcpa

Founded in 1899, the Town and Country Planning Association (TCPA) is the UK's oldest independent charity focused on planning and sustainable development. Through its work over the last century, the Association has improved the art and science of planning both in the UK and abroad. The TCPA puts social justice and the environment at the heart of policy debate, and seeks to inspire government, industry and campaigners to take a fresh perspective on major issues, including planning policy, housing, regeneration and climate change.

The TCPA's objectives are:

- To secure a decent, well designed home for everyone, in a human-scale environment combining the best features of town and country.

- To empower people and communities to influence decisions that affect them.

- To improve the planning system in accordance with the principles of sustainable development.



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