COMMUNITY-PARK-SYSTEMS AS TOOLS OF HEALING AND RECONNECTION

-ADDRESSING THE LIMINAL CONDITION OF PARKS IN THE CITY & THE MARGINALIZATION OF SPECIAL NEEDS GROUPS IN SOCIETY

by
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AUTHOR'S DECLARATION

I hearby declare that I am the sole author of this thesis. This is a true copy of the thesis, including any required final revisions, as accepted by my examiners.

I understand that my thesis may be made electronically available to the public.

THESIS ABSTRACT

LINKING URBAN AND SOCIAL INFRASTRUCTURE

This thesis looks at re-investing the landscape with community and environmental purpose, by bringing *'infrastructure'* into the realm of *'public works'*, focusing on two community issues, that are demonstrative of a general condition that can be transferred to other sites within Toronto or other cities.

The first issue discussed is the liminal condition of urban parks in the city. Since Euro-American settlement, there has been a historical devaluation of nature within the city of Toronto. This can be seen through a physical suppression of natural systems and through a psychological separation of nature from the city. The Garrison Creek, a defining element to the landscape of early Toronto, now buried underground, is one example demonstrative of this liminal condition. Proposals, by Brown+Storey Architects, in the 1990s, discussed the re-linkage of remnants of the ravine system, empty lots and urban park spaces, into a cohesive community-park-network and a watershed-system. The design aspect of this thesis builds on Brown+Storey's neighbourhood park proposals by adding another layer - a supportive housing network.

The second community issue discussed is the marginalization of special needs groups within society. The background given is a detailed history of their residential situations, from pre-institutional to Community Living trends, for various marginalized groups; with specific focus on persons with developmental disabilities.

The final design proposal links the two community concerns and involves the re-linkage of disconnected neighbourhood parks in the city that would eventually become: a community park system (complete with a storm water management system), and part of a supportive housing network with neighbourhood allotment gardens. Thematically the two issues are linked, with the park as a tool for healing and reconnection of the city and nature relationship, as well as the marginalized group and community relationship. The approach taken is to look specifically at one community park (Trinity-Bellwoods, within the Garrison Creek Ravine system in Toronto), and one

Some Definitions/ Descriptions:

Liminality: "from the latin word limen, meaning a threshold.... describes a state of 'between-ness', ambiguity, or indeterminacy." -Wikipedia (www.wikipedia.org/wiki/Liminality)

Othering: "the distancing of what is peripheral, marginal and incidental from a cultural norm." -Ontario Human Rights Commission (www.ohrc.on.ca)

Allotment Garden: "Allotment plots are administered by the various (former) municipalities of Toronto. They are usually larger than community plots and there is a fee to rent a plot." - Toronto Foodshare (www.foodshare.net/)

disadvantaged group (persons with developmental disabilities). The result is the design of a group-home complex, with varying degrees of support, for persons with developmental disabilities, sited within Trinity-Bellwoods Park.

A central issue to this thesis is the use of public park space for supportive housing. Although Toronto's Official Plan is generally prohibitive of such construction (Section 2.3.2 Policy 4 and 5, Section 4.3 Policy 2), it is the contention of this thesis that including supportive housing and gardens within parks would be highly beneficial for both the marginalized group that would be housed there and the community that it is part of. As such, it is argued that sensitive development of public park space for such a use can have positive results and should be allowed.

Parks are intended to be centers for community life. Because of their central location and highly public nature, they lend themselves as venues for interaction –they are an environment where through visibility and awareness, there is encouragement towards openness, compassion, and acceptance.

The final design uses gardening, as a tool for personal healing, and as a method for interaction in the form of neighbourhood allotment gardens. The hope is that such an environment would encourage engagement between the disadvantaged group and the community. This increased communication could then lead to personal identification; reducing fear, and ultimately the lessening of isolation or marginalization. Thus the final design proposal is understood as a possible prototype for the urban park, which is augmented as a place truly reflective of a "community" park, alluding to a higher purpose in the city that promotes the common good.

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DEDICATION

To my parents: You have given me gifts of compassion, support, sacrifice and guidance. I could never have come this far without you.

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INTRODUCTION:

SUMMARY

The introduction draws conceptual parallels between the displacement of natural systems in the city and that of various marginalized groups in society. Both topics have issues of disassociation and othering at their core. Othering is described as a cycle that begins with separation leading to isolation. This in turn generates fear of the other, creating the need for safety, which ultimately leads to further seperation. This section offers that environments encouraging communication are the key towards concepts of community and engagement -as opposed to isolation and fear. This realization of interconnectedness can than lead to valuing and an increased respect for each other and nature. This section concludes with an explanation of how community parks can be the mode for communicative design.

A brief description of the Case Site (Garrison Creek Ravine System) and the Case Disadvantaged Group (persons with developmental disabilities) are also included. These descriptions will be expanded upon in Chapters One and Two.

INTRODUCTION

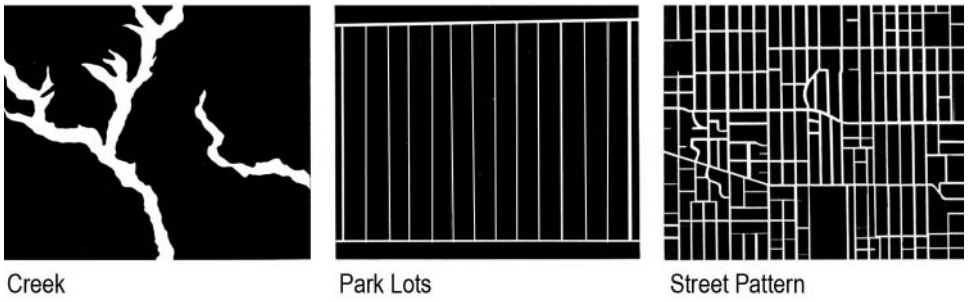


Figure i-ii
Brown + Storey Diagram of the Garrison Creek Ravine System from Original Creek Profile to Current Street Grid.

Definitions of "wild" in modern-western culture are often associated with unruliness, disorder, and violence –opposite to notions of civilized and orderliness. The Oxford English Dictionary (2001) defines "wild" as such[1]:

> *Of animals – not tame, undomesticated, unruly.*
> *Of plants – not cultivated.*
> *Of land – uninhabited, uncultivated.*
> *Of societies – uncivilized, rude, resisting constituted government.*
> *Of individuals – unrestrained, insubordinate, loose.*
> *Of behavior – violent, destructive, cruel, unruly, artless, free, spontaneous.*

Here, "wild" is defined from a human perspective –it is seen as chaotic, threatening, and more significantly, something that is separate and lesser. With such negative connotations, it is of no surprise that the resulting human relationship with wilderness is often connected to ideas of *production*, as opposed to *growth* -with focus on nature as a resource for human ends, rather than a force to be valued with its own dynamics. The effects of this attitude can be seen with the current condition of many ecosystems in the world. Although not all natural environments are negatively impacted by human intervention, there are still countless examples of such areas that are in fact left polluted, damaged, or destroyed by the technologies we use.

Ecosophy, relevant to the following discussion of *disassociation* and *othering*, is an area of philosophy with predominantly eco-centric perspectives that has a strong focus on the human relationship, often via technology, with nature. Ecosopher Simon James comments how, *"revealed technologically, dandelions become weeds, an old-growth forest becomes timber, a wild wooded valley becomes a tourist attraction, a stretch of meadow becomes a convenient site for a bypass, and so on.*[2]*"*

One such alteration of the natural environment to suit human needs can be seen through

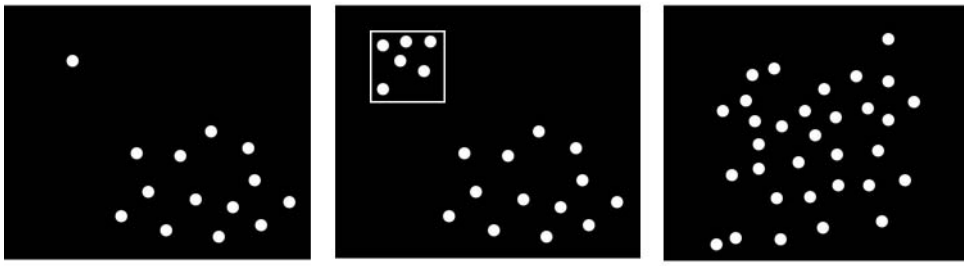


Figure i-iii
Diagram of the Residential Situation of Marginalized groups from Othering to Institutionalization to Community Living

mappings of The City of Toronto and the Garrison Creek (in Chapter 1). The Garrison Creek was a founding waterway for Toronto, defining its first western limit. As both settlement and industry increased along the Creek, it became contaminated by the waste and refuse that was discharged and thrown into it. In time, the creek became a health hazard and was eventually buried in a brick sewer. As the city grew, pieces of the residual ravine path were in-filled for housing developments. Today there exists a disassociation between the former flowing creek and the disconnected open spaces left along its path.

This thesis aims to draw a parallel between the displacement of natural systems in the city (such as the Garrison ravine system) and that of various marginalized groups in society (specifically, persons with developmental disabilities). Historically both have experienced *othering*, *de-valuation, and exclusion* -with each being referred to as the "other" in different circumstances.

One example of this condition for various disadvantaged groups, such as persons with developmental disabilities, is reflected in the design and location of the residential facilities they were forced to inhabit. Figure i-iv illustrates this effect. Facilities like asylums were kept out of the city, at first for the healing effects of nature, but quickly these separations led to disassociation with more vulnerable people of society. Isolation created fear of these groups within the communities they were separated from, and was physically manifested through the erection of gates and walls around these areas. This spatial isolation led to mistreatment of these persons and became, "a symbol of our civilization, our difference[3]*."*

"Fear comes from a feeling of powerlessness and vulnerability. Gating, as an attempt to exercise control over the environment [or that which is different], lessens that feeling, irrespective of the reality of the threat or the actual effectiveness of the gates[4]."

- Urban Planners Edward Blakely and Mary Snyder

Figure i-iv
Gated Nature

Dylan Wolfe, another prominent Ecosopher, in the article “The Common Erasure of Space and Nature”, describes it as a cycle that becomes very difficult to break from. Separation leads to isolation, isolation generates fear of the ‘other’, fear creates the need for safety, and safety is exercised by increasing separation. Gating and separation are just a few of the examples of how this psychological issue ultimately extends into the realm of design.

The shift away from the cycle of othering to connection is not so simple. Arne Naess, founder of the Deep Ecology branch of Ecosophy, considers humankind as an integral part of the environment, identifying the primary human purpose as “self-realization”, which invariably includes identifying with other beings and natural systems in an ever-expanding concept of “Extended-Self”. Naess reasons that reconstruction of self, through lessening of isolation, reduces fear of the *other* (whether that be in regards to nature or marginalized groups) and offers an increased understanding of the world. This defining of self involves going beyond simple acknowledgement, to personally engaging the *other*.

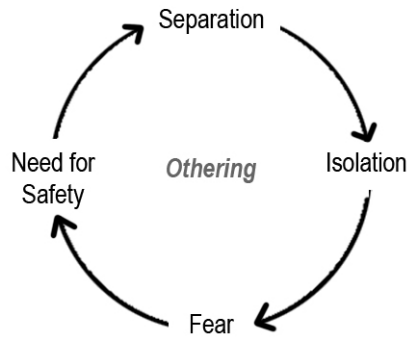


Figure i-v
Cycle of Othering

Figure i-vi
Non-Gated Nature

"The greater our comprehension of our togetherness with other beings, the greater the identification, and the greater care we will take. The road is also opened thereby for delight in the well-being of others and sorrow when harm befalls them. We seek what is best for ourselves, but through the extension of the self, our 'own' best is also that of others[5]*."* *-Naess.*

Environments that foster communication seem to be the key. This allows for a movement from isolation and fear of that which is different, to increased relatedness and personal identification. Making something visible and accessible helps one identify with it.

Armando Rodriguez, a Communications Scholar, discusses the erasure of space and nature, and writes: *"I push forward an emergent understanding of communication that promotes union and communion rather than separation and fragmentation. Such an understanding assumes that our redemption resides in our embeddedness in the world and each other. We help embrace this embeddedness through the promotion of spaces and designs that help foster practices that expand our humanity by making us less afraid of the world and each other*[6]*."*

Wolfe describes Rodriguez's argument as the difference between monologic versus dialogic design. He describes dialogic designs as encouraging openness and compassion, which creates identification between the individual–self and the marginalized-other. The resulting connection promotes *community* over *isolation* and *individuation*.

Community interactions can then foster trust, dispelling fear of the so-called undesirables of society. The realization of interconnectedness leads to valuing, and an increase in respect for each other and nature. Furthermore, recognizing commonality or connection creates obligation to develop a relationship and sense of personal responsibility. Simon comments: *"To free ourselves of the alienating influence ... and recover our rootedness in the world, Heidegger maintains that we must cultivate a 'mode of being' he calls a releasement toward things*[7]."

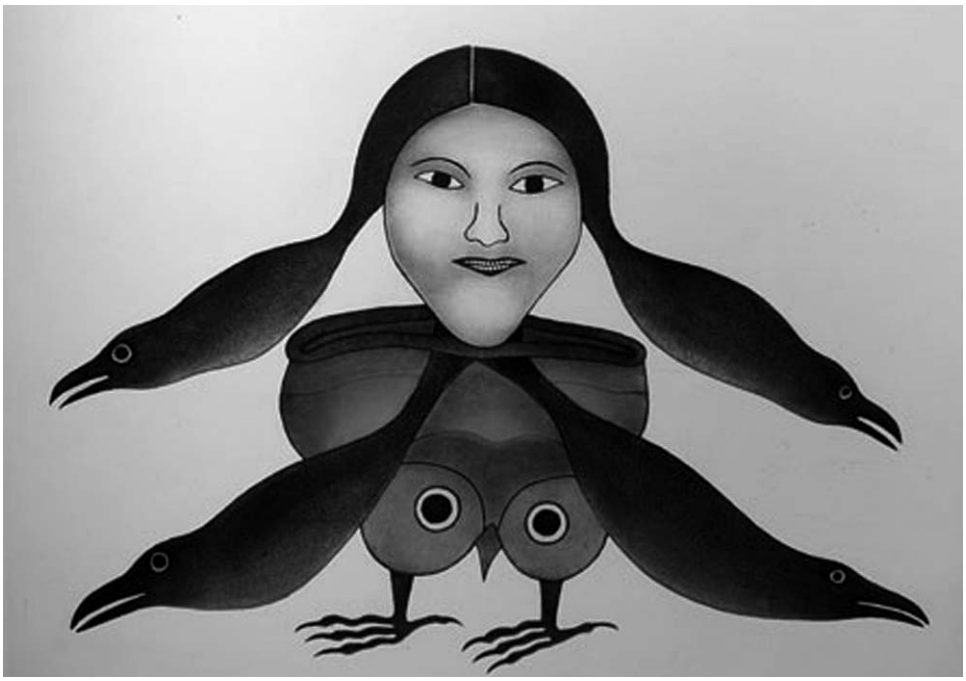


Figure i-vii
Kenojuak Ashevak Print
Bird Women in Transformation, 2002

This print illustrates the Native-American world-view of "self" as inseparable from the larger natural community.

To be "released to a thing" requires an appreciation for the thing as itself –recognizing the value of it. Simon describes it as being more than a frame of mind, more than cognitive functions, rather an engagement and reciprocity.

This recognition of interconnectedness in the world can also be seen in the realm of East-Asian and Indigenous thinkers. Daoism expresses a practical relation to nature, where one realizes belonging to the world through practical attunement to things[8]. Comparatively, the Native-American world-view sees "self" as inseparable from the larger natural community; man being an aspect of nature –'we are the land'. In both views there is nothing extraordinary about the link between humans and nature and humans and humans–it is a given. This sense of embeddedness in the world is ordinary, but also extremely powerful.

The design of this thesis involves the re-linkage of disconnected parks in the city that would become a community-park-system and part of a supportive-housing-network. Parks as centers of public and community life lend themselves as settings where recognition of the marginalized-other and its value can occur. More specifically, gardens are used as a tool for this interaction, communication, and recognition of our embeddedness in the world we live in and the people in our communities that we share this experience with.

(Endnotes)

1 Oxford English Dictionary (New York: Oxford University Press, 2001), p.150.
2 Simon James, *"Heidegger and the Role of the Body in Environmental Virtue,"* The Trumpeter: Journal of Ecosophy, 2002, 10:10, p. 5.
3 Dylan Wolfe,*"The Common Erasure of Space and Nature: Communication as a Bridge Between the Discourses of Designed Space and Ecocentered Identity,"* The Trumpeter: Journal of Ecosophy, 2003 <http://trumpeter.athabascau.ca/content/v19.3/Wolfe.pdf> p.56.
4 Edward Blakely and Mary Snyder, Gated Communities in the United States (California: Brooking Institutional Press, 1997), p.50.
5 Simon James, *"Heidegger & the Role of Body in Environmental Virtue."* The Trumpeter: Journal of Ecosophy, 2002, 10:10, p.6.
6 Amardo Rodriguez, Locating the Communication Origins of New Space and Design, 2001, p.57.
7 Simon James, *"Heidegger and the Role of the Body in Environmental Virtue,"* The Trumpeter: Journal of Ecosophy, 2002, 10:10, p.10.
8 Sarah Jenkins, Daoism Explained. (New York: Daoism Institute of Learning, 2002), p.5.

CASE SITE

Figure i-viii
Underground Sewer vs. Feet in Water

The burrial of the Garrison Creek illustrates the loss of perceptual immediacy of natural systems in everyday life.

GARRISON CREEK RAVINE SYSTEM

The natural landscape contained defining elements for the early settlements of Canadian cities. In the case of Toronto, the city was sited adjacent to a natural harbour, between the Don River and the Garrison Creek.

As the city expanded, the psychological and physical separation between the urban and natural environments widened. The expanding city-grid often resulted in the displacement and suppression of many complex natural environments. A case in point would be the Garrison Creek that now exists buried in a Victorian sewer beneath the city. Today, remnants of the Garrison ravine consist of a series of disconnected open spaces, which include: parking lots, school yards, and urban parks. The aesthetics of these spaces offer little connection with the natural dynamics that previously existed there, and further reflect a divorced relationship between natural systems and everyday urban life. For example, rather than seeing where water comes from and where it goes, we have faucets and drains that produce water and allow it to disappear without an awareness of natural cycles. As such there is often dissociation between humanity and nature which are frequently seen as separate, as opposed to embedded, entities. The city is where people live, and the area outside of the city is where nature lives. This longing of reconnection is seen when people flock to campsites, cottages, and cabins to escape the 'civilized' city.

Research relating to the Garrison Creek is focused on proposals to re-link the disconnected set of city parks that trace the original path of the watershed. This proposed 'pond system' would redirect storm water from the city's underground sewers into a community park system that would provide infrastructural and societal benefit. Regeneration of lost natural systems can provide a perceptual immediacy that can bring back natural defining elements into community and civic consciousness.

CASE DISADVANTAGED GROUP

Figure i-ix
Hidden vs. Accepted by Community

In the past, persons with developmental disabilities were isolated and treated without significant care or compassion. Today there is a movement recognizing thier value in communitities and as equal citizens.

PERSONS WITH DEVELOPMENTAL DISABILITIES

Prior to any specifically designed residential environments for persons with developmental disabilities, their spaces of inhabitation reflected the mostly negative public attitudes held towards them. Through ignorance they were often cruelly wronged. Essentially, mentally handicapped persons were displaced individuals, and their lack of acknowledgement by society was reflected in the environments they were forced to inhabit. Today, there is a spirit of inclusiveness that supports Community Living arrangements for persons with developmental disabilities. The hope of Community Living is to foster: individuality, dignity, privacy, and personal responsibility.

At the root of Architecture is sensitivity to social concerns. The design proposal in this thesis centers on creating a supportive housing network, within community park systems, that will facilitate the integration process of persons with developmental disabilities, as well as other disadvantaged groups, into the often unreceptive mainstream community.

The challenge will be to create a healing environment, not in a “curative” sense, rather as a sense of inclusion and social development, within this micro-community and to extend that to the community at large. Opportunity exists for urban green spaces to provide areas for gardening that can be used to enhance community interaction.

CHAPTER 1:
THE URBAN PARK

SUMMARY

Maps are important artifacts for understanding history, not only for what they record, also how they record it. Maps are complex cultural creations that are key, in this section, in understanding the attitudes and outcomes of the city-nature relationship for Toronto. Chapter one focuses on the urban park and the condition of natural systems within Toronto.

Section 1.1 uses mappings and research to illustrate the importance of certain natural features to the initial Euro-American settlement of Toronto. They are then used to show how, during the modern period, there was contamination, alteration, and isolation of natural systems within the city.

Section 1.2 focuses on a set of parks that are part of the lost Garrison Creek ravine system. Included in this section are discussions surrounding Brown+Storey Architects proposals to link the open spaces, and to re-visit the environmental benefits of the former watershed site.

Section 1.3 introduces a proposal to further extend Brown+Storey's ideas by visioning the park as a multifunctional place, where a housing-infrastructure for marginalized groups can be incorporated. Also discussed are various benefits of such a multi-faceted approach to revitalization of park systems, the appropriation of public-park space for supportive housing, and the use of gardens as tools for reconnecting marginalized groups with the communities they are part of.

1.1 TORONTO: DEVALUATION OF NATURAL SYSTEMS IN THE CITY

Figure 1.1-1
Drawing of the Unsettled Site of Toronto 1793

MORPHOLOGY

Twelve thousand years of aboriginal settlement in the Toronto area had little impact on its natural landscape. One reason for this was that the population of Aboriginal peoples was low compared to today's urbanized cities. Also, more importantly, it was because of the relationship the native people had with the natural world. Within less than a hundred years of European settlement, the landscape that had remained natural for so long was very different. Population-growth, new technologies, and a mindset of human priority and dominance towards nature have played a part in the subsequent condition and mistreatment of nature within the city that is so apparent today.

Undoubtedly, the development of a city is greatly influenced by its natural site and the natural elements it contains that direct its growth. This plays a most important role when the city is first founded, and during its first moves towards expansion. Subsequently, the physical features of the land have less of an impact as the city grows, especially when the most significant growth happens in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. Toronto is no exception to this; the morphology of its area was crucial in the initial shaping of the city, but as the city grew, these natural elements became compromised and less visible within the consciousness of the city.

James Careless, Canadian Historian and author of various books on the history of Toronto, describes the vital geographic features that were significant to the settlement of Toronto. These features include the, *"Accessible [and sheltered] lake harbour, the low easily traversed shoreline, and the gate position on a passage through the midst of southern Ontario.*[1]*"*

During the last Ice Age, some thirteen-thousand years ago, water from Lake Iroquois flooded the southern part of the Toronto area[2]. Later it receded to what we see as the current shore of Lake Ontario. This recession left a low-lying level clay plain that rose slowly into a steep cliff, also known as the former Iroquois Lake shoreline, roughly along Davenport Road, beyond which the surface features are more varied. Two large rivers (the Don and Humber Rivers) and a number of creeks drain the area and cross the plain in a north-south manner. A sandy peninsula, to the south,

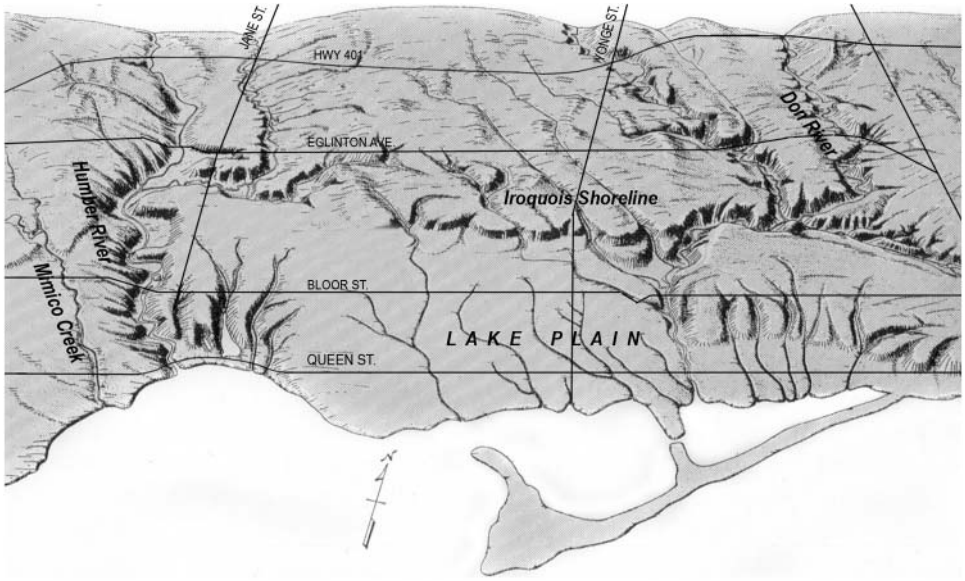


Figure 1.1-2
3D-Diagram of the Physiographic Features of the Original Toronto Site.

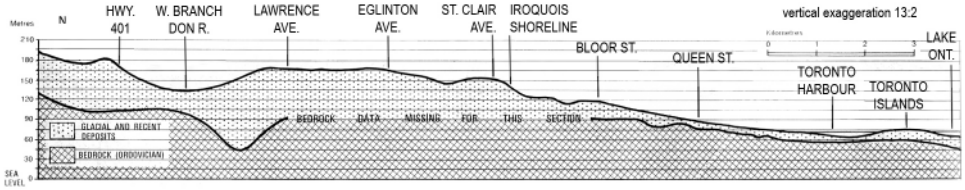


Figure 1.1-3
Cross-section of Toronto Along Yonge Street from North to South.

provides for a shielded bay and harbour.

Donald Kerr, author of The Changing Face of Toronto –a Study in Urban Geography, describes what Toronto looked like when the founders of the city first approached the site in the late eighteenth century: *"two elements dominated the scene: the placid, almost completely enclosed bay; and the densely forested frame of the peninsula and mainland…the till plain beyond were clothed with a dense and trackless forest… natural meadows stretched along the lower Don… streams were rich in fish*.[3].." Most of this natural scene is now replaced with a dense city and urban sprawl.

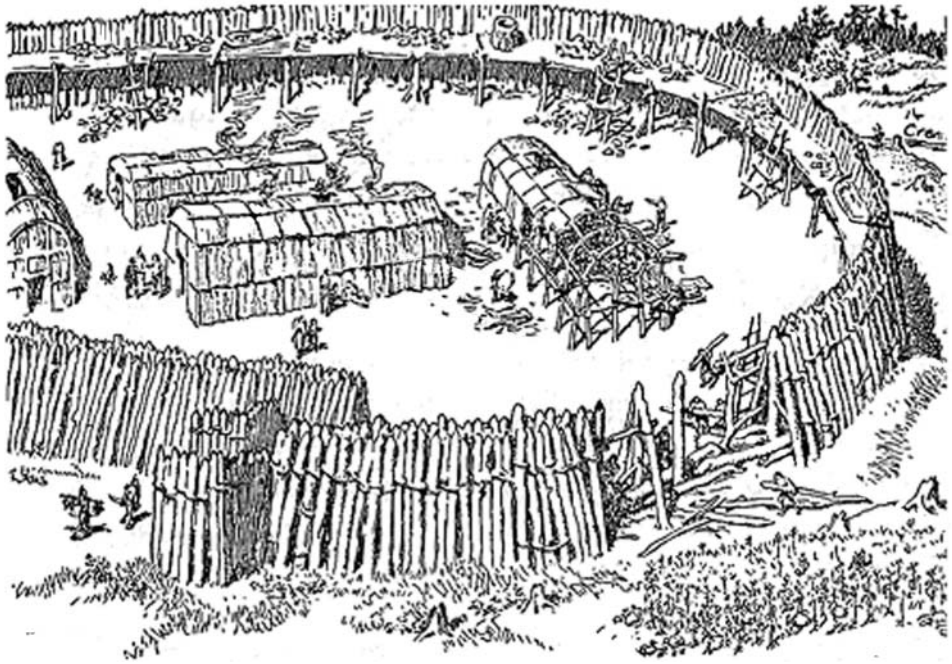


Figure 1.1-4
Drawing of an Iroquois Village
1793

At first, the palesade walls may suggest an "othering" or exclusion of nature. Actually, the walls were a response to natural elements, such as to protect against harsh winds during the winter, and to keep vermin and intruders out.

BEFORE EUROPEAN SETTLEMENT

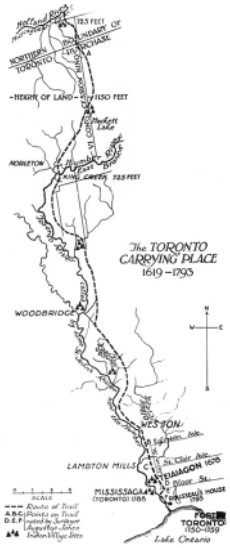
The history of human habitation of the Toronto region begins following the retreat of the Laurentide ice sheet, some 11,000 – 12,000 years ago, where there were up to a few dozen families living together in the nomadic lifestyle[4]. It was not until at least 500 A.D. that rudimentary farming began in the region[5]. The population of these native bands of people, compared to today's urbanization in the area, was so small that any negative effects to the environment, as a result of human occupation (such as forest clearing), were localized, low-intensity, and non-permanent.

By the mid-seventeenth century, the native Iroquois Indians had established highly organized communities in the area – planting the very first seeds of modern Toronto[6]. The village in the Toronto area, called Teiaiagon, was first inhabited by the Seneca, later by the Mississauga, and was strategically located near the mouth of the Humber River[7]. The Iroquois lifestyle reflected close connection with the land and was heavily influenced by the seasons. For example, as sedentary agriculturists, they chose to plant crops in flood plains already devoid of trees, as opposed to the large scale clearing of land for farming that occurred when Euro-Americans first settled there.

Another response to the natural landscape that influenced the location of the Iroquois settlement, quite relevant to the beginning of Toronto, was the use of the Humber River. The wooded entrance of the river was the beginning of an ancient native trail -the "Toronto Carrying Place". The Carrying Place was a 50km portage that saved the traveler who wanted to go from Lake Ontario to the Upper Lakes a detour of 100km. During a time when early exploration, trading, and traveling within Canada's interior was by canoe and trail, the Carrying Place acted as a convenient shortcut from the mouth of the Humber River (or Lake Ontario) to the Georgian Bay. Thus Teiaiagon, being a junction of land and waterways, was an important trading post for: the Natives from the North via the Toronto Carrying Place (and surrounding Great Lakes region); the French from the East by way of the St. Lawrence River; and the English from the South by Lake Ontario[8].

Figure 1.1-5
Map of the Toronto Carrying Place
1619-1793

The Toronto Carrying Place, a natural trail used by the natives connecting Lake Ontario to the Georgian Bay, was soon replaced by a land trail which cut through the natural landscape in an indiscriminate straight line



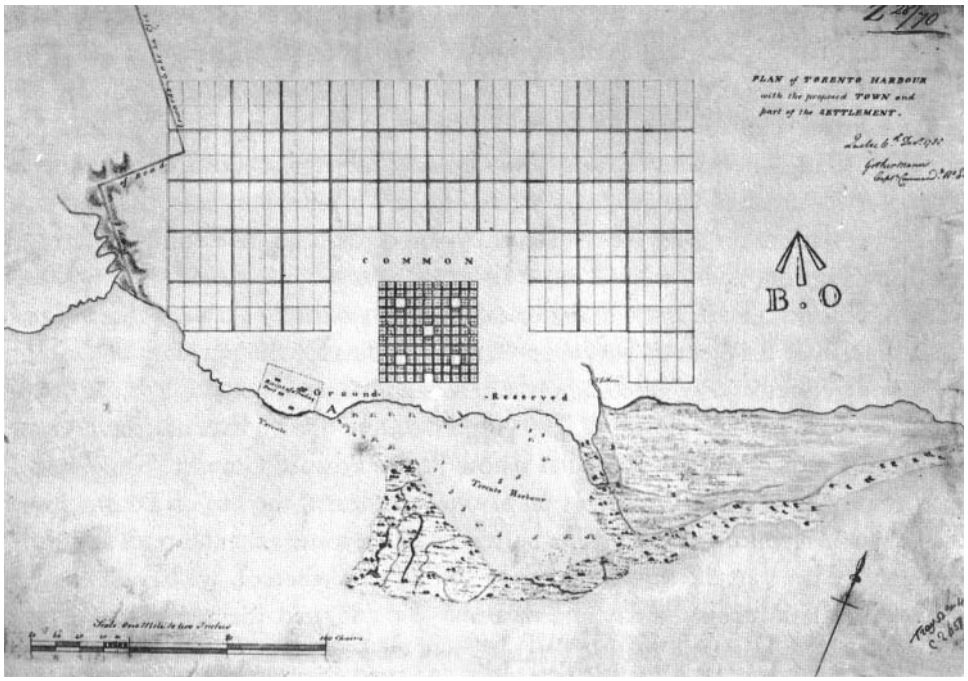


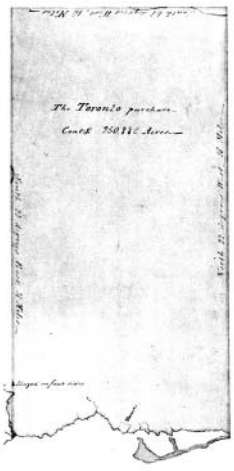
Figure 1.1-6
Gother Mann's "Plan of Toronto"
1788

SITE SELECTION

In the mid-eighteenth century, when the English arrived to establish a fort, as did the French prior to them, they recognized the significance of the natural transportation route (the Toronto Carrying Place) as much as the natives who were still using it. Furthermore, with a growing threat from the Americans across the border, the British felt a pressing need to establish and colonize their side of the lake. Both factors were key in the decision to found a town at the Toronto site.

Figure 1.1-7 shows the outline of the Toronto purchase in 1787. Careless, in Toronto to 1918, writes that it covered *"a fourteen-mile stretch along the lakefront, from present day Scarborough westward past the Humber to Etobicoke, and inland reaching back some twenty-eight miles.*[9]*."* It is interesting to note the manner in which Toronto is depicted on the map. Other than vague references to some waterways, the purchase is shown as an abstract piece of land –vacant of any defining natural elements or topography. This is not to say that this map is clearly indicative of a devaluation of the land or lack of concern for what lies within these boundaries in itself. Rather, it is indicative of a lack of knowledge of what lay within the purchased boundaries since a survey had not yet been done.

Figure 1.1-7
Map of the Toronto Purchase
1787



The first official survey (and military reconnaissance) of Toronto was carried out by an officer of the Royal Engineers, Captain Gother Mann. Figure 1.1-6 illustrates his plan that *includes "a central square containing military and government buildings surrounded by a common, which in turn, is enclosed to the north, east and west by a residential area*[10]." Eric Arthur, Canadian Architect, writer and educator, in his widely recognized work, Toronto: No Mean City, describes the common green space as reflecting Victorian preferences for manicured pastoral scenery, rather than the natural landscape that existed there[11]. He writes, *"The idea of public buildings in a neat British square separated in perpetuity from the residential area by a green common with shade trees and sheep quietly grazing is quite delightful, but fantastic and unrealistic when one considers the rising terrain and the deeply penetrating ravines.*[12]" As well, it is interesting to note how the two largest

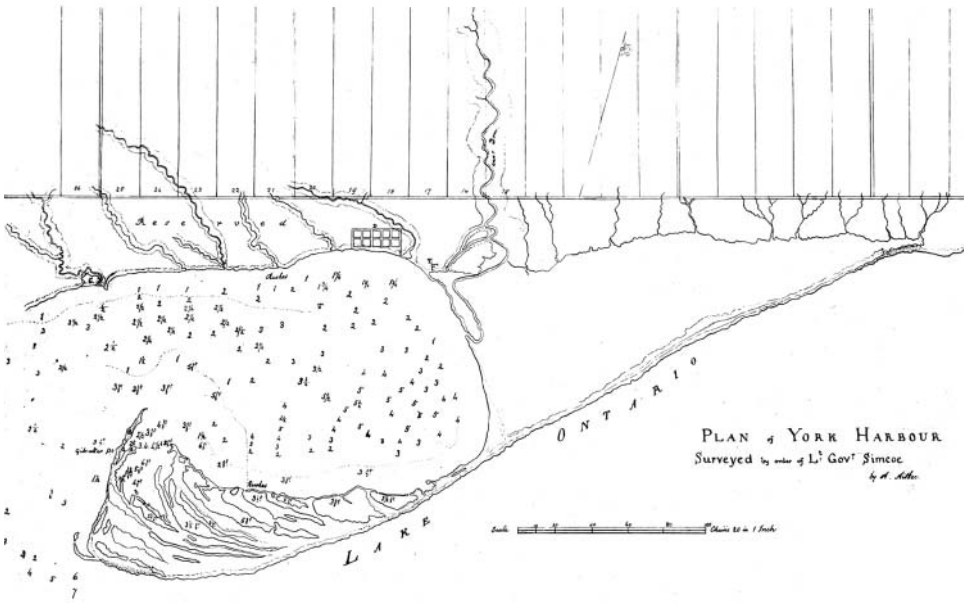


Figure 1.1-8
Aitkin's "Plan of York Harbour"
1793

and influencing rivers (the Don and the Humber Rivers) are depicted. Only the mouth and the very beginnings of the Don are shown. The Humber River (and the Toronto Carrying Place) is illustrated as a road.

A more considered plan, the first to be implemented for Toronto, was created in 1793 by Alexander Aitkin, the first Survey-General of Upper Canada[13]. The same grid was used, but its placement responded to the major rivers and was within the flat lying land bounded by the Iroquois shoreline. Arthur writes, *"Where the two plans of 1788 were grandiose and impractical [one is referring to Mann's plan], Aitkin's was practical, but indescribably mean and unimaginative*[14]." He further describes it as consisting of ten square city blocks, *"bounded by George, Parliament, Duke and Front Streets, with the areas from Parliament to the Don and from Peter to the Humber, set aside for government and military purposes*[15]*."*

North of what is now Queen Street, John Graves Simcoe, founder of York and first Lieutenant Governor of Upper Canada, made provision to set aside 100 acre lots as enticements to attract wealthy officials to leave their settled areas and become pioneers once more, settling in the wilderness of York[16]. Kerr writes, *"A rigid grid pattern was imposed, no attempt being made to conform to the terrain… thus, when later extended, the north-south roads met the Iroquois shoreline head on while the east-west roads crossed ravines, creeks and marshes*[17]."

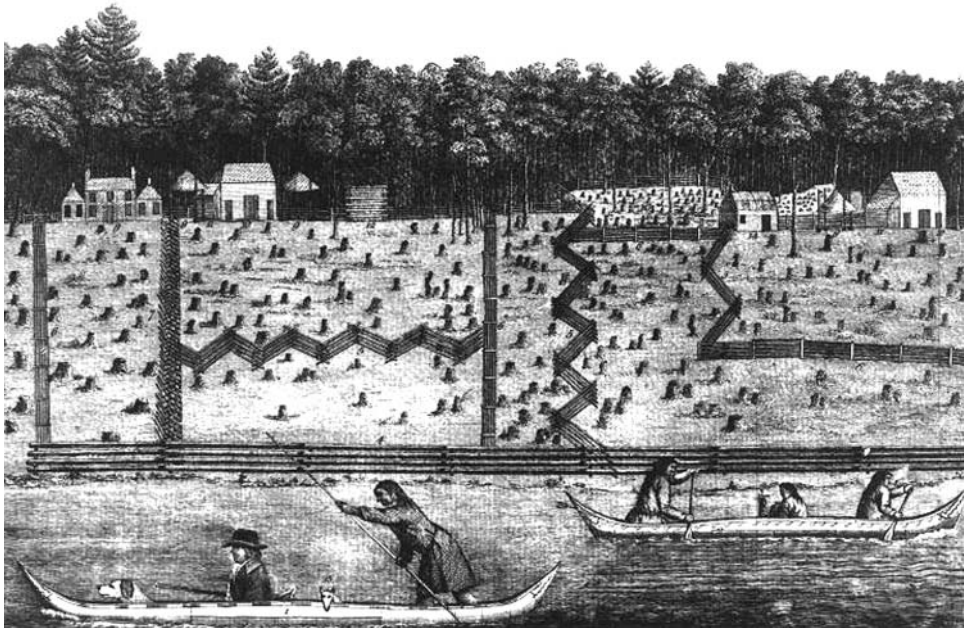


Figure 1.1-9
A Newly Cleared Riverside Farm
1791

GROWING CITY – FIRST GENERATIONS OF EURO-AMERICAN SETTLERS

The effects of human habitation on the natural environment ceased to be localized with the beginnings of agriculturalism, and subsequent urbanization, by the first Euro-American settlers. Simcoe was eager to populate the new town, and the offered land enticements worked. Quickly, many people came to settle the area. It was a chance to own large tracts of land and have a piece of something that many could not have had where they were emigrating from. The pioneer farmer's first task was to clear their land so that a home could be built (with minimum legal dimensions) and crops could be planted[18].

Like the natives before them, the new settlers benefited from the natural fertility of the land. The region had longer and warmer growing seasons than the rest of Canada, and received regular and plentiful rainfall[19]. Unlike the natives, who planted in meadows and fields, the farmers believed lands that were already flat and open to be infertile. Thus, they preferred to clear out areas occupied with dense trees with the belief that they contained better soil[20].

Greening our Watersheds, a collaboration of work and discussion amongst planners, biologists, engineers, heritage preservationists, municipal elected members, residents, and farmers of the Etobicoke and Mimico Creek community, is a document funded by the Toronto Regional Conservation Authority, which provides the history and plans to develop an ecosystem-based management strategy for the watersheds. In it is a description of the effect of the early settlers on the area:

"In the name of what was perceived as progress, and of a vision of transforming the land into a pastoral garden of plenty, the settlers waged what was commonly described as a 'war' against the wilderness. Land was valued primarily for its capacity to sustain agricultural activity. Timber was initially a by-product of agricultural land clearance, but was later a major industry of its own.[21]"

Aside from the need to plant crops, trees were also cleared to provide lumber for fuel and town building. The effects of this clearing, and the development of water-driven mills (and dams),

Figure 1.1-10
Phillpotts' "Plan of York"
1818

were particularly pronounced when assessing the creeks in and around Toronto. As early as 1810, the first saw mills began appearing along waterways. The effects of deforestation and draining of wetlands for farming caused flooding in the spring and droughts in the summer. The rivers and creeks were often used for dumping of waste.

"As a result, by the 1850's, the salmon that had first entered the Great Lakes from the Atlantic Ocean millennia before had disappeared…. The creeks were regarded not as natural streams but as open sewers, in which it was considered acceptable to dump both sewage and industrial effluent. They were treated like –and classified by municipalities as –public utilities.[22]".

Consequently, the streams, the city's main water supply, were replaced by wells (1825) due to pollution of the streams from industry and sewage[23].

More than twenty-five years after the Toronto purchase, Toronto looked in part like Aitkin had planned in 1793. Extension beyond the ten blocks was inevitable, and the town grew by adding larger squares west, in the same fashion, *"imposed on the landscape, of utilitarian, straight-run streets, showing small concern for any natural lies of land.*[24]" The plan of York, above, as drawn by Lieutenant Phillpotts in 1818, shows the development.

Richard Baine and Lynne McMurray, authors of Toronto: An Urban Study, explain a few reasons for the westward direction of expansion: Firstly, because the eastern edge of the old town bordered the swampy lands around the mouth of the Don River. Secondly, because of the cleared and pleasant lakeshore that reached between the old town and the garrison at Garrison Creek. The third reason was because of the directional development of the main roads in York –both Yonge and Lot Streets (now Queen Street) were west of the original town.

The depiction of the map (Figure 1.1-10) is once again telling of the relationship that the developing town had with the natural environment. The dark rendering of wooded land, verses the

open town and farm land that had been cleared, shows a carving out of the town from the natural landscape, with both being two clearly distinguishable elements. The lakeshore, Toronto Island, the mouth of the Don River, and various rivers that flowed through Toronto, were still in their natural state. And although development at the time still lay between the Don River and the Garrison Creek, the first signs of continuing past them are seen through bridges that allowed roads to continue straight in the direction they were intending to go to. Along with this is the connection of paths leading out of town through the heavily forested areas. Man-made Yonge Street, in some ways, replaced the natural Toronto Carrying Place as the primary route to the north (to the Georgian Bay)[25]. Regardless of the topography of the land, it was a path that cut straight through the natural terrain. Queen Street did the same, only that it was leading toward the Niagara region.

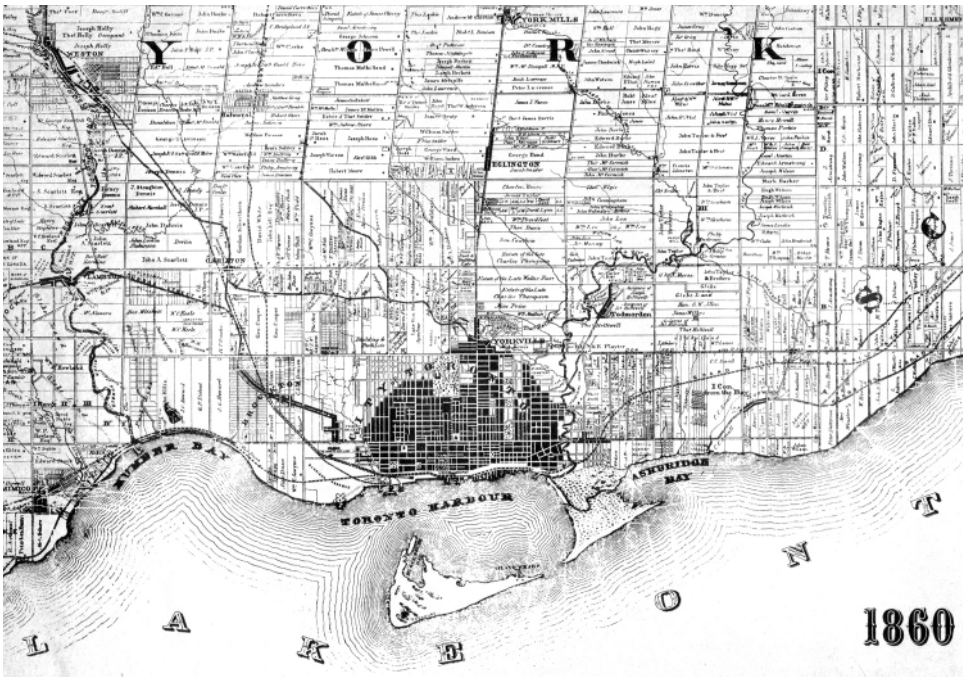


Figure 1.1-11
Part of Tremaine's Map of Toronto 1860

1850 – 1900: SUB-DIVISION, INDUSTRIALIZATION, AND THE GROWING CITY

During the second half of the nineteenth century, there were many changes to Toronto's landscape. Like other urbanized towns during this period, Toronto was reshaped in great part because of: expansion, industrialization, and the railway.

Once again, examining maps of the era illustrates many threads to the story of the relationship between city and nature. There are some strong differences between the 1818 Phillpotts' map shown earlier and the 1860s Tremaine Map (Figure 1.1-11). The most evident change being the original northern park lots, owned by the wealthy, stretching from Queen Street to Bloor Street, that were being subdivided by their owners with plans for many houses to be built on these smaller more numerous lots. This subdivision extended beyond the Humber and Don River, which previously bounded the Toronto site.

Baine and McMurry explain that, as the city grew with indiscriminate development over many natural features, the need for allocating space for public parks was overlooked[26]. They write: *"[with] the availability of large tracts of undeveloped land north of Queen Street, the townsfolk felt no need to set aside areas of parkland in the town itself. The absence of open-space areas in downtown Toronto today can be attributed in large part, to this former shortsightedness*[27]." Careless provides other reasons why this occurred: because, *"in an earlier era, parks had hardly mattered, when the harbourside was easily at hand for any casual stroller, fisherman or boater, the wooded, sandy peninsula beyond gave still more rambling room, and the open countryside above the city was just a walk away*[28]."

By the 1860s, as can be seen in Figure 1.1-11, the unfarmed countryside was further away and less accessible to those in the city. And the *"wooded and sandy peninsula"* that Careless speaks of had become an isolated island after a storm in 1858 created the Eastern gap, cutting off access by land, but increasing access by ships (Later, in 1927, concrete piers made this permanent)[29].

Another change to the shape of the city was along the lakeshore. Previously, Front

Figure 1.1-12
Gascard's View of Toronto
1873

The railway isolated the waterfront and greatly limited public access and use of the waterfront.

Street was the lakefront. In the mid-ninetieth century, landfill extended the city into the lake. Baine and McMurry explain that *"by the 1840s, with the city's continuing growth as a major port, and the development of larger vessels, wharves had to be extended and more and more land was reclaimed along the waterfront. Public land disappeared as businesses crowded into the waterfront area. A decade later, the situation was aggravated by the building of railways*[30]*."*

In the case of Toronto, the most significant effects of the railway were felt along the waterfront area, where different railways vied for terminal space and access to port facilities for shipping purposes. It is a classic example of how economic interests, as opposed to concern for providing natural public space in cities, took precedence. In the early 1800s, the residents of Toronto enjoyed carriage rides along the harbour[31]. Soon after, in the decades that followed, access to the harbour became increasingly difficult. The picturesque shoreline enjoyed by the public, decades before, was now quite different. As early as the 1830s, the city began voicing concerns over the increasing private occupation of the waterfront.

Kerr concludes that, as development of railway and port facilities grew, stronger efforts to protect the waterfront for public use grew weaker. He writes*, "the physiography of the site allowed for the nurturing of a close relation between the encroaching railways and the expanding port… at the same time, through an appalling lack of governmental planning, the city was denied the orderly development that would have given its residents space for commerce and recreation alike.*[32]"

At first, in 1840, the Crown made a grant to the city on condition that within three years, a hundred foot wide esplanade would be built on the reclaimed waterfront land; in an effort to secure the public aspect of the harbour. Due to indecision and delays the city eventually, in the 1850s*, "succumbed to the growing pressure of railway interests and destroyed the whole concept of the esplanade as a carriage drive along the lakeshore by granting the southern 40 feet of its 100 feet to the Grand Trunk Railway as a right of way for its tracks.*[33]" The downtown of Toronto, void of natural

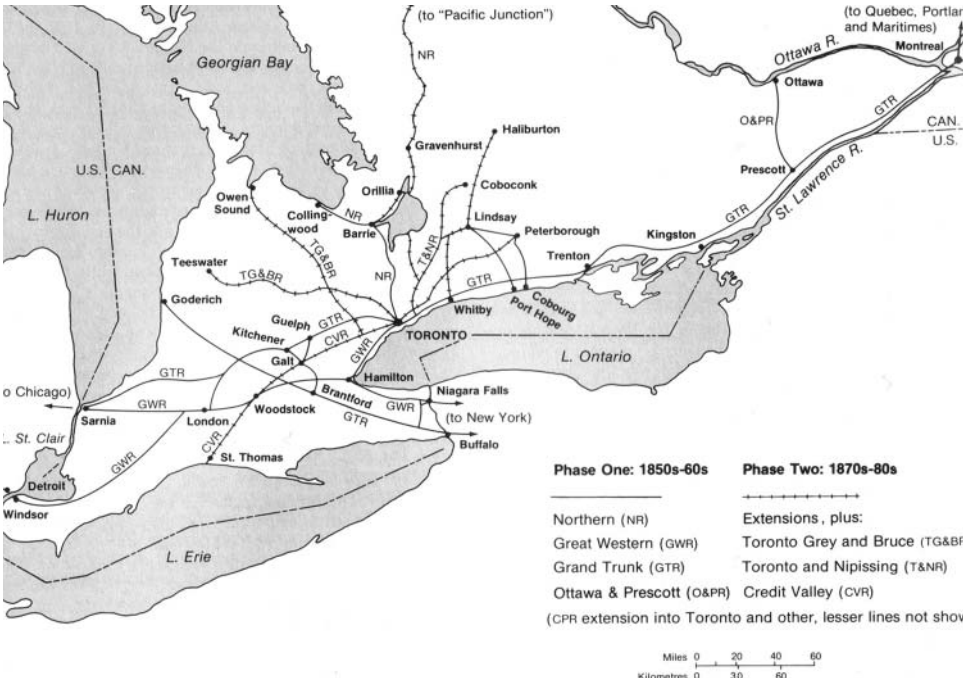


Figure 1.1-13
Toronto's Main Rail Links
1851-86

public spaces, was now also cut-off from the waterfront. The success of the Grand Trunk Railway only further encouraged other companies to seek similar grants by the city.

The railway had far greater impact than the ships that sailed the waterways because of the machinery and technology that it required. The 1850s were the beginning of railway development. By 1856, tracks were laid from Toronto to Bradford, north, and the Grand Trunk railroad to Montreal. With the construction of roads and railways, the city soon became an industrial node and centre for many converging routes. Forested valleys, because of their low grades, were used by railways to enter the city, and *"in more recent years, to avoid cutting wide swaths through densely built-up areas, superhighways have begun to encroach upon them.*[34]*"*

By the end of the nineteenth century, Toronto was a rapidly growing urbanized city in Canada. There was a definite effect of this urbanization on the rivers and waterfront as a result. While Industry and the railway lines brought an increasing number of people and commerce to Toronto*, "dumping of landfill both from and for building sites in the valley lands, and along the waterfront, became an issue*.[35]"

Greening our Watersheds explains many of the effects urbanization had on the rivers and forests; during this time, deforestation continued at a rapid pace. Creeks continued to be used as sewers by the growing town and industries. As a result, uncontrolled runoff was making its way into the creeks, and consequently, into the water supply. The resulting smell and pollution along the creeks became so common and unhealthy that sanitary sewers were increasingly promoted*. "Within a generation, growing concern about public health and the connection between poor water quality and disease moved municipal authorities through the steps of securing an improved and safe water supply…*[36]*"*

During this period the distribution of water was looked at through the formation of the

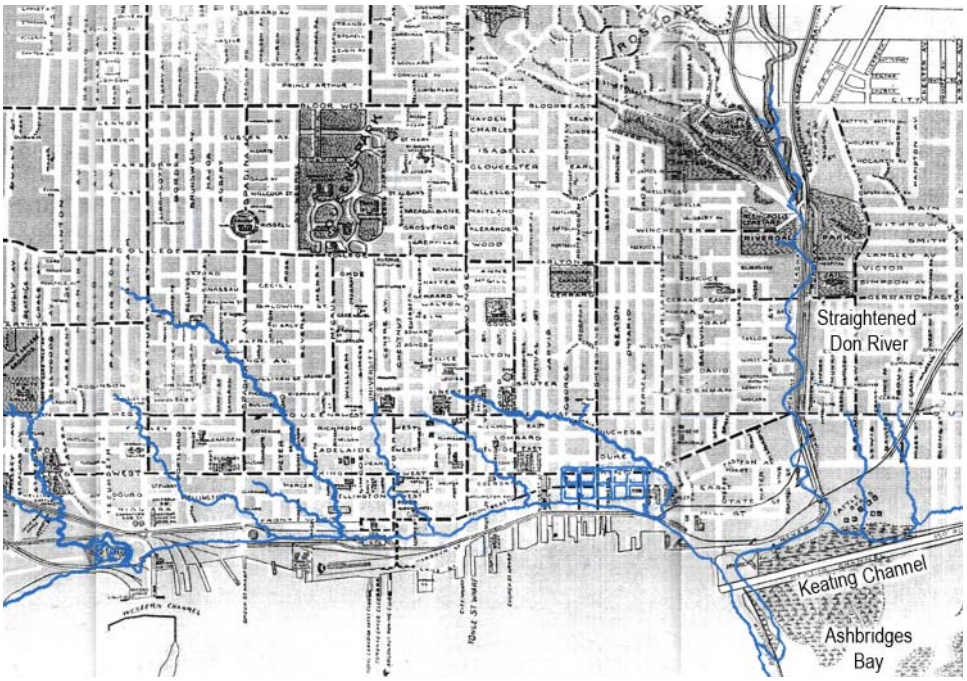


Figure 1.1-14
C.J. Pilkey "Plan of Toronto" Overlayed with 1793 Aitken's map.
1903

Of special interest is the change in shoreline and the filling-in and altering of the city's water-ways.

Toronto Light and Water Company, which in 1843 began distributing water to households through wooden pipes[37]. This proved to be a rudimentary attempt. Water treatment techniques were not as developed as they are today and much of the water provided was still contaminated. As pollution increased, the pipes were extended further out into the lake. Also, the intake for the wooden pipes, submerged in Lake Ontario, would "*very often, after a major storm… be uprooted and left floating on the top of the water*[38]*."*

Dealing with sewage disposal and contaminated water supplies thus became a serious problem faced by the city during the latter half of the nineteenth century. The most accessible and convenient source of fresh water, Lake Ontario, was being increasingly polluted by sewage and was now the source of sickness and epidemics. Kerr describes how in the 1830's, sewers were built along the main north-south streets to carry waste into the lake. He writes, *"by the middle of the century, sewage had accumulated to a depth of 2 feet for at least 300 feet out from the shore.... the dredging of some of the slips between the wharves had to be done three times each season… when conditions became unbearable, the sewers were simply extended farther into the bay.*[39]*"*

Kerr further explains that by 1890, the pollution in the eastern part of the Toronto Bay (Ashbridges Bay) was so severe that reclamation was unavoidable and necessary. Manure from Northern farms and pollution from mills and distilleries located along the rivers drained into the lake.

The creation of Keating Channel was the outcome of the plans for reclamation -becoming the new mouth of the Don River. As can be seen in Figure 1.1-14, *"Around 1890 some 2 miles of the lower Don were straightened when three big meanders and two small ones were cut off mainly to create easy access for railways to the centre of the city. The marsh, known as Ashbridges Bay, was filled in and became industrial land.*[40]*"* The subsequent gaining of area for port facilities and industrial land was a by product of this project.

Figure 1.1-15
Highway 401

TWENTIETH CENTURY

Technology and science have undoubtedly changed the landscape of society. They have allowed for speed and efficiency and the development of practical means to overcome limitations of distance and time. As such, the twentieth century has experienced an incredible amount of urbanization within cities throughout the world; Toronto is no exception to this. The ability for such widespread growth is in part due to Technology.

Dr. Ursala Franklin, a Canadian physicist and activist, in The Real World of Technology, a book based on her talks given at the annual Massey lecture series (which address themes of national scope by prominent Canadian figures), defines technology as: a system, a practice, and most importantly as a mindset, which she says has corrupted the traditional social bearings of community. She argues that prior to the industrial revolution; objects were created with care, in *holistic processes*, with technology merely being a tool in the process. This is in contrast to mass-produced technology, from the post-industrial-revolution period, that is used in highly controlled *production-settings*. She argues that the focus on individual parts, as opposed to a holistic view, has created a dissociation and isolation to a larger context –whether that is from each other or the natural world. Where, *"the new patterns, with their minute description of detail, their divisions of labour, and their breakdown of processes into small prescriptive steps, extended quickly from manufacturing into commercial, administrative, and political areas."* [41]

Toronto author and cultural journalist, Robert Fulford, author of Accidental City writes, *"In general, however, the effect of specialization was deadening. It eliminated spontaneity, and swept aside the individual, small-scale enterprise that made cities exciting.*[42]*"* He further explains that many activities were subject to this –including engineering, and planning, and gives the following example: *"Highway engineers unthinkingly developed the same single-minded commitment to efficiency, and to the belief that everything in nature must surrender to improved communication. All else was sentimentality and therefore discarded*[43]*."*

Figure 1.1-16
Aerial View of Toronto
(looking west)

Note how the Gardiner Expressway and rail lines create a barrier between Toronto and it's lakeshore.

Landscape Architect Michael Hough, author of City Form and Natural Processes (an ecological discussion of urban design), offers many examples of "utility" and "quick progress" taking precedence over the natural environment. He describes how inventions such as the car and urban sprawl have replaced much of the natural landscape within the city.

One example of this effect given by *Ian Malczewski, writer for* Spacing, a Toronto-based magazine that focuses on the city's urban landscape, is the Gardiner Expressway. Malczewski writes, *"The problem with the Gardiner is that it is a visual/psychological barrier between the downtown and the waterfront.[44]"* He describes how the lakeshore that was previously accessible across Lake Shore Boulevard became more isolated. Fulford also writes on this subject, *"It destroyed Sunnyside Beach Amusement Park, blocked off the Canadian National Exhibition, and cast a shadow over dozens of downtown streets[45]."*

"The 1950s to 1970s also saw the building of Highways 401, 409, and 427 under which the creeks were canalized, hidden from the view of the millions of people who unknowingly pass over them...much of the surface runoff (and pollutants like road salt) from these highways continue to drain directly to the creeks.[46]" -Greening our Watersheds

The increase of cars, streets and the highways allowed for ease of movement, which in turn allowed for large tracts of land to be developed, as well as connecting previously separate communities. As early as the late nineteenth century, many neighboring communities were annexed and absorbed by the city. The city continued to grow, and subdivisions were built on former agricultural land and in the 1930s and 1940s, over watersheds, sometimes on unstable ravine land. Many creeks were buried, land contours were altered, and low-lying wetlands were filled in. Sewers

Figure 1.1-17 (left)
Diagram of Toronto Highways

Figure 1.1-18 (right)
Aerial views of Farmland vs. Subdivisions.

Growing street and highway networks allowed for the building of new subdivisions over former farmland.

that were built to connect subdivisions created greater volume of runoff, which eventually found its way into creeks.

And when looking at sewage for the suburbs, Kerr writes, *"When local municipalities did build sewage-treatment plants, they tended to locate them on the Don and Humber rivers, into which the effluents of the overloaded installations were discharged.*[47]" Subdivisions also increased the amounts of paved surfaces, buildings, parking lots, and roads, replacing the natural water-retaining land surface, thereby increasing the volume and velocity of runoff. Hough writes, *"The lawn is a symbol, in effect, for everything that is wrong with our relationship to the land, an expression of human control over a natural diversity that extends worldwide.*[48]"

Figure 1.1-19
Flooding Caused by Huricane Hazel 1957

1957 - Hurricane Hazel

In the fall of 1954, an important event to the future of the natural environment in Toronto occurred –Hurricane Hazel. It was a storm that originated in the Caribbean, and made its way through the Carolinas and Mid-Atlantic States to Canada, hitting Toronto directly. There was massive flooding, especially in the newly developed suburbs, and was described by one volunteer fireman as *"a gigantic flood with smashed houses and uprooted trees bobbing like corks, with everything going down the river so fast. Houses crashing into the sides of other houses, people everywhere screaming. And then you couldn't even hear the screams anymore.*[49]*"* Thousands were left homeless, and eighty-one people were killed. This storm changed the attitude towards planning in the city and mobilized the need for managing the city's rivers and watershed areas.

Prior to Hurricane Hazel, development along and within Toronto ravines were unrestricted and included structures such as: houses, apartment buildings, factories, and roads -the flooding caused by the hurricane destroyed much of these. John R. Miron, research associate for the Centre of Urban and Community Studies at the University of Toronto, writes, *"As a result, all land in ravines and other floodplain areas were declared "off limits" for development*[50]*."* After Hurricane Hazel, the Metropolitan Toronto and Region Conservation Authority was formed, and ever since it has been acquiring ravine lands for recreation and conservation purposes as public land.

Fulford and Hough explain the significance of the ravines to the imagination of Toronto. Fulford writes, *"a ravine provides a Torontonian's first glimpse of something resembling wilderness… as unruly as a child's mind, the ravine becomes the ideal site for Toronto dreams*[51]*"* Hough writes that Toronto has an *"unfortunate tradition of concealing the reasons that it was originally settled*[52]*"* –namely the Humber River, and also the role the Don River had in shaping the city.

Fulford further describes treatment of the city's creeks and rivers and why they are invisible

to the consciousness of Torontonians. He explains that because the city expanded it's grid beyond the original Aitkin *plan, "ignoring the river valleys and ravines or obliterating them with highways and landfill*[53]*",* that this is the reason why Toronto seems flat, topographically uninteresting, and is the reason why most people have difficulty physically accessing and seeing natural systems in the city.

Figure 1.1-20
Satellite Image of Toronto
2002

TODAY

Today, the many maps of Toronto each reveal a different layer of understanding of this complex city. There are maps showing many types of information: roads, addresses, census information, subway and bus routes, the underground PATH system, hidden and visible infrastructural elements, resources, and so on.

Looking at most modern day maps of Toronto, alongside its first maps, shows many differences. The growth of Toronto is clear. It is far more built-up and dense. The street system is more complex and extensive. There are highways and rail links that cut through the city (isolating the waterfront and other natural elements). Also, as will be expanded upon subsequently, there are clear changes to the waterfront edge and amount of park/ natural spaces within the city.

Figure 1.1-21
Map of Toronto
2006

This map shows only a few of the many complex layers that are a part of the City of Toronto today.

Figure 1.1-22
Aerial map of Toronto Overlayed with 1793 Aitkin Map.
2006

Of special interest is the extensive changes to the shoreline, erasure of many creek systems, the reclamation of the Ashbridge's Bay area, and creation of the Leslie Street Spit.

Waterfront

Some significant differences in today's geography of Toronto are the changes to the waterfront. The entire lakeshore has been extensively altered from its original natural state prior to Euro-American settlement. Some of these features have been discussed earlier in the chapter: namely that reclaimed land has extended the previous natural shoreline further out into the lake, giving it a hard edge; that the Port Industrial area replaced the swampy Ashbridges Bay area; and that the lower portion of the Don River has been reconstructed.

When looking at a current map of Toronto, another major change in its topography during the last century becomes clear -the creation of the Leslie Street spit or Tommy Thompson park. The spit, which reaches five kilometers into Lake Ontario, was created mainly of sand and debris from the city's construction sites. Fulford in Accidental City describes it as *"urban detritus – gigantic chunks of mangled concrete, discarded hydro-electric poles, whatever the city threw aside as it remade itself… a new urban wilderness*[54]*."* The area left to its own vices has turned into a conservation area occupied by many species of plants, birds, and other animals. It is ironic that the result of this "urban detritus" is the creation of, as Fulford terms it, a new "urban wilderness".

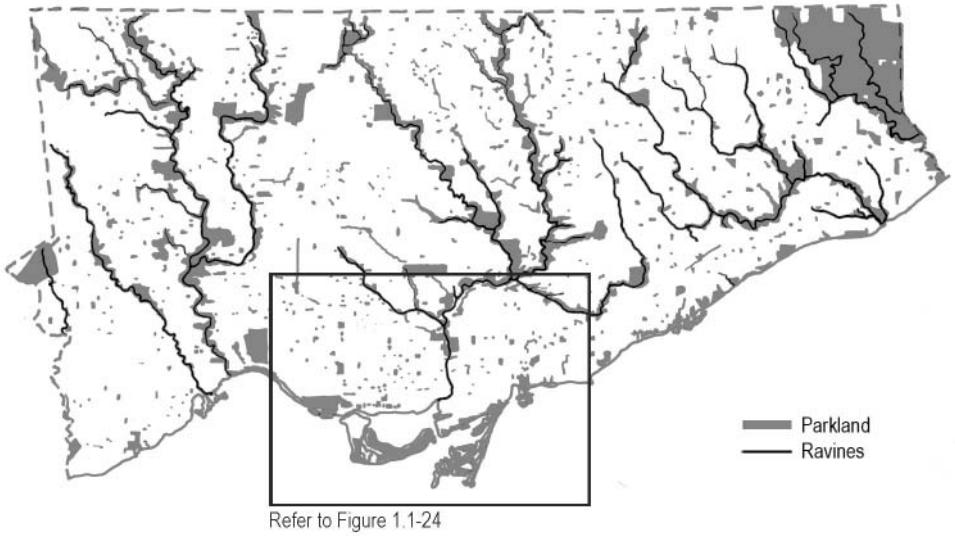


Figure 1.1-23
GTA Open Space Network Diagram
2006

Parks/ Natural spaces

Even as a constructed landscape, Tommy Thompson Park can still be seen as an exception to the inclusion of a large "natural" space, which is accessible, in the downtown area of Toronto. Fulford writes, *"For generations, the creation of downtown parks failed to appear on the city's agenda. In fact, no new park was created between the First World War and very recent times. Even in the relatively rich 1950s and 1960s, most of the parks department budget went into swimming pools and other recreational facilities across the city.*[55]" Vertical growth of office towers, made possible by metal framing and mechanized elevators, made downtown real estate expensive, and available land was used for development as opposed to using the green space as parks. Recognizing the lack of available funds for purchase of green space, Toronto's municipal government coveted parkland through development bonuses.

The small amount of parkland within the city that Fulford comments on is another observation that is easily made when looking at a map of the GTA today –that within the composite of grids and systems there is little awareness for natural green space within the city. When looking at Figure 1.1-23 of the open space network of Toronto, with built form and street grids removed, one can see the scattered parks and open spaces across the city. There is a clear link between many of the open spaces and the large ravine systems that mark the city. When looking at maps of the past, it becomes clear that some of the parks in the city, which appear not to be associated to existing ravines, were linked to ravines that once existed in the city, now as sets of disconnected, filled-in, flat pieces of land that exist in the form of urban parks.

As discussed earlier in this chapter, a serious problem faced by the city in the late nineteenth century was of water supply and sewage disposal. The poor treatment of the lake and waterways made alteration of the environment inevitable. The Keating channel was created, in response to the

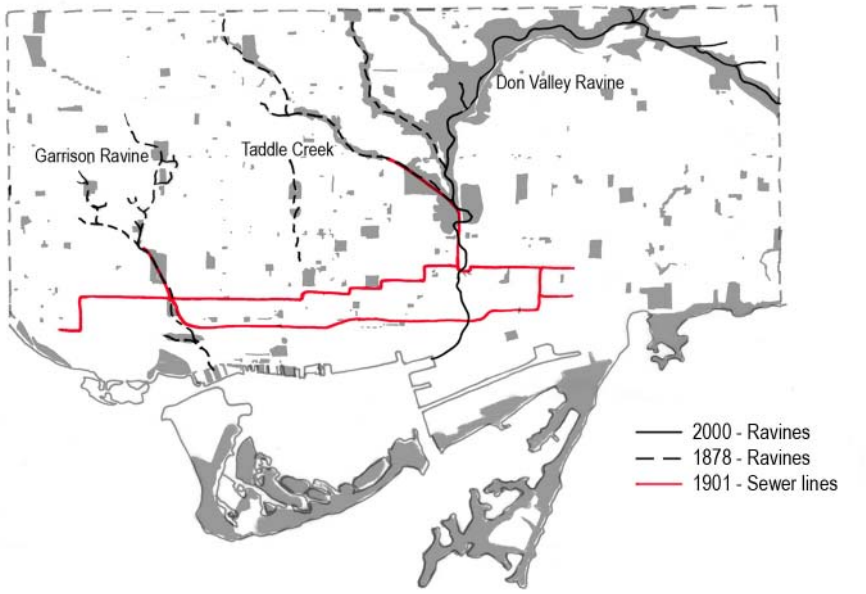


Figure 1.1-24
Diagram of the Toronto Open-space Network and Waterways Displaced by Infratsturcture
2006

pollution of the Ashbridges Bay marshland, and creeks in the area were filled in. The introduction of water infrastructure was necessary to ensure a safe and reliable water supply. As can be seen in Fig. 1.1-24 two major creeks, The Garrison Creek and Taddle Creek, were displaced by infrastructure constructed to deal with these issues.

The following section is a closer look at one of these lost creek systems –the Garrison Creek.

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1.2 GARRISON CREEK: THE CONDITION OF THE URBAN PARK

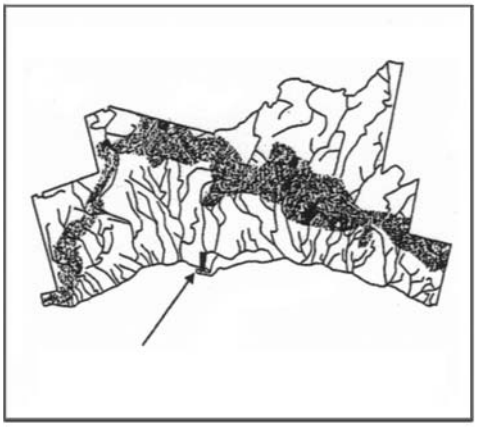


Figure 1.2-1 (left)
Diagram of Greater Toronto Bio-region with Garrison Creek Highlighted.

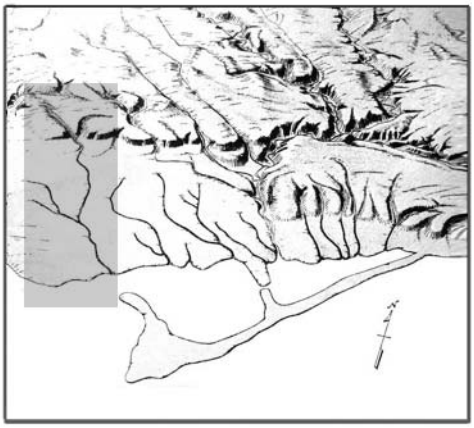


Figure 1.2-2 (right)
Diagram of Toronto's Physiographic Features with Garrison Creek Highlighted.
(before settlement)

BIRTH to DEATH

The Garrison creek, a founding landform for Toronto, essential to its early settlement, marked the city's first western limit. Its ravine, carved out thousands of years ago, ran from the ancient glacial shoreline of Lake Iroquois (now roughly Davenport road), through a sloping basin, out to Lake Ontario[1]. The creek was large enough to be navigated by canoe, and being a naturally protected water source was a likely choice by army engineers for the sitting of Fort York[2].

The first course of action taken by Lord Simcoe concerning the Garrison Creek was establishment of the Garrison post. The second step was the laying out of "100 acre Park Lots"[3]. These large narrow plots of land ran from Bloor Street to Queen Street West (formerly known as Lot Street). As described in earlier sections, they were meant as enticements to attract potential wealthy settlers. Although the lot boundaries ignored the influence of the ravine, estates built on these plots took into careful consideration the environment they were situated in. Homes were built along the ravine's higher banks to provide a view of Lake Ontario and of the ravine itself[4]. Being associated with prestige, major institutions, like Trinity College, also developed along the ravine[5].

Figure 1.2-3
Picture of the Former Trinity College 1856

South of Queen Street, Garrison Creek took on a different function. Many industries were sited along the ravine, especially close to the lake. As both settlement and industry increased, the Creek became polluted and was affecting the waters of Lake Ontario. The once fresh and healthy flowing stream became so contaminated that it soon became a health hazard known for its pungent fumes[6]. Eventually these conditions led to the creek being buried in the late 1880s in a ten-foot-diameter brick sewer; in order to provide

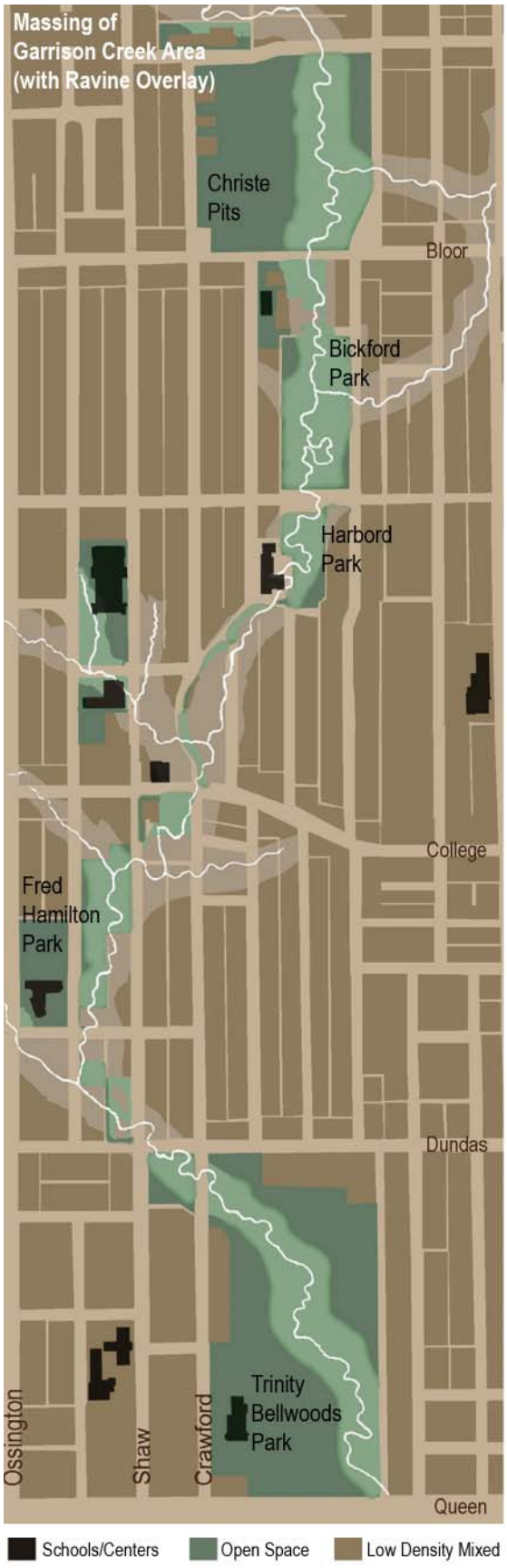


Figure 1.2-4 (left)
Massing of Garrison Creek Area Overlayed with Former Ravine Profile, 2000

This diagram shows the relationship between the burried Creek and the open-space network in the area (includes parks and school lots). Also of interest is the way some streets curve in response to the former creek.

Figure 1.2-5 (top, right)
Phillpott's Map of Toronto 1818

This map shows the Garrison Creek in its natural condition.

Figure 1.2-6 (middle, right)
Map of Toronto 1878

This map shows the co-existence of the city grid and the Ravine. Highlighted are the points where the Garrison Ravine system are bridged.

Figure 1.2-7 (bottom, right)
Map of Toronto 2007

This map shows the current Toronto grid. The ravine and creek are no longer visible after being burried underground.

Figure 1.2-8
Curving Road Along Ravine Path (Along Crawford Road)

The burried and unseen Garrison Ravine is the reason for this deviation in the street-grid. It is a response to the original curvature of the ravine, which is visually unconnected to its origin.

a safer method for disposing of stormwater and wastewater[7].

With the creek buried, there was still potential for the unbroken green spaces along the ravine course to be used as park lands. One such proposal aiming to utilize the park system was the Toronto Civic Guild scheme, introduced in 1908, which included the Garrison lands in a continuous green belt around the city that would *"eventually connect to the University of Toronto campus to the east and to High Park further west as central elements in a continuous city-wide parkway.*[8]*"* Up until the 1920s the city carried through with the policy of retaining Garrison ravine lands in order to maintain a continuous open space for the growing communities[9].

As park lot owners began to subdivide their properties, neighbourhoods began to flourish alongside the ravine. Many bridges were built along this course, acting as connections between the city-grid and the natural ravine path.

In the 1930's and 40's, during world war II, as other global concerns took precedence, the city's interest in maintaining parklands greatly diminished[10]. During this time of rapid growth for the city, the Garrison ravine was used as a convenient landfill site that allowed for further residential development. This led to the assimilation of the once continuous natural system into separate public parks divided by streets from the developing city grid. The many bridges, important in linking the ravine and the city-grid, were buried whole. No longer were nature and the city in a harmonious co-existence. *"As one piece of the ravine was filled, another maintained a ghost of the ravine profile, and another was sold off for new housing, a new school or a shopping center. The central, sustaining core of the Garrison community had been lost.*[11]*"*

Today, if one looks closely, there remains traces of the ravine which include: unconnected open spaces, curving roads, remnants of bridges, and depressions in the landscape.

Figure 1.2-9
Set of Buildings Turning Their Backs to Trinity-Bellwoods Park

Figure 1.1-10
Turned Backs to Open Spaces Along Ravine Path

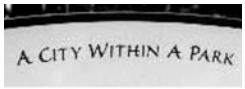
Figure 1.1-11
Reminent Depressions in Landscape Along Ravine Path

Figure 1.2-12
Prittie Ravine
1900

RESURRECTION –from memory into public consciousness

The traces left of the Garrison Ravine now exist as one of the city's "Discovery walks". The route, marked by signs, trace out the once prominent land form –now all but invisible. The "A City Within a Park" Mega-city logo, prominent on these signs, seems obscure while walking along this path, mostly on sidewalks and streets, from one urban park to the next. Even with good intentions of informing the public of the former flowing Creek, the fact remains that besides these markers there is little indication that such a powerful natural feature once flowed there; that nature remains beneath the city –unseen and unheard. It is in part because of this lack of perceptual immediacy (of this natural force), and the sensual experiences that went along with it (that used to exist visible to all) that the Garrison Creek Linkage Plan is meant to address. It was started as a community based initiative in the early 90's that was meant to raise awareness of the history and potential for the open-spaces left by the lost creek system[12]. James Brown and Kim Storey, of Brown + Storey Architects, were vital to this effort. They were commissioned by the Waterfront Regeneration Trust to examine the feasibility of creating stormwater retention ponds to store and filter stormwater; and to promote awareness in the 'left-over' open spaces along the route of the buried ravine[13]. This way, stormwater treatment, and cycles involved with water, could come to light in the eyes of city residents, raising awareness on the individual

Figure 1.2-13
Signs Along the Garrison Creek Discovery Walk



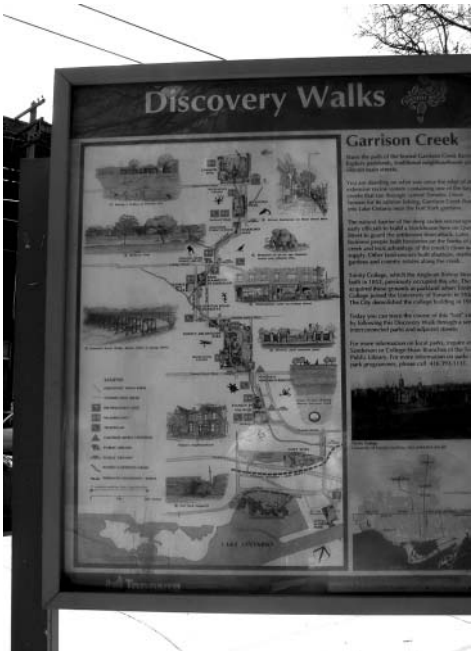


Figure 1.2-14
Prittie Ravine
1993

and the collective level, as to how they play a role in the health of the Lake and Toronto's water systems.

Herein lies potential for infrastructure to bring delight to necessity; where it is psychologically and physically necessary to make urban support structures more tangible and visible. With each proposed park-development focusing on different amenities, a multiplicity of sensations, with varying degrees of involvement, can be achieved. This diversity in localized conditions can enhance the current parks and empty lots that follow the path.

Imagining alternatives to the current water-infrastructure system through extensive urban mappings, was the approach taken by James Brown and Kim Storey. *"It is also a strategy of addressing the 'memory loss' that pervades contemporary urban maps... out of a process of recording the invisible layers and lost traces of the city emerges an agenda for their recovery.*[14]*"*

They documented layers of information: inventory of open spaces and original landform, urban patterns, present water collection systems, lighting, usage patterns by people, and so on. Examining the situation on many levels allows for a solution that is integrated, and more sustainable, enabling for more than one focus to respond to most issues.

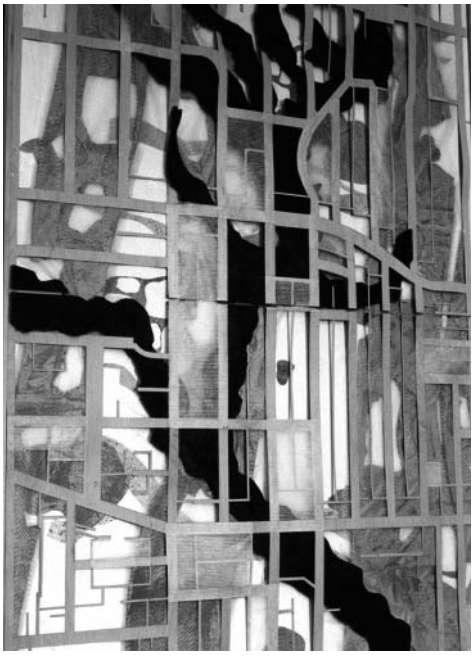


Figure 1.1-15
Brown + Storey Model of Layers of Garrison Creek Ravine System (Part of Vennice Biennale, 1996)

Figure 1.2-16 (top, left)
Sulli Crescent Bridge (looking west toward Shaw St) Early 1900s

Figure 1.2-17 (second, left)
Bridge over Bickford Ravine 1913

Figure 1.2-18 (third, left)
Second of two Crawford Street Bridges,1915

This bridge was burried intact with fill left by the construction of the Bloor Danforth subway in the early 1960s.

Figure 1.2-19 (fourth, left)
First of two Crawford Steet Bridges at Trinity-Bellwoods Park
1913

Figure 1.2-20(right)
Harbord Street Bridge 1915

It connected Bickford Park to Harbord Park. It was burried intact in the 1940's. All that remains above ground is its baulestrate. (see Fig 1.2-21)

INFRASTRUCTURE - CONNECTION BETWEEN NATURE AND CITY

"The connection or disconnection between urbanism and environmentalism –city and nature –is made by the human intervention of 'infrastructure'. How we choose to lay this ground work for the physical support of our daily lives can create a disjointed gap in our existence between our city and our natural environment. Or a considered infrastructure can knit these two incompatible elements together [15] *".*

–Nelda Rodger (Azure Architecture Magazine Editor-in-Chief)

An example of "connection" made through "considered infrastructure" was how, at one time in Toronto, the city co-existed with its ravines through bridges used to cross them. Once there were over twenty bridges passing over various points of the Garrison Ravine system[16]. As both landmarks and infrastructure, these bridges allowed for a layering of the city-grid over the open space network of the ravine –a co-existence or harmony if you will. Brown + Storey offer that these bridges provided both symbolic and actual connections between the two.

Subsequent usage of the ravine as a convenient and inexpensive landfill site that was filled-in and built over, reflects the changed mind-set towards the maintenance of such a natural system within the city. In an interview with Azure magazine James Brown and Kim Storey explain that, *"Burying of the creek reflected the Victorian attitude that nature's place is outside the city.*[17]*"* It is through a different kind of infrastructure that they had hoped to better the relationship between natural systems, seen as wild and separate from the city, and the current network of urban parks that exist in its place.

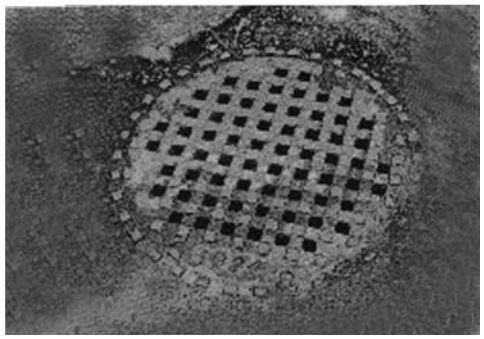


Figure 1.2-21, 1.2-22 (left & top, right)
Burried Harbord Street Bridge

The land surrounding the bridge was filled-in. All that remains exposed of the bridge is its baulestrade.

Figure 1.2-23 (right, bottom)
Sewer Grate Along Ravine Path

"The 'connected pond system' proposed here for the Garrison watershed could reverse this century-old trend of disconnection. The pond system would divert stormwater from the city's underground sewers into a community park system where it would be collected, stored, cleaned and reused. The pond system would be built in phases through a currently disconnected set of city parks that trace the original path of the creek and ravine to the shore of Lake Ontario –regenerating the open and hidden landscapes of Toronto into a vital and living part of people's experience of the city.[18]*"*
– James Brown & Kim Storey.

Communication consultant and architectural writer, Beth Kapusta writes about the study carried out by Brown + Story Architects, *"[it] recognizes the necessity of integrating the city and its landscapes into their earlier symbiotic roles, as places of recreation, of community connection, and as natural watersheds.*[19]*"* The proposed stormwater infrastructure, on a practical and social level, can act in a multi-beneficial way, filtering water and providing recreational amenities; all while acting as a "regenerative catalyst", where stormwater infrastructure allows for connecting new open space systems in Toronto.

Figure 1.2-24
Various Hidden Infrastructural Elements

INTEGRATED APPROACH

While the "invisible pipe solution" is most economically viable in terms of water infrastructure, it fails to recognize the potentials of making infrastructure visible. A "hybrid working landscape", although at a higher cost, can benefit the city through community amenity and a revived environmental consciousness. There is potential for infrastructure to bring "delight to necessity" and link open spaces, left by lost ravine systems, into a connected public park system.

Eric Pedersen, co-coordinator of Urban Planning for the City of Toronto, in an article in Plan Canada, describes how the Garrison linkage plan, put into motion, is based on a collaborative partnership between different municipal departments and various interest groups. Pedersen writes how the plan was endorsed by the then new amalgamated City of Toronto Council, bringing together the differing public services. *"This integration promotes the good use of limited municipal capital by ensuring that expenditures on works infrastructure, streets, and parks and recreation facilities are coordinated for the purpose of reinstating the open-space linkage and reinterpreting the environmental benefits of this former watershed.*[20]*"* It also allows for a merger with infrastructural improvement programs that are already desperately needed.

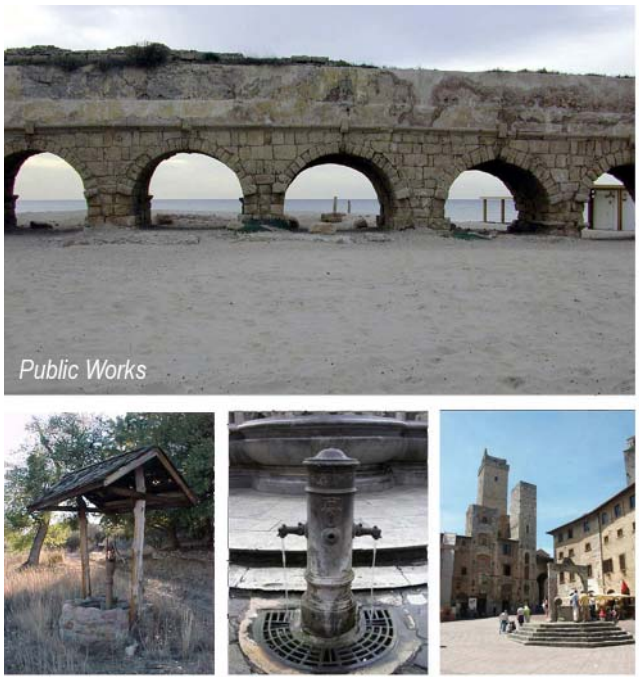


Figure 1.2-25
Various Examples of Visible Infrasturctural Elements

- *Roman Aqueduct (top)*
- *A Well (bottom, left)*
- *Roman Street fountain (bottom, center)*
- *Italian Piazza (bottom, right)*

WATER –storm sewer flow vs. natural watershed

Technology and science have changed the landscape of modern society by allowing for the development of practical means to overcome limitations of distance and time. The complexity of many of these technologies has led to intricate networks that are internalized and hidden from the public eye. As discussed earlier in Section 1.1, Ursula Franklin tried to prove in The Real World of Technology that this is leading to a passivity that reinforces a lack of direct experiences. She terms this type of experience a "pseudo-reality", where reciprocity of direct human interaction with the environment, and each other, is compromised.

An example of this is the role of water in the life of a city. The necessity of water, its means of transport, and its containment were fundamental influences on the daily life of the city for centuries. In many instances, they were familiar and integrated urban elements that played characterizing roles in the landscape of the city. The importance of water could be easily understood through it's physical presence in many forms; *"wells and cisterns, street fountains, and aqueducts once occupied a significant place in organizing urban space*[21]*."* Today, water does not occupy that same meaningful role in civic life, rather often it exists as underground pipes hidden from the public consciousness. Water appears when we turn on showers and faucets –there is little visible perception of the processes that brought it there.

Brown + Storey give the example of Trevi fountain, which stands integral to one of the most famous piazza's in the heart of Rome. The fountain is a baroque sculptural piece of art, a place where people meet and as such, is culturally enriching by bringing life to the piazza that holds it. But this is a secondary function. Primarily, its role is infrastructural; the end source of water brought to the city through once visible aqueducts. *"It is art, urban design, infrastructure, and as a product of all those, a cultural treasure. It is within this expanded context of the 'interconnectedness' between urbanism, environmentalism and the culture and servicing of the public realm that the Garrison Creek Connected Urban Pond System can be placed*[22]*."* The hope derived from such an aesthetic would be making an infrastructural element visible, and as a result the interrelationship between natural systems and

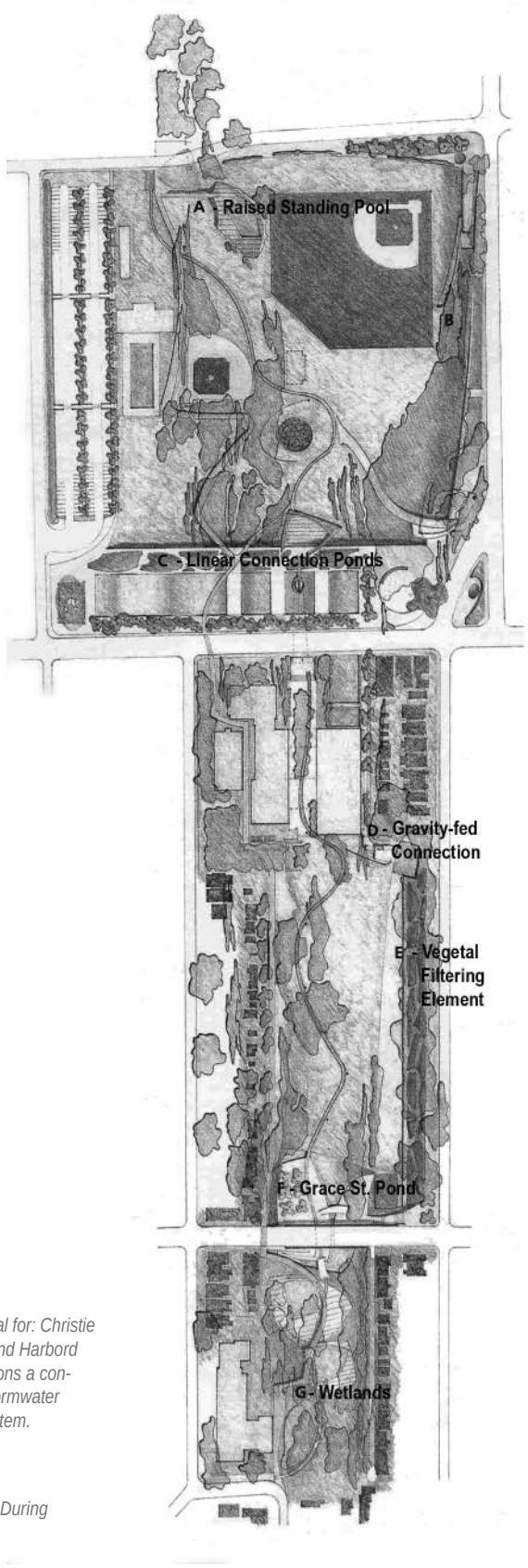


Figure 1.2-26 (left)
Autonomous Pond System

Brown and Story's Proposal for: Christie Pits Park, Bickford Park, and Harbord Park. The proposal envisions a connected and sustainable stormwater management and park system.

Figure 1.2-27 (right)
Inside the Garrison Sewer During Construction
1888

urban life could become more visible. Engagement with it would also provide a common place in the community for a culturally collective existence.

The proposed Garrison Creek Pond System is not an attempt to recreate, or is tied to, sentiments of the past. In no part of the plan are there suggestions to excavate the old ravine and restore the creek. Rather, the memory of the creek would be restored as part of a surface stormwater management system consisting of retention ponds, wetlands for filtration, and other stormwater elements as part of a recreation system linking the present parks. Still, the proposal includes water and community enhancement.

The sewer system built in the Garrison Watershed, that still exists today, is a combined sewer system, which handles both stormwater runoff and raw sewage in a single pipe line. Stormwater collected in this urban environment runs off roofs, roads and parking lots, bringing with it both bacterial and metal contaminants. The combined flow of rainwater run-off and sanitary sewage is then carried across the city to the Main Treatment Plant (now called the Ashbridges Bay Treatment Plant), where it is cleaned and discharged into Lake Ontario[23]. With heavy rainfall the combined volume of water exceeds the secondary treatment

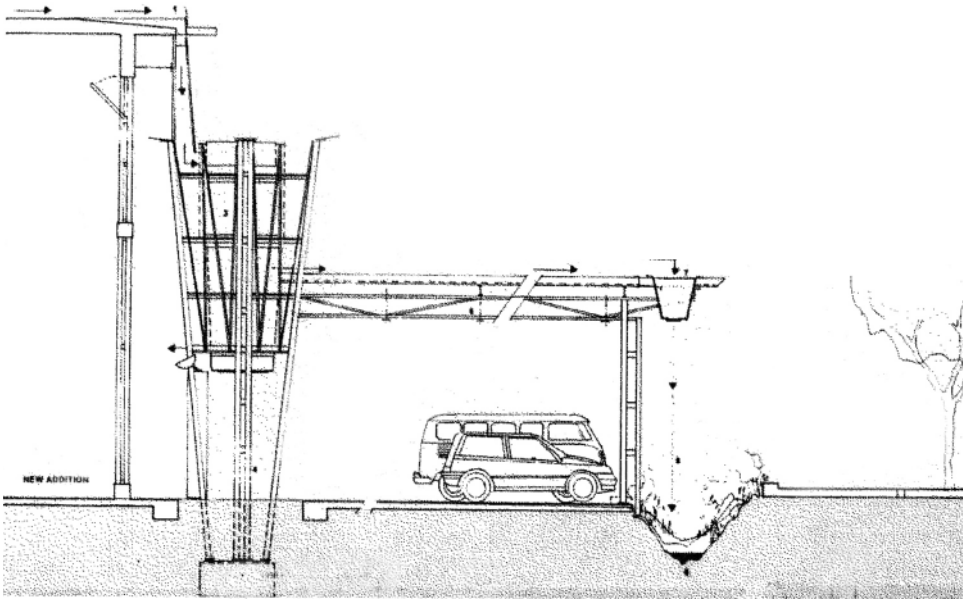


Figure 1.2-28
Cross-section of Brown + Story Proposal for the Trinity-Bellwoods Recreation Centre Parking Lot

Image shows cistern, trellis, and drainage swale that runs parallel to Crawford Street. One issue not addressed in the Garrison Creek Plan is the control of pests (such as mosquitoes) in solutions such as that in this Figure.

capacity of the plant, and some flow only goes through primary treatment before being discharged into Lake Ontario or other rivers. The City of Toronto website on the water pollution situation writes, *"The result [of bypassed secondary treatment]: degraded water quality conditions from an environmental and physical perspective. We're talking about stream bank erosion, loss of fish habitat and basement flooding. It even affects our beaches[24]."*

"We believe the city can reduce the volume and improve the quality of rainwater that drains into the sewers by collecting and treating rainfall locally within the Garrison watershed. The connected pond system is part of a fine-grained solution that could include environmentally sensitive stormwater management programs and treatment methods (such as bio-filtration systems and smaller local treatment plants) [25]." *– James Brown & Kim Storey.*

The benefit of this is that this type of constructed watershed can clean and store water, then release it back into the system when it is not over capacitated. It also provides opportunities to connect open-space networks in the city, through urban infrastructure, in a way that is enjoyable.

Currently The City of Toronto is in the strategic level of development of the broad-based Wet Weather Flow Management Master Plan (WWFMP). The intension is that the 25 year implementation plan will include: by-laws, policies, projects, programs, monitoring plans, implementation plans, and funding strategies, with the ultimate goal of reducing the adverse effects of wet weather flow or runoff generated during the times of rain and snow[26]. Some of the strategies suggested include the re-establishment of natural hydrological processes and the rehabilitation of natural features such as wetlands and ecological corridors (related to minimizing runoff at its source)[27]. In the WWFMP, the city has been divided into five study areas: Mimico and Etobicoke Creeks, the Humber River, the Don River, the Rouge River and Highland Creek, and the fifth study area include all the parts of Toronto in which there are still combined sewers[28]. Accelerated projects include Class Environmental Assessments for the Coatsworth Cut sewershed (the beaches area), which is part of the Combined sewer study area of the WWFMP, as well as studies of the Don River watershed and the waterfront[29].

Figure 1.2-29 (left)
Children Playing in Swimming Hole at Christie Pits

ACTIVE MEMORY

Marc Kristal, journalist and curator of "Absence into Presence: The Art, Architecture and Design of Remembrance", writes an article in a book titled Open: New Designs for Public Space, about memory-work and its relation to urban design and cities. He defines two types of memory that are relevant to the subject. First is *public-memory* that involves a collective knowledge of a place in context of city-history, both factually and emotionally. The second type of memory he describes is on the intimate level of the lives of citizens defined by *"the constant interplay between an individual consciousness and the urban environment.*[30]*"*

It is both types of memory that are linked to the opportunity of re-earthing meaning and life into urban parks that are part of lost creek systems. Kristal writes that *memory work*, from the standpoint of urban design, involves, *"the creation of remembrances that, like cities, remain alive… that recognize that the past is ever-present while enabling us to use that knowledge to build a better tomorrow.*[31]*"* As such, remembering is a living condition, and can be part of the daily individual experience.

Kristal gives the example of how traditionally, remembrance design has taken the form of official monuments *"-a statue, a memorial structure of some sort, a building or public square named for an illustrious citizen.*[32]*"* He describes this method of remembrance as contributing little to the present or the future of a city since it is fixed in meaning and time, and relieves the citizen of actively engaging with what is to be remembered and thus transferring it to the present. Although Kristal does not include the Garrison Creek Linkage Plan in his numerous examples of the possibilities of memory invoking architecture, the link to what he discusses is clear; the opportunity for using the past as a tool for urban and community renewal, furthermore, allowing for the carrying of an ongoing narrative of the city, both on a personal and collective level.

The Garrison Creek project moves away from the described memorial-type of passive remembrance towards one that involves *"active memory"* that is intrinsically connected to the city

Figure 1.2-30
Active Memory Through Engagement with Natural Elements

and its life via infrastructure. Its intent is not to restore the creek to its former natural physical entity, nor is it about creating a memorial grounds for a lost creek. It is about recognizing the meaning that public space had for its citizens, the potential it still has as being a center of community life, and also as a way of connecting with natural systems within an urban context.

Furthermore, Kristal points out the opportunity for active memory to be interwoven into the life line of the city through infrastructure – the same opportunity that Brown + Storey put forth in the Garrison Creek Linkage Plan. He also discusses the power of natural elements in remembrance design, with water being particularly engaging –it's sound, it's cool wet feeling, the effect of light reflecting from it, its content of life (aquatic beings, plants, etc.), and the way it is so easily interactive. After all, memory is as much embedded in sensual experiences as it is in historical facts. And it is through physical engagement that memory is so easily invoked. By interacting with something so personally it is less likely to lose meaning in our lives.

This is the spirit through which the next section of this thesis is approached: where park systems, such as those along the Garrison Creek ravine path, have the potential, through visibility and opportunity for interaction, to be places to experience a sense of community and inclusion.

(Endnotes)

1 Brown + Storey Architects, *"Garrison Creek Ravine: Enfolding Events,"* On Site, p. 114.
2 Ibid. p.114.
3 J.M.S. Careless, Toronto to 1918: An Illustrated History (Toronto: James Lorimer and Co., 1984), p.21.
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8 Ibd. p.13 (from Toronto Guild of Civic Art Plan of Improvements to the City of Toronto, Report, 1909).
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13 *"Stream of Unconsciousness,"* Azure, May/June 1997, p. 41.
14 Elissa Rosenberg, *"Public Works and Public Space: Rethinking the Urban Park,"* Journal of Architectural Education, 1996, 50:2, p. 92.
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18 James Brown and Kim Storey, *"Rain Water in the Urban Landscape: The Garrison Creek Demonstration Project,"* Places, 10:3, p.16.
19 Beth Kapusta, *"Infrastructure and Parks,"* Summery Handout, 1996.
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21 Elissa Rosenberg, *"Public Works and Public Space: Rethinking the Urban Park,"* Journal of Architectural Education, 1996, 50:2, p.89.
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24 *"Toronto's Water Pollution Solution,"* City of Toronto <http://www.toronto.ca/water/protecting_quality/wwfmmp/index.>
25 James Brown and Kim Storey, *"Rain Water in the Urban Landscape: The Garrison Creek Demonstration Project,"* Places, 10:3, p.10.
26 Wet Weather Flow Management Policy Document. The City of Toronto: Aug. 2003. <http://www.toronto.ca/involved/projects/archived/wwfmmp_archive/pdf/wwfmmp_policy.pdf>
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28 Coatsworth Cut CSO and Stormwater Outfalls Control Class EA Schedule C Environmental Study Report. City of Toronto: Nov. 2007. <http://www.toronto.ca/involved/projects/coatsworth_cut_sewershed/pdf/esr-report/cwc_classea_esr_1.pdf>
39 Ibid.
30 Raymond Fastil and Zoe Ryan (ed.), Open: New Designs for Public Space (New York: Princeton Architectural Press, 2004), p.92.
31 Ibid. p.92.
32 Ibid. p.93.

1.3 REVALUATION OF THE URBAN PARK: A SITE FOR A SUPPORTIVE HOUSING NETWORK

Figure 1.3-1
Mural of Community Garden

The proposal for this thesis aims to re-link disconnected parks in the city that were part of lost creek systems. The goal would be to create a cohesive community park system that includes supportive housing and allotment gardens.

INTRODUCTION OF PROPOSAL

The first section of this chapter described the suppression and displacement of natural systems, both physically and psychologically, during the urbanization of Toronto. The second section focused on the erasure of one such system; Garrison Creek, and the proposals to, in a sense, revitalize it. The Brown + Storey Architects' Garrison Creek Revitalization Plan proposed to accomplish this through a set of connected stormwater filtration ponds. This would also reconnect various disconnected parks, school yards, and parking lots (once part of the ravine's open space network) into a cohesive community park system. This way, both environmental and community benefits are taken into consideration.

When one re-evaluates the urban park for further potential, it is evident that there are additional opportunities for it to be a multifunctional landscape linked to other community concerns. The possibilities for what this encompasses or how this can be interpreted are endless. This section proposes one such possibility; an extension of Brown+ Storey's scheme with another layer added to their solution: the re-linkage of disconnected parks in the city that would eventually become a community park system, and part of a supportive housing network that includes allotment gardens. Allotment gardens are used as a place of interaction where residents of supportive housing can interact with the community; a form of therapy; and for potential vocational training. An example for the execution of this proposal is seen in Chapter Three.

Figure 1.3-2
Urban Parks as Potential Sites for Supportive Housing

BENEFITS OF URBAN PARKS AS SITES FOR SUPPORTIVE HOUSING

As described in the introduction of this thesis, metaphorically, *liminality* and *othering* link the two social concerns of the conditions of the urban park and marginalized groups in society. There has been a parallel in history of displacement of nature from the city, and exclusion of special needs groups from society. Environments that foster communication are key to reinforce the reversal of this condition. As discussed earlier, the shift to reconnecting and inclusion can be accomplished through lessoning of isolation and personal engagement, which reduces fear and separation. Public spaces are venues where diverse and fragmented groups in society can seek solace, and enhance the transmission of a common set of experiences. Thus, the community park becomes a space where there is combining of: recreation, awareness of natural systems, and awareness of marginalized groups. The urban park can create a scene such as this because of its central location within communities and because of its public nature. As such, it offers an environment where, through visibility and interaction, there is encouragement towards openness and compassion. The fact that these parks would be part of a network, as per Brown + Story's proposals, makes the base for the supportive housing element even stronger.

Elissa Rosenberg, Head of the Department of Landscape and Architecture at the University of Virginia, in the Journal of Architectural Education, discusses the theme of the modern-day park as an extension of urban infrastructure. She distinguishes between the two terms "infrastructure" and "public works". In her discussion, she defines each, with the term "infrastructure" described as a *"socially neutral term, narrowly defined by engineering works*[1]*."* Whereas the term "public works" is more *"strongly associated with an architectural character, capable of contributing to civic imagery and identity*[2]*."* In her discussion, she describes how "public works" eludes to *"a higher purpose in the city that is served by its functional components… while vital –derive their meaning from the city when they properly serve the end of the polis, which is to promote the common good*[3]*."*

The proposed subject of this thesis brings the purpose of the community park into the realm

Figure 1.3-3
Interconnectedness and Interaction

Environments that foster communication are key in healing conditions of liminality and othering.

of public works, both in terms of environmental values and supportive housing infrastructure. The proposal also includes an allotment gardens aspect. The intention would be to offer opportunities for interaction between persons from the housing network, the community at large, and between people in the park. The concept is to also use this as a tool for healing, in terms of relationships, community, and self; which will be expanded upon subsequently.

Figure 1.3-4
Community Centre in Trinity-Bellwoods Park

The appropriation of park space for community centres or interpretive centres is common because of the community enriching experiences they offer. Locating a well strategized and sensitive supportive housing network within parks also works under the same principle of community enrichment.

THE COMMON GOOD AND THE APPROPRIATION OF PUBLIC-URBAN-PARK SPACE

An issue that arises from including a supportive housing layer to our public parks is the appropriation of park space that this entails. Merriam-Webster's dictionary defines a park as *"an area of open space provided for recreational use, usually owned and maintained by a local government[4]."* Although this is true, it does not answer the question of what the purpose of a public park is; an issue that is quite relevant to this thesis. The answer is a multi-layered and complicated one, which essentially centers on the public park being a place that strengthens our communities by contributing to the common good, in terms of environment, individuals, and communities –the approach taken with this thesis. Ideas of community stewardship are closely linked to this. The inclusion of a supportive housing element to a structured park system provides common ground, where the community can enjoy and participate in collaborative activities, focusing its energies in a highly public manner, leading to improvements that can benefit everyone, and that truly reflects the word "community".

The community park should reflect values that are important within our society. As a public space, it should represent democratized values; where all members of society can mix on equal terms. Often, parks are centers for recreation and educative programs. Buildings that often occupy space within the park include community centres and interpretive centres. This appropriation of public space is acceptable in these cases because of the community enriching experiences they offer the people who visit and live near these parks. The proposed supportive housing network offers similar community enriching experiences.

That is not to say that issues of scale should be ignored. The design (or re-design) of a park to include supportive housing should still address how much the park can absorb, and what kind of restructuring of the park is needed if important functions need to be relocated. For example, if a small park is used, an appropriate course of action would be to use a small existing home for the supportive housing, because no extra space is taken away from the park, and renovations tend to have fewer problems getting approved (re-zoned, etc.) compared to building new supportive housing structures[5].

Figure 1.3-5
Typical Park Activities

Urban parks often offer space for recreation and are centers for local activity. The inclusion of a supportive housing element is simply another layer to the purpose of a "community" park.

In cases where parks are much larger, like Trinity-Bellwoods Park, which is one of the parks along the Garrison Creek Ravine park system (the Park used for the design portion of this thesis), the condition is different: Due to its large size, it can absorb more function and intensification of activity than a small park. Appropriation of space is less of a concern, if done in a minimal or highly beneficial manner, such as in creating space for allotment gardens and an entrance into the park. In such a large park, there also exist opportunities, as government-owned land, for the pooling of resources (Toronto Parks, Forestry, and Recreation; Toronto and Region Conservation Authority; City of Toronto Social Services; Ontario Ministry of Community and Social Services; and so on).

Among the most important benefits of urban parks, and hardest to quantify, is how they offer opportunities to experience a sense of community. They have something to offer for everyone, all segments of society, and are or have potential to be a cohesive force in a neighbourhood. There are obvious benefits that parks offer citizens: recreation, exercise, places to inspire imagination, focus for neighbourhood activities, sense of community, natural spaces within the city, stormwater management, increased property values, etc. Incorporating our more disadvantaged members of society into this equation offers more than the benefits just listed –for everyone involved. The park can become a catalyst for projects that are both environmentally and socially responsible; both elements contribute and inspire feelings of purpose and stewardship for members of the community.

The allotment gardens aspect benefits everyone also, by creating a safe and healthy recreational activity within these parks systems. Furthermore, the gardens offer a place where the group and the neighbourhood can mix, bringing about awareness, which invests the space with tools for community and individual healing.

Marginalized groups stand to gain much as well; the gardens, within community space, will allow for an engagement in a range of activities that can help in the healing process (both within the individual and with relationships), bring feelings of inclusion, increased confidence, and provide positive interaction.

Figure 1-6 (left)
Diagram Showing Buildings Within or Dirrectly Adjacent to Parks Along the Garrison Creek Ravine System

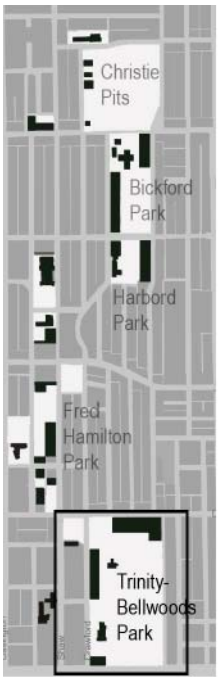
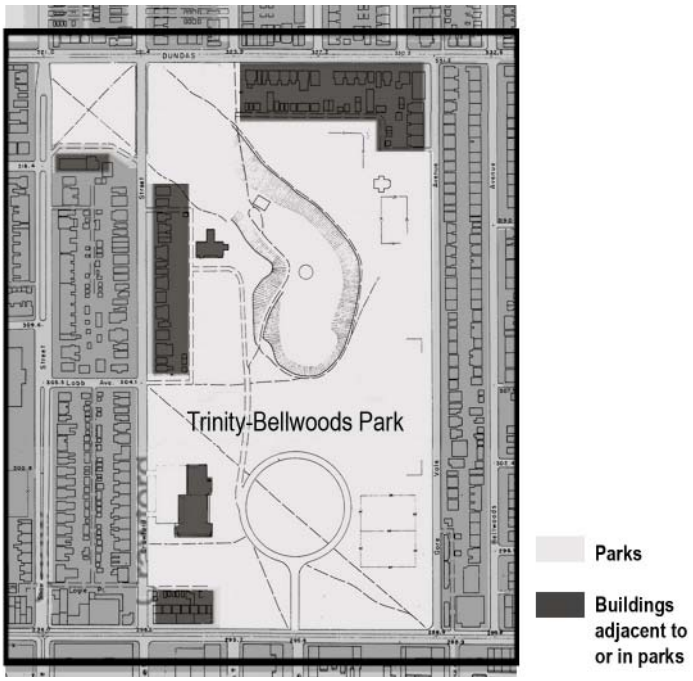


Figure 1.3-7 (right)
Diagram Showing Buildings Within or Dirrectly Adjacent to Trinity-Bellwoods Park

Buildings include private homes, a home for the aged, a communty centre, and retail stores.



Creating Connections and Dialogue

The urban park offers opportunity for the development of an interface; a non-threatening place where the community can interact with natural systems and marginalized groups.

Dr. Trausti Vaulsson, Professor of Architecture and Urban Planning at the University of Iceland, author of City and Nature – An Integrated Whole, writes about connections. He offers his rules for how neighbourhoods and open spaces can best be linked, with parallels to how city and water can be connected as well. The two applicable guidelines he describes include: that the border between them should not be a straight line that divides, rather, the two areas should interlock; and, that if small garden cores are placed in the neighbourhood and small house cores in the green area, the connection between the two becomes stronger[6]. Supportive housing in the park works on the same level. Furthermore, in such urban situations, there already exists housing within the park. Unfortunately, most of these situations, currently within parks along the Garrison system, address the street only, completely disregarding the park context. The intention would be to have each structure placed within the park to be demonstrative of a healthy relationship with the park, and by extension, disadvantaged people in our society, to engage them, rather than ignore them.

The intent here would be to have the supportive housing element inspire connecting activity. The edge condition offers a variety of types and scales of interaction. Having a street face that is of similar size and external appearance to the other homes in the area allows for physical integration into the community. Various scales to take into consideration would be from the intimate to the public levels, for example, the porch, sidewalk, street, and other homes. There would also need to be aspects that address the park, or act as an interface between the park and the community. This should not negate the need for privacy and private space in the design process.

Figure 1.3-8
Urban Toronto

Locating supportive housing in an urban area has many benefits. Amenities include: religious facilities, libraries, schools, public transit, parks, stores, community centres, entertainment, etc.

Benefits of Urban Location for Group

An added benefit of weaving supportive housing into urban park systems is the proximity to community facilities that this would provide. Community centres are often located adjacent to parks for recreational benefits. Other neighbourhood amenities that offer support are libraries, schools, as well as support facilities specialized to each group. Also, the proximity to places of worship can most often be beneficial, since many religious groups offer assistance and supportive programs. These facilities can be used to facilitate and supplement requirements for the group being focused on. Generally, these are also places that are highly accessible, and are hubs for community centered activities.

Locating a residential facility for any disadvantaged group within urban centres affords the group amenities that are crucial to independent living, such as public transportation systems, grocery stores, places for entertainment, and places of employment. This type of environment can absorb a group of special needs persons, and can contribute to self-reliance and independence.

Also, being located in urban communities, as opposed to isolated rural conditions, allows for a person to be in closer proximity to their families and friends, who can more easily spend time with them. This accessibility makes visiting between the residents and those they care about more likely and thus beneficial to all involved.

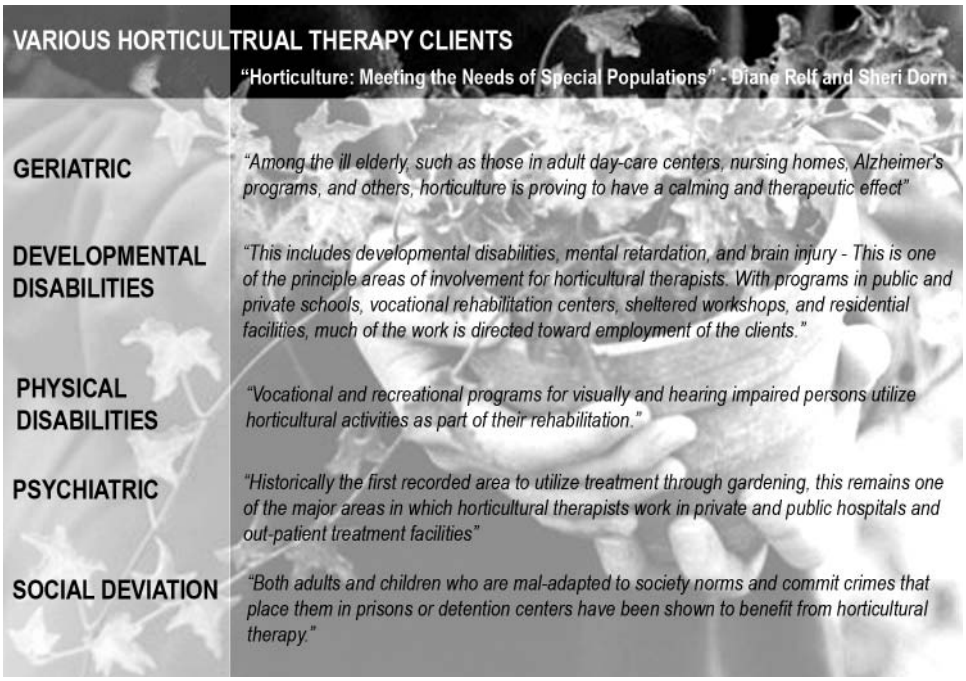


Figure 1.3-9
Diagram of Various Horticultural Therapy Client Groups

The Healing Garden

Gardening is not a new therapeutic tool. It is one of the oldest healing arts. Yet, as a scientific form of therapy, it is relatively new amongst therapeutic professionals. Even before there was research data, mostly conducted in the last ten years, confirming the healing aspects of gardening, it was widely accepted by many professionals as an effective therapeutic tool[7].

During the early-twentieth century, it was a commonly held belief that nature was fundamental to healthy living. This belief, still held by many today, was the result of certain health issues that were inflicting the American population –namely, Tuberculosis; the leading cause of death during this time period[8]. It was commonly referred to as the disease of "indoor life". Until the middle of the twentieth century, when a vaccine was developed, the only recognized cure or treatment for tuberculosis was the "fresh air treatment"[9]. Nature was seen as primary for healthy living.

Also, before psychiatry was a practiced science, gardening was used for "curing" the mind and nervous system[10]. During the mid-eighteenth century, doctors advocated that manipulating soil had curative effects on the mentally ill, and by the end of the century, hospitals in Europe were demonstrating that there were definite benefits from gardening for mental patients[11]. Some doctors went as far as to claim that they cured mentally inflicted patients by making them work on farms. As will be seen in the next chapter, this form of therapy was subsequently used as a form of economic sustainability for the institutional facility (ie. food production), and led to the mistreatment of many patients.

Beyond recreational opportunities offered by public parks, there is growing confirmation, through research, that contact with the natural world improves both physical and psychological health. One study, often used to demonstrate this, is of surgical patients with rooms that overlooked a park with trees and another group with a view of a brick wall. After ten years, the study showed

Figure 1.3-10
View of Brick Wall vs. Natural Scenery

A Pennsylvania hospital study, from 1972 to 1981, showed that patients who had a view of nature from their hospital room's window had shorter hospital stays and required fewer pain medications than patients whose room window faced a brick wall.

that patients with the comparatively pleasant view of the park had shorter recovery times and less need for painkillers[12].

Today, everyday living includes many stresses –school, work, family, finance, health, etc. Multiply these stresses with being part of a marginalized group, such as those with economic troubles, who are aging, with physical disabilities, mental disabilities, mental illness, or other forms of what is considered social deviancy, and life can become extremely overwhelming.

One outlet that can make a difference, on many levels, is gardening. Gardening is intrinsically healing, whether it is actively maintaining a garden or passively enjoying being in a garden. This is not defined in the medical textbook sense of "healing", and not in the "curative" sense, rather it is defined in the sense of wholeness and tranquility. From tending large community gardens to minding indoor house plants, gardening can be beneficial to the mind, body, and spirit. Horticultural therapy, in the simplest sense, is a type of therapy that uses plants and other gardening-based activities to improve the quality of life of an individual.

The specific goal and methods towards a horticultural therapy program may differ considerably when designed for any particular disadvantaged group or set of population. Essentially, all programs would have the same ultimate goal in mind; to improve the physical and mental health of a person. Diane Relf, a Professor of Horticultural therapy, advocates for horticulture to be used as a therapeutic tool. She outlines four specific areas of development: physical, emotional, intellectual, and social (allotment gardens are used as a venue for interaction, and social development, in the design portion of this thesis). These four areas of development will be expanded upon subsequently.

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Figure 1.3-11 (left)
City Farmer Volunteer Aiding a Women with Physical Disabilities

Horticultural Theapy Program at George Pearson Centre for physically disabled adults.

Figure 1.3-12 (right, top and bottom)
Gardening as Physical Activity

Working with ones hands provides sensory stimulation and provides many physical benefits.

Physical:

The 2004 summer Canadian Mental Health Association newsletter outlines many physical benefits of gardening. Some benefits listed include: to *"improve gross and fine motor skills; increase muscle strength; endurance and flexibility; lower blood pressure; promote better circulation; and reduce the risk of osteoporosis, stroke and heart disease.*[13]*"*

Psychological & Emotional:

Gardening, or Horticultural Therapy, also provides psychological benefits, and can aid in emotional development. Working with a variety of plants of differing colours, scents, and sizes broadens the imagination. Elly Tose, Canadian Mental Health Association Coordinator, writes how nurturing and taking care of plants helps to: *"develop compassion, builds confidence and a sense of responsibility… increases levels of concentration… improves problem solving and communication skills, and connects people*[14]*."*

Relf outlines other intellectual benefits that include: improved vocabulary and communication skills; increased powers of observation; vocational and pre-vocational training; and stimulation of sensory perceptions[15]. Furthermore, tending to plants can relieve aggression and can inspire feelings of accomplishment, usefulness, and stewardship –important to members of society that are often devalued.

Very often, marginalized persons have experienced rejection because of their social standing, illness, or disability, and hence have a much lower self-esteem as a result. Plants are non-threatening and non-discriminatory, and if given proper care, grow regardless of who looks after them. Subsequently, that successful plant growth can inspire feelings of pride, increased responsibility, and increase in self-worth.

Figure 1.3-13
Gardening as Social Activity

Social:

Benefits of gardening also extend into the realm of social development. As part of a supportive housing network, gardening can benefit those who live in the micro-environment of the residential facility, and the macro-environment of the community that it is located within.

According to Sheri Dorn, Research Associate for the Horticultural Department of Virginia Tech University, the reasons gardens are so important are because they invoke feelings of peacefulness and tranquility, especially in urban areas, where life can be non-conducive to this[16]. The Menninger Clinic Report (published by the International Psychiatrists Centre in Houston) describes how there is a reduction in tension and anxiety during gardening, that enhances a person's receptiveness to being approached by another person[17]. Such an atmosphere, where people are more receptive to one another, makes it easier for them to relate and work together co-operatively, sharing in responsibilities, with common goals. This is especially important in a residential facility where people live together. Working together, and alone, also affords opportunity for developing both leadership skills and independence.

Dorn writes, *"Community gardens are particularly important to the elderly, disabled, and disadvantaged individuals in urban areas[18]."* There are also social benefits for the mainstream community, after all everyone can benefit from the calming effects of gardening. Relf writes that another benefit is *"increased powers of observation. Watching the interaction between plants, man and animals helps develop deeper understanding and ability to evaluate relationships[19]."* The park also provides a neutral place where the community and marginalized groups can interact. For the marginalized groups to interact with others is extremely important to encourage their social growth. For others in the community, it is an opportunity to see, listen to, and interact with these persons, with the intention of helping to remove fear and "othering" tendencies.

Figure 1.3-14
Gardening as Recreation, Therapy, and Vocational Training

Gardening as Vocational Training

Gardening has many elements that make it intrinsically healing and beneficial to all people – especially true for members of a marginalized group in society. According to Relf, the opportunity to share products cultivated by their own efforts is an important aspect of this therapy type[20]. As such, an opportunity that some existing supportive programs currently use is the use of horticultural activities to support vocational training, or for generative funds. As a supportive housing network, each marginalized group would require a gardening program that is specific to the group (as well as accessible and beneficial to the community at large).

The method of gardening can take on many forms; greenhouse gardening, fruit and vegetable gardening, growing of trees, growing of flowers and herbs, etc. The diversity of plant types that could be used for therapy or retail business is quite large, and its specific function to the residents could be of varying types and degrees. Sometimes, it would be best to use gardening for recreational purposes only, to promote calmness or healing, without it being considered as professional therapy. Other times, it would be better for the group to have horticulture included on a therapeutic level. The objectives of the program would greatly determine the methods of operation.

The therapeutic benefits of gardening could be the basis for a training program, more specifically job and skills training. Vocational programs of this nature are not usually exclusively centered on one theme, in this case gardening. Although the individual participates in the program, they may not work in that field after they complete it. In this case, there are other skills that they would invariably gain, such as commercial and social skills.

The next chapter focuses-in on one marginalized group -persons with developmental disabilities. Chapter Three (the design portion) will demonstrate how gardens can create connections, dialogue, and healing, as described in this section.

(Endnotes)

1 Elissa Rosenberg, *"Public Works and Public Space: Rethinking the Urban Park,"* Journal of Architectural Education, 1996, 50:2, p.90.
2 Ibid. p.91.
3 Ibid. p.91.
4 Merriam-Webster Online <http://www.merriam-webster.com/>
5 Challenges and Opportunities: Community Living for People with Developmental Handicaps (Ontario: Ministry of Community and Social Services, 1987), p.16.
6 Trausti Vaulsson, City & Nature – An Integrated Whole (Haskolautgafan: Iceland University Press, 2001), p.26-34.
7 Michael Levenstone, *"Gardening with Disabled Individuals,"* City Farmer <http://www.cityfarmer.org/disablegard67.html#disable>
8 Documentation on Nature in the City (California: IMCL Council, 1990), p.1.
9 Ibid. p.2
10 Diane Relf, *"Horticulture: A Therapeutic Tool,"* Horticultural Therapy <http://www.hort.vt.edu/human/ht5a.html> (originally published in J. Rehab. 39(1):27-29).
11 Michael Levenstone, *"Gardening with Disabled Individuals,"* City Farmer <http://www.cityfarmer.org/disablegard67.html#disable>
12 Paul M. Sherer, The Benefits of Parks: Why America Needs More City Parks and Open Space (San Francisco: The Trust for Public Land., 2006), p.15.
13 Elly Tose, *"Gardening for Your Mental Health,"* Canadian Mental Health Association, 2004, p.1 <http://www.cmha-tb.on.ca/newsletter.pdf>
14 Ibid. p.1.
15 Diane Relf, *"Horticulture: A Therapeutic Tool,"* Horticultural Therapy <http://www.hort.vt.edu/human/ht5a.html> (originally published in J. Rehab. 39(1):27-29).
16 Sheri Dorn, *"Horticulture: Meeting the Needs of Special Populations,"* Horticultural Therapy <http://www.hort.vt.edu/human/HortTher1.html>
17 Menninger Clinic Report 2006 <www.menningerclinic.com/resources/gardening/htm>
18 Sheri Dorn, *"Horticulture: Meeting the Needs of Special Populations,"* Horticultural Therapy <http://www.hort.vt.edu/human/HortTher1.html>
19 Diane Relf, *"Horticulture: A Therapeutic Tool,"* Horticultural Therapy <http://www.hort.vt.edu/human/ht5a.html> (originally published in J. Rehab. 39(1):27-29).
20 Diane Relf, *"The Use of Horticulture in Vocational Rehabilitation,"* Horticultural Therapy <http://www.hort.vt.edu/human/ht6.html#TOP> (originally published in J. Rehab. 48(3):53-56)

CHAPTER 2: CASE GROUP
- PERSONS WITH DEVELOPMENTAL DISABILITIES

SUMMARY

Chapter Two draws conceptual parallels between the condition of nature within the city and the erasure of marginalized groups in society.

Section 2.1 provides a detailed history of the residential situation, from pre-institutionalization to current Community Living trends, for various marginalized groups, with specific focus on persons with developmental disabilities.

Section 2.2 discusses the trend of De-institutionalization and a new focus model of care, with commitments towards Community Living arrangements. This section also explains the Developmental Model and the Principle of Normalization, that aim for the integration of developmentally disabled persons into communities. There is also discussion about the current condition of this system, and the realities associated with the integration process.

Section 2.3 is a discussion regarding the stance of Normalization and integration, in relation to housing for persons with developmental disabilities, and what this means architecturally. It looks specifically at how issues of location, context, and size of the residence would affect the integration process.

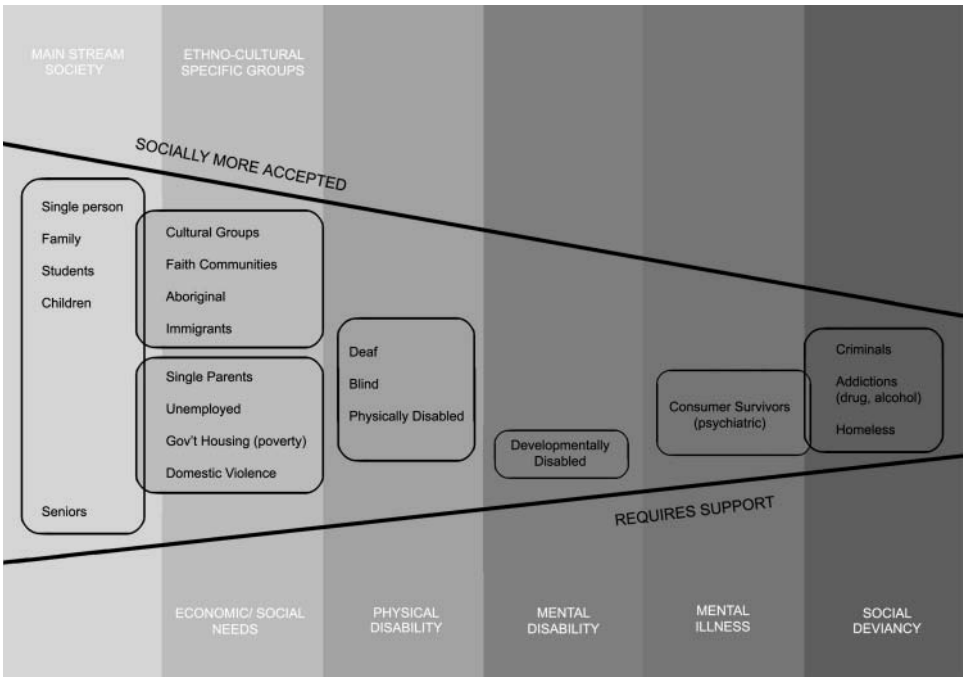

Figure 2-2
Diagram -
Defining the Community

This diagram shows different classifiable groups within society. It goes from groups that are typically considered more socially acceptable (left) to groups that are considered more socially deviant (right). It also goes from groups that require less support (top) to ones that require more support (bottom).

INTRODUCTION - Disadvantaged & Marginalized Groups in Society

Chapter One addressed the disconnection between nature and city through the urban park. Chapter two will draw parallels to a similar history of erasure of marginalized groups within society. Metaphorically, both *nature in the city* and *disadvantaged groups within our communities* share a common thread of liminality within a larger 'normative' setting. Opportunity extends beyond metaphorical associations to linking the two social concerns as important community issues that need to be addressed. Proposals to bring to surface a suppressed natural system, such as the Garrison Creek, can bring about more social benefits than reconnecting the community to nature. It can also bring about opportunities for reconnection of marginalized groups within society to the communities they exist in; through a Community Living housing network (with gardens). Chapter Three will bring the two issues together, and illustrate how the urban park offers opportunities for imagining alternative sites to build upon for new and much needed Community Living arrangements.

Clearly, society is comprised of various types of people and classifiable groups. Naturally, every community has different proportions of these groups with some being more *socially accepted* or *deviant* than others. L.T. Wilkens, a Psychologist who specializes in social deviancy, suggests that our attitudes towards 'deviance' stems from platonic ideas that goodness, truth, and beauty are intertwined, and that difference from these aspects, in our minds, is related to their opposites – evilness, falsity, and ugliness[1]. This is somewhat of a generalization, but it is interesting to note that many socially deviant groups in the past were in fact seen as synonymous and treated similarly –the blind, criminals, the disabled, etc. Figure 2-2 shows a spectrum of common identifiable groups; from a more 'socially accepted' main stream society to what would be considered more socially-deviant, by today's standards, requiring considerable amounts of community support.

Groups with disabilities occupy a special place in this spectrum –a liminal space. Although much has improved over the last few decades, when observing the ways in which non-disabled persons interact with persons with disabilities, there still exists fear -caused by apprehension,

lack of knowledge and understanding, confusion and uneasiness. It is this same tension that has made these disadvantaged persons marginalized by society throughout history. This is even truer for those that have mental handicaps, as opposed to physical ones, where their vulnerability is characterized by dependence in many activities that require decision making, thus more often than not relying on some type of external support to assure a basic quality of life. It is for this reason (and also for personal interest) that the marginalized group chosen for this thesis is those persons with developmental disabilities, allowing for better focus on specific issues and thus, viable solutions for Community Living support.

The past century has seen two major ideologies that have influenced the residential environments for developmentally disabled persons –namely, *Institutionalization* and *Normalization*. In this chapter, there will be discussions regarding how advocates for *'Institutionalization'*, an invention of modern times, viewed developmentally disabled persons (as well as other 'deviant' groups) as ill, subhuman, menaces, and above all else, social deviants. The resultant designed living environments for them were dehumanizing, often modeled on hospitals and prisons.

Proponents for the opposing ideology of *'Normalization'* insist that developmentally disabled persons benefit most from living their lives as close as possible to society's norms. According to this way of thinking, living arrangements need to be outside of an institution, into mainstream homes, and located in ordinary neighborhoods.

The movement of De-Institutionalization and the difficulties for aging baby boomer parents, who have raised persons with developmental disabilities at home, but are now finding it increasingly difficult to do so, has created a huge vacuum of need for social housing or "Community Living" arrangements in communities. The community park provides an untapped opportunity to help alleviate this need.

Figure 2-3
Some Faces of Developmental Disability

These pictures are of persons with various types of developmental disabilities: Autism, Cerebral Palsy, Prader-Willi sydrome, Down syndrome, etc.

DEFINING THE CASE GROUP – Persons with Developmental Disabilities

The term *developmental disability* describes: a condition, a syndrome, and a source of challenge for over one-million Canadian children, youth, and adults[2]. The term has been defined and renamed numerous times throughout history. For example, in the late 1800's and early 1900's *feeblemindedness* was a label used to describe developmental disability, and the terms *idiot*, *imbecile*, and *moron*, were used to define different levels of mental retardation –all of which would be considered extremely offensive terminology in today's politically-correct environment.

There are many contentions surrounding the use of the term *developmentally disabled* today as well. Some argue that it should be used as an adjective, as opposed to a noun, so that a person with this condition is not defined by it. For example, "Sarah is not developmentally disabled; she is a person with a developmental disability". Thus, proponents of this thinking prefer *developmentally disabled persons* to be used instead.

Others argue that the adjective *disabled* is inappropriate as well, and that *challenged* would be a more sensitive term to use. To make the matter more complex, *developmentally disabled* is synonymous with the use of the terms: *mental retardation, intellectually disabled, mentally challenged, developmentally delayed, developmentally challenged, special needs,* etc.

In the end, it is important to remember that we are talking about human beings, albeit with differences, and that which ever term is used, that it be done with sensitivity and respect.

Consistent across all terms and definitions are certain traits; difficulties in learning, social skills, everyday functioning, and age of onset (during childhood or before birth[3]). Developmentally disabled persons are distinguishable from other vulnerable groups on the basis of never having possessed, and being unlikely in the future of possessing, sufficient capability to make all the decisions affecting their own welfare.

Figure 2-4
Some Movies About Persons with Developmental Disabilities

These pictures are of various movies that touch on the lives of developmentally disabled persons.

Clockwise from Top Left:
- *Rain Man, 1988*
- *Snow Cake, 2007*
- *Who's Eating Gilbert Grape, 1993*
- *To Kill a Mockingbird, 1962*

The most recent and widely accepted definition for *mental retardation* was established in 1992 by the American Association on Mental Retardation:

"Mental retardation refers to substantial limitations in present functioning. It is characterized by significantly sub-average intellectual functioning, existing concurrently with related limitations in two or more of the following applicable adaptive skill areas: communication, self-care, home living, social skills, community use, self-direction, health and safety, functional academics, leisure, and work. Mental retardation manifests before age eighteen." [4]

Essentially, *developmental disability* is a condition that begins in the developmental period, is a lifelong circumstance, and because of below-average intellectual capacity, often results in some degree of social inadequacy. It can be caused by genetic factors or environmental factors. It covers a wide spectrum of syndromes, such as Down syndrome, Cerebral Palsy, Autism, and Prader-Willi syndrome. It can also occur separate from genetics. For example, in the pre-natal stage (through an infection or vitamin deficiency in the mother), perinatal stage (for example, insufficient oxygen supply during birth), and in the post-natal stage (for example, lead poisoning, meningitis, or head trauma)[5].

In the end, developmental disability is a complex concept fraught with controversies. The definitions given are not even uniformly agreed upon by the practitioners in the field. Fundamentally, it is important to understand that developmental disability can be caused by a range of reasons. It can encompass mental, physical, as well as psychological issues. And as is true for any group in society, disadvantaged or not, there are a wide variety of differences and levels of functioning when looking at individual people. It is important to understand that a person with developmental disabilities is a human first, and deserves the respect that goes with this, and has special needs second.

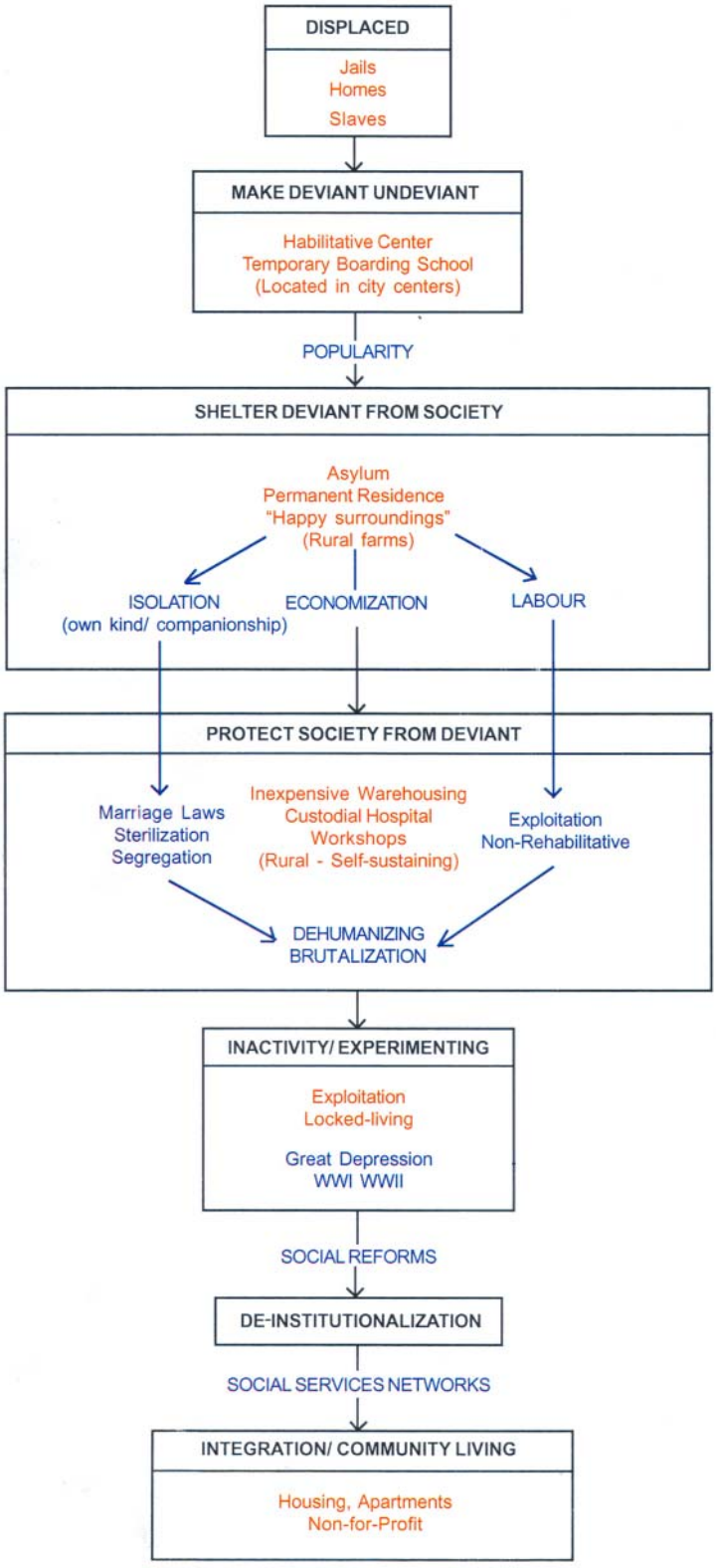

Figure 2.1-1
Flow Chart -
History of Residential Situations for Persons With Developmental Disabilities.

It is only the last 40 years that have seen significantly positive changes in the attitudes towards persons with developmental disabilities -the trend is referred to as "Community Living".

2.1 THE RESIDENTIAL INSTITUTION:

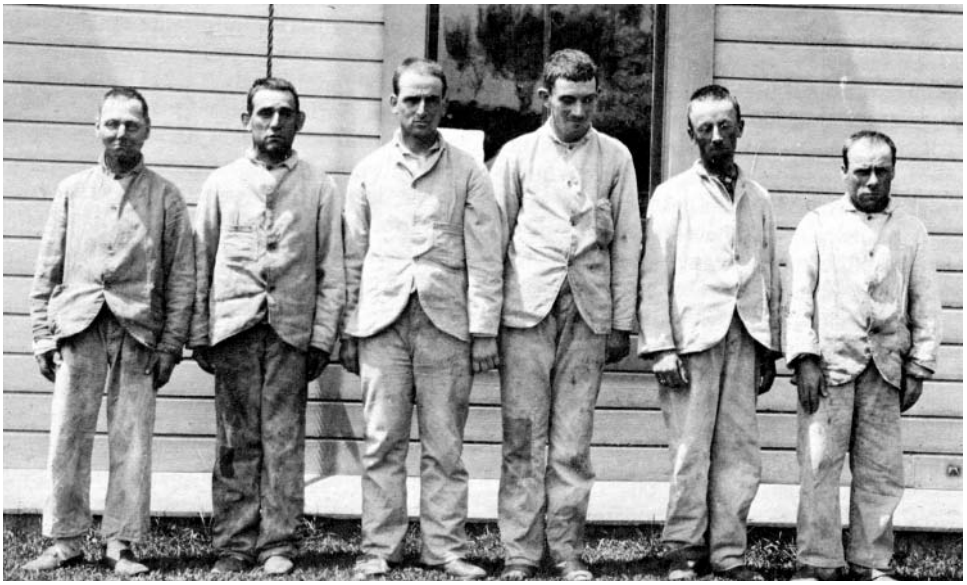

Figure 2.1-2
Picture of Institutionalized Men in the early 1900s

THE ORIGIN OF THE RESIDENTIAL INSTITUTION

To fully appreciate the current housing models for developmentally disabled persons, and the trend towards De-Institutionalization, the original intentions of Institutionalization must be understood. Wolf Wolfensberger, a Psychologist and leading authority on the Institutional model, chronicles in his various books the attitudes, social circumstance, and policies that led to the creation of institutions for mentally handicapped individuals. Wolfensberger's The Principle of Normalization in Human Services, and The Origin and Nature of our Institutional Models are key texts used to explain ideologies leading to the current independent-living models described in this chapter. Other key psychologists referred to, specializing in issues relating to developmentally disabled persons, are Daryl Evans, Harvey Switzsky, and Alfred Baumeister.

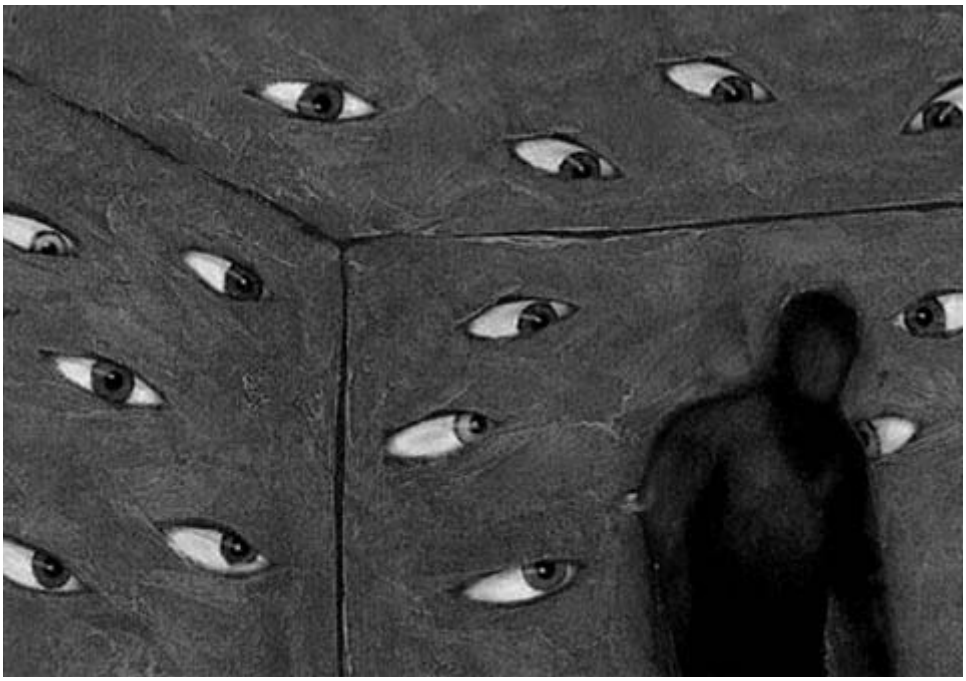

Figure 2.1-3
Displacement

PRE-INSTITUTION -Displacement

Historically the Main Methods for Dealing with Deviance:

1.Tolerance: Deviance not important.

2.Improvement: Deviant can be made undeviant through education, positive treatment, and if given value by society.

3.Segregation: of deviant groups from mainstream society, often under pretense that it is for their own good.

4.Termination: Based on belief that the deviant is a drain on or a danger to society.

Prior to specifically designed residential environments for developmentally disabled individuals, these individuals were subject to varying degrees of attention and treatment. Evans chronicles very early attitudes towards developmentally disabled persons. He researched that the first written reference to developmentally disabled persons was seen in a Greek work from 1552 B.C., where these persons were labeled as "monsters"[6]. During these times, these contemptuous feelings insinuated fear or disgust, and these feelings were often acted upon. Evans gives the example of the Spartans, who were recorded as prescribing death for "idiots" as a cleansing mechanism, usually carried out by throwing the child off a cliff, or drowning them in the Eurotas River. Another common practice throughout many centuries was the abandonment of developmentally disabled persons in the wilderness. This method freed the abandoner of guilt associated with physically murdering someone, while reaching the inevitable outcome of disposing and killing the unwanted child.

Other persons with intellectual disabilities suffered a different fate by being kept as pets or objects of amusement for the rich. Evans writes about the *court-defectives*, *"there are records as early as 4 B.C. where wealthy Romans kept such persons in their homes to amuse guests.*[7]*"* This method was not limited to the Greeks or Romans either. He also describes the Aztec king Montezuma who was said to have had a large collection of developmentally disabled persons which he kept *"after the manner of a modern park zoo*[8]*."*

Prevalent views, as categorized by Wolfensberger, of developmentally disabled persons in the seventeenth century included: being seen as evil beings, useless burdens to society, and as a stigma on a family that was being punished for past misdeeds[9]. Although some were treated with kindness, they were, more often than not, ignored and seen as wild children that deserved nothing more than to be treated with the level of respect that would be offered to wild animals[10].

The living environments they were subject to were equally tragic. There are countless stories of developmentally disabled children being caged or locked away, never to be seen or heard

Figure 2.1-4
Examples of Treatment of Marginalized Groups Prior to Institutions.

of. As with other dependent or deviant groups, the sick, poor, deaf, and blind, they were frequently caught in various public systems - put in jail, sold as slaves, even hung and burned on suspicion of witchcraft[11]. Through ignorance, they were often cruelly wronged. Essentially, the mentally handicapped were displaced individuals. The lack of acknowledgement by society was reflected in the environments they were forced to inhabit.

Figure 2.1-5
Children in a Small Habilitative School

"…there is not one of any age who may not be made more of a man and less of a brute by patience and kindness directed by energy and skill."

-Samuel Howe
(Champion of the first habilitative schools, later proponent of what they evolved into –the Institutional Asylum.)

SMALL HABILITATIVE CENTRES -Making the Deviant Undeviant

It was only in the early-eighteenth century that Europe was overtaken by a wave of optimism and responsibility for its disadvantaged members of society. Various studies contributed to attitudes that developmentally disabled persons could be educated with the correct intensity of instruction. As such, it was believed that they should be identified and brought together at a young age, so a concentrated effort to educate them, as children, could be made. These positive models, developed in Europe, were imported to North America in the mid-nineteenth century.

Essentially, the beginnings of the North-American Institutional Model were under good intentions, vastly different from the negative images conjured when many think of the horrors often associated with institutions. They took the form of habilitative centres, or temporary boarding schools, in the heart of city centres. They were relatively small sized at first, with ten to twenty children, and then medium-sized, with fifty to sixty students; each version with individual focus and intensive training[12]. The intention was to return the child back to their home community, after he or she mastered the necessary skills to function in society. Admittance into these programs was only permitted for those whose age and condition best showed the possibility of improvement –the so called "curables"[13].

It was never the intent that these facilities would become permanent homes. Switzky describes how the focus was education, where children would live and learn during their school-age years –that they would go home for vacations, and when finished, would then return to the community[14]. Wolfensberger describes one of North-America's first institutions as like a family household, where principals, teachers, and pupils sat at the same dinner table. Also, at that time, most institutions were run at, or very near the capital city of each state; in the very hearts of communities[15]. These first facilities were often rented homes, affording their students the same risks associated with everyday living that the rest of society was exposed to.

This early form of the institution was successful, and as such it grew in popularity. Many

optimistic parents wanted to send their children to such places, believing that this was the best option for their child.

Unfortunately, as time passed, conceptions changed. There was a perceived failure of institutions as schools because of the inability of many students to fully adjust when returned to their fast-paced home-communities (in part due to the lack of supportive social service systems). In many cases, the parents of these children were unwilling to take them back, feeling that they would be happier, and kept away from harm, if left in the habilitative school -threatening to leave them homeless if they were sent home[16]. Thus, they were left in the facilities -which had no choice but to grow. This attitude developed at a time when there was a wave of Christian charity. Instead of schooling, it was thought that, as innocent victims, developmentally disabled persons needed loving care and protection.

Figure 2.1-6
Hard Cold Society vs.
The Happy and Safe Countryside
(Location of Asylums)

ASYLUMS -Sheltering Deviant From Society

There were consequences to the new "charity-case" attitudes towards developmentally disabled persons. Wolfensberger describes how, *"developmental attitudes degenerated into attitudes of pity and charity"*[17]. It was believed that developmentally disabled individuals should be protected from hard-cold society and placed in happy surroundings amongst their "own type", with fresh air and lush land –like a *"garden of Eden for the innocent"*[18]. With this in mind, an emphasis for gardening and farming developed. The word *school* disappeared, and was replaced by the term *asylum*. Focused education was substituted with work meant to foster physical development and intellectual growth.

As the image of developmentally disabled persons changed, the conceptualization of the residential institution changed as well, and was expressed in the buildings that were occupied. They took the form of permanent residences located in rural farm areas. General grounds were hedged or fenced to prevent intrusion, but open to allow patients to move freely.

Baumeister commented that this distancing from city centres bore the seeds of three dangerous trends: *isolation, enlargement, and economization.* Under these conditions, early asylums swelled into vast estates and colonies (with patients numbering in the thousands)[19]. Good intentions became replaced by utilitarian practices, and the focus turned towards the economic sustainability of these institutions. Since asylums were located in pastoral landscapes, the form of economization exercised naturally became agriculturally based. Essentially, this further encouraged the isolation of these facilities away from urban centers. *"Developmental attitudes changed to pity, pity lasted only about 10-20 years, and was followed by a long period of brutalization*[20]*."*

Figure 2.1-7
The Looming Institution

INSTITUTIONS -Protecting Society from Deviants

During the late-nineteenth century, residential conditions for the developmentally disabled spiraled out of control. According to many sources, public hysteria towards these people was sparked by three trends: 1) the advent of *Social Darwinist theories* (linking "feeble-mindedness" to laws of heredity); 2) the introduction of *Intelligence testing* (popularizing the belief that many more persons with mental disabilities were living in society than previously thought); and 3) The *Eugenics movement* (consideration of developmentally disabled persons as members of an inferior race, that should die out or be terminated)[21].

There were also unfounded and biased studies showing that developmental disability was the source and cause of many problems of society –namely: corrupt behavior, criminality, and disease. Persons with mental handicaps were seen as: having immoral tendencies, greatly lacking in self-control, and particularly open to suggestion (based on the very influential 1908 British Royal Commission Report[22]). Below are quotes from two highly influential men in the field of mental disabilities at the time. Both reflect attitudes for persons with developmental disabilities as sub-human, and as an affliction on society:

"The feeble-minded are a parasitic predatory class, never capable of self-support or of managing their own affairs." -W. E. Fernald (as quoted by Wolfensberger)[23]

"the moron… he is a burden to society and civilization… he is responsible to a large degree for many, if not all, of our social problems." -H.H. Goddard (as quoted by Baumeister) [24]

Developmentally disabled women were viewed as particularly dangerous, and seen as breeders of offspring that would become menaces to the community. This "problem" was dealt with through: forcible-segregation from society, far from urban-centres, and segregation of sexes

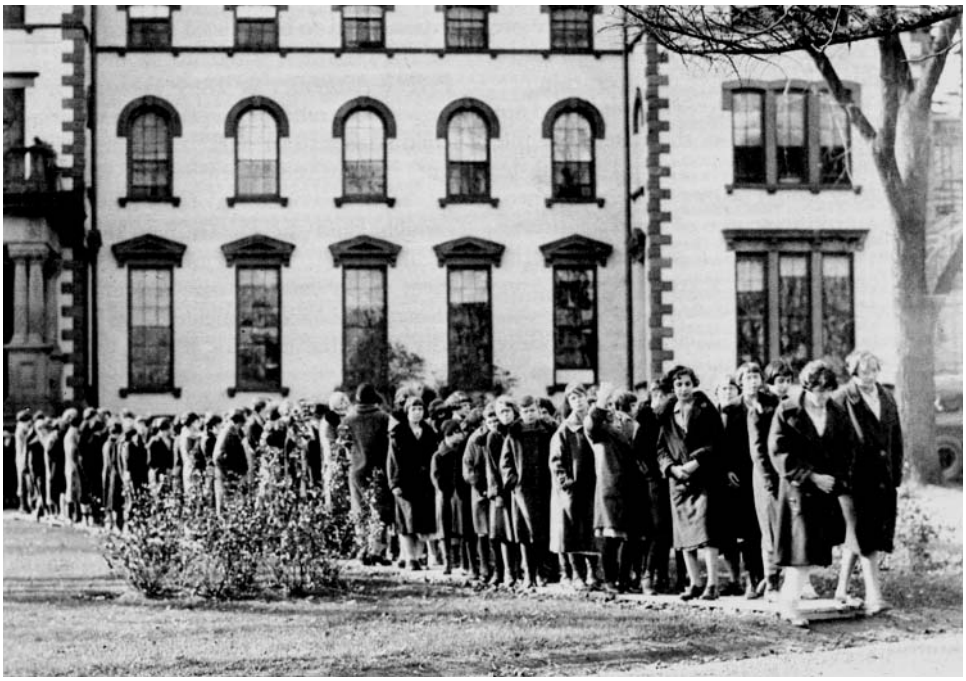

Figure 2.1-8
Segregated Institutionalized Women

"There is probably no class of persons who are more fitted and more apt to spread disease and moral evil than these girls… one evil girl may corrupt a whole village… their children are apt to be mentally defective, with more or less pronounced animal instincts, diseased and depraved, a curse and menace to the community"

-Bullard
"State Care of High-Grade Imbecile Girls" 1910. p.333.

within these facilities. Countless sources describe how there was a clear shift from the view of protection from society to one where there was a need to protect society from social menaces. These 'deviants' were considered to be nothing more than a drain on the social and financial infrastructure of society.

The Mental Deficiency Act of 1913 (U.S.A.) combined with negative public sentiment only further propelled this segregation[25]. Professionals in the field were convinced that in order to prevent the spread of feeble-mindedness, this part of the population had to be completely removed from society. The problem they were faced with was how to make this economically feasible. After all, the public was reluctant to allow for the high costs associated with the upkeep of persons whom they thought were unworthy of even living amongst them. Wolfensberger describes the plans that professionals in the field developed to make the housing of these individuals economically feasible. This was accomplished by increasing the number of residents to reduce per capita costs, and by making the more capable residents in the facilities work on the field, and to look after the less capable ones.

"Beginning in about 1880, so-called farm colonies had come into vogue. In essence, they were institutions that specialized in making the less retarded residents as self-supporting as possible by having them farm large tracts of land… The rule of thumb that appeared to materialize out of nowhere was: one acre per resident." - Wolf Wolfensberger[26]

With such arbitrary rules and vast numbers of residents, institutions and the land they occupied (located in rural areas because of donated land, or because of inexpensive land) grew to humungous sizes. This way the institution ran as cheaply as possible; with residents working long

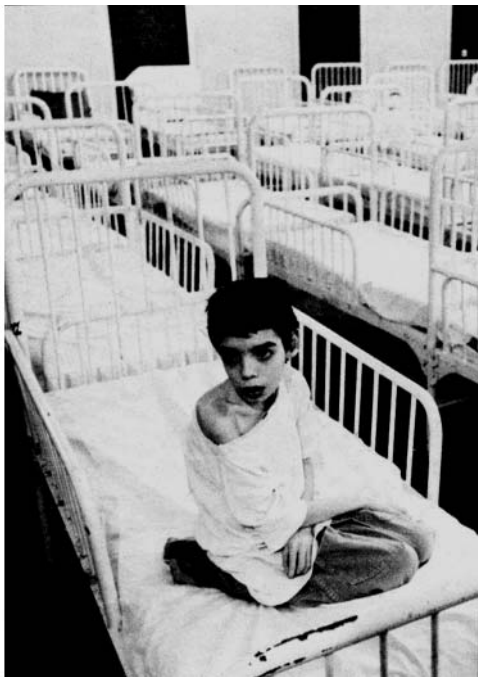

Figure 2.1-9

The most disturbing study group of the developmentally disabled was the Eugenics section of the American (Cattle) Breeders Association. The first solution they offered to the 'problem' was restrictive marriage laws. When this was less than 100% effective, they advocated for forcible sterilization (in institutions).

Goddard, a leading psychologist at the time, said, "all mentally retarded women should receive ovariectomies and mentally retarded males should be castrated". By 1926, 23 states had mandatory sterilization laws. Between 1925 and 1955, over 50,000 mandatory sterilizations were performed on persons said to be 'retarded' or 'deviant'.

It is commonly unknown that Hitler based the initial mass-slaughter of developmentally disabled individuals, pre-WWII, on reports and evidence published by doctors from America and Canada.

(Source: Baumeister, Alfred A. Residential Facilities for the Mentally Retarded. p.10-12 (quote p.12)

hours, for no pay, under a strict utilitarian regime.

Switzsky describes these asylums as "Inexpensive warehouses", 'storing' up to 15000 people, with the attitude of "out of sight out of mind" for the believed necessary protection of society[27]. Architecturally, these facilities were either extremely hospital-like in nature, with no psychological-stimulation, or were made as uncomfortable as possible for the seemingly undeserving. Since they were considered to be like animals, they were expected to live like animals; that is, soil themselves. As such, the environment was designed so that it could be easily cleaned on a massive scale. There was no privacy. Residents were not permitted any personal possessions –even their own clothing. Toilets and showers had no partitions[28]. There was no way to foster individuality. One can imagine the quality of life afforded by: the smell of urination, the sterile quality, and the noise of so many people in such cramped quarters.

In 1948, the Department of Health in the United States took control over (Canada was soon to follow) these colonies and thus they became hospitals, administered by health authorities[29]. The first model of a habilitative school was now completely gone, and became replaced by the model of a custodial hospital. Wolfensberger describes the change in service models and terminology: *"living units are referred to as nursing units or wards… residents are referred to as patients, and their condition identified as being a 'disease' that requires a 'diagnosis' and 'prognosis'… case records are referred to as charts… programs are referred to as 'treatments' or 'therapy*[30]*."* He also describes the organization of these facilities as being medical in nature, where the administration is led by a physician, with other physicians under him, and nurses under them. The separation of staff and "patients" further reflected this: Staff wore uniforms, had their meals in different areas, and watched over "patients" from closed-off central nursing stations.

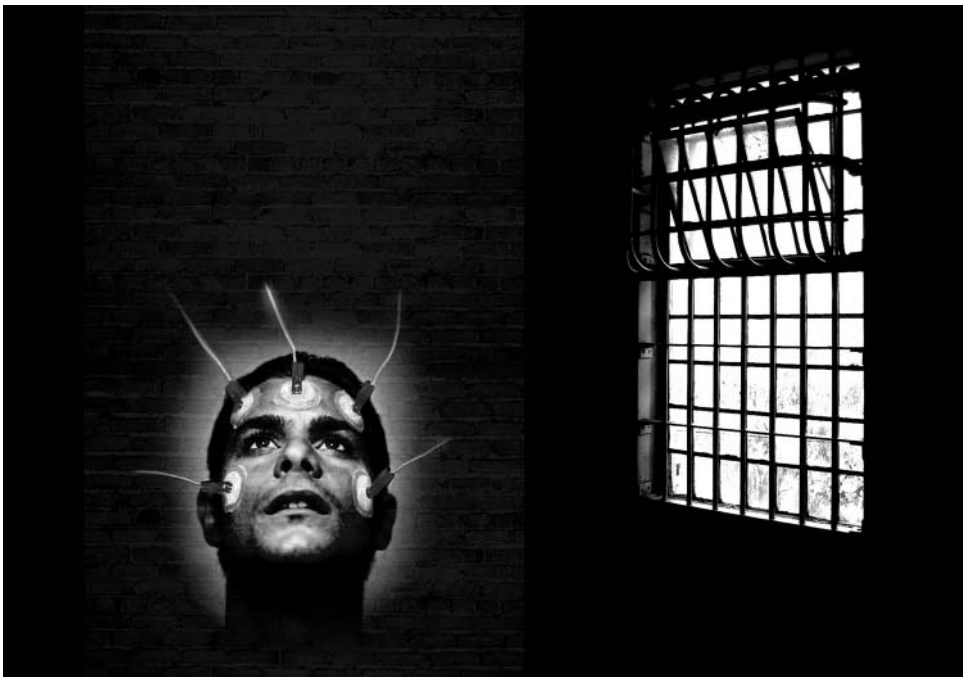

Figure 2.1-10
Experimentations

Mainly from the 1920's to the 1950's, persons who were locked away in Institutions were greatly exploited and mistreated.

INACTIVITY AND EXPERIMENTING

The conditions within institutions only worsened during the first half of the twentieth century, becoming even more internalized. Patients were subject to: locked living units, steel-barred windows, brick walls, and were fenced-in. Under these conditions, there was much exploitation. Deviant groups that were locked away were often experimented on, and used as free labor for sustaining of the institution, as opposed to a focus on rehabilitating the individual[31].

The residential environment was designed to prevent residents from destroying it and/or hurting themselves –simple daily activities like climbing stairs and access to hot water was denied; the furniture, floors and walls were built to be indestructible; wire-meshed glass was widely used; and areas for residents were sound-proofed, Evans writes, *"to muffle the (animal?) sounds which client users are expected to emit* [32]*"*

Switzky describes how, under the guise of protection, residents were controlled by locked living-units and barred windows[33]. Furthermore, tall fences surrounded the entire building, isolating the group completely from the community that they existed in, and further perpetuated the image of these persons as being dangerous.

Conditions became so horrible that Samuel Howe, the pioneer of the original institutions, lobbied for the closure of the new institutional facilities that they replaced. Although there were new studies being released, which showed that developmentally disabled persons were not a threat or danger to society, no positive action was taken. From the 1920's until the 1950's, preoccupations with the Great Depression and World War II kept much from being done to change these living conditions.

The next section describes the change in social conditions leading away from an Institution-based system, towards De-Institutionalization, and a reform in social policy that supported Community Living in Ontario.

(Endnotes)

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3 Mental retardation: Definition, classification and systems of supports (Washington: American Association on Mental Retardation, 1992), p.5.
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5 Janet Reisenstein and William A. McBride, *"Design for normalization: a Social Environmental Evaluation of a Community for Mentally Retarded Adults,"* Journal of Architectural Research, Mar 1977, Vol. 6, p.12.
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10 Kiernan, Residential Provision for Developmentally Retarded Persons (Baltimore: Uni. Park Press, 1981), p.5.
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26 Wolf Wolfensberger, The Origin & Nature of our Institutional Models (New York: Human Policy Press, 1975), p.46.
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30 Wolf Wolfensberger, The Principle of Normalization in Human Services (Toronto: National Institute on Mental Retardation, 1972), p. 69.
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32 Darryl Evans, Lives of Mentally Retarded People (Colorado: Westview Press, 1983), p.63
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2.2 REFOCUSING: COMMITMENT TO COMMUNITY LIVING IN ONTARIO

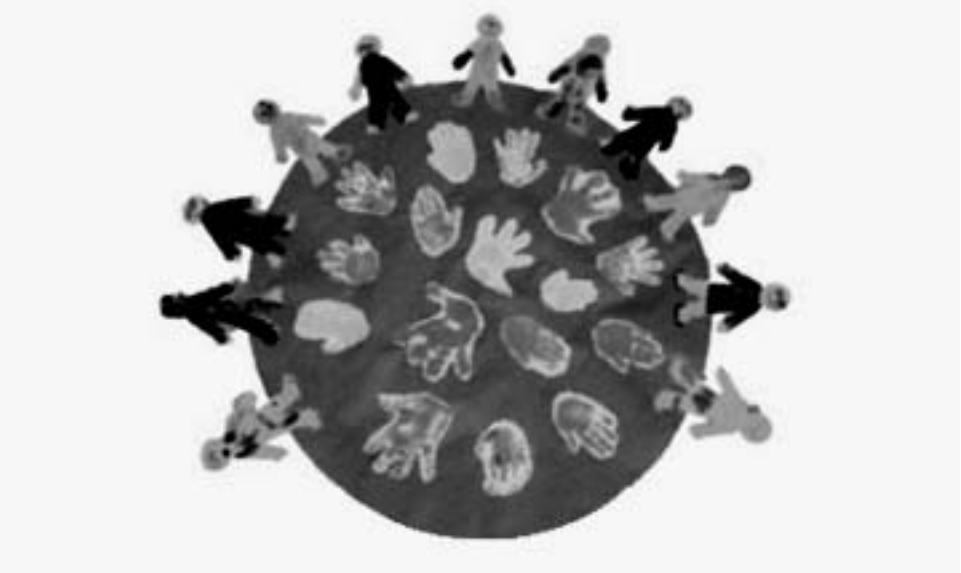


Figure 2.2-1
Human Rights Image
- Vilma Backjute (artist)

The new attitudes that occurred during the second half of the twentieth century allowed for the plight of those in institutions to be recognized, and for conditions to be significantly improved.

For over a century, the institution had been the North-American way for dealing with persons who were different or socially deviant. They began with the best of intentions, as small habilitative schools, and then soon grew into large vast complexes - where residents experienced sub-standard and restrictive living conditions. It is true that like most anything else, the institution is seen as "good" or "bad" in relation to the current values upheld by society, and that these values are constantly shifting and changing, as well as the ways in which society chooses to exercise them. A new set of attitudes towards developmentally disabled persons began in the 1950's, and is still developing in the same positive direction today. The public spirit has shifted towards a view that upholds that developmentally disabled persons are valued members of our society –deserving the same resources, rights, and experiences afforded to any member of this society.

Figure 2.2-2 (left)
At a Disabilities' Rights Demonstration

Figure 2.2-3 (right)
John F. Kennedy

President Kennedy addresses the American Congress regarding the reduction of the number of persons confined to residential institutions. Kennedy lobbied for ways to re-integrate those released back into the community. This marked the beginnings of the de-institutionalization movement during the 1970s.

TREND TOWARDS DE-INSTITUTIONALIZATION

The rise of the De-Institutionalization movement, and the subsequent revision in social policy for developmentally disabled persons came about in the late 1950's. This was in part due to the National Association for Retarded Citizens within the United States, which lobbied for more professional and public attention towards the plight of developmentally disabled citizens. Worldwide, human rights movements demanding rights to fair and equal treatment were becoming more and more prevalent. Furthermore, new and unbiased studies showed that developmentally disabled persons, when returned to society, did not become criminals nor were they dangerous[1]. Additionally, in 1960, U.S. President John F. Kennedy, whose sister was developmentally disabled, supported the re-direction of federal resources to lead commissions on mental retardation[2].

These factors, coupled with social reforms of the sixties and reports that outlined the deplorable conditions within Institutions, led to a commitment towards providing Community Living arrangements, as opposed to an Institutional-based residential model. The major objective being the placement of developmentally disabled persons in community settings designed to enhance independent functioning, and to increase participation in everyday community life.

Figure 2.2-4
Special Olympics

Wolf Wolfensberger introduced the idea of "Normalization" in 1972 -part of the De-institutionalization movement that led to viewing persons with disabilites for their true potential. An example of the application of "Normalization" is the creation of the Special Olympics (by Eunice Kennedy Shriver). The International Olympics Committee officially recognized it in 1987. Society's ideals of what an athlete is have been challenged continuously by the Special Olympics.

DEFINITIONS - DEVELOPMENTAL MODEL & THE PRINCIPLE OF NORMALIZATION

The *Developmental Model* focuses on the humanity of a handicapped person, and the belief that he or she can benefit from the same principles of learning and development as any other "normal" person could. As such, Switzsky writes that the Developmental Model *"conceives of handicapped persons as individuals who can benefit from training and educational instruction… and functions as an antidote to dehumanizing conceptions of handicapped persons.*[3]*"*

Wolfensberger accredits the first use of the term *Normalization* to N.E. Bank-Mikkelsen, head of the Danish Mental Retardation Service, who expressed its meaning as *"letting the mentally retarded obtain an existence as close to the normal as possible.*[4]*"* Bengt Nirge, former executive director of the Swedish Association for Retarded Children, expanded the Principle of Normalization as *"making available to the mentally retarded patterns and conditions of everyday life which are as close as possible to the norms and patterns of the mainstream of society*[5]*."*

Wolfensberger popularized and refined the term in North-America, and established a new definition of the Principle of Normalization (as a service model) as follows: *"Utilization of means which are as culturally normative as possible, in order to establish and/or maintain personal behaviors and characteristics which are as culturally normative as possible.*[6]*"* An important aspect of this is that there is no definition of what "normal" means. For example, "culturally normative" in Canada does not necessarily mean "culturally normative" in Kenya thus, community and the environment play an integral role in the developmental experience.

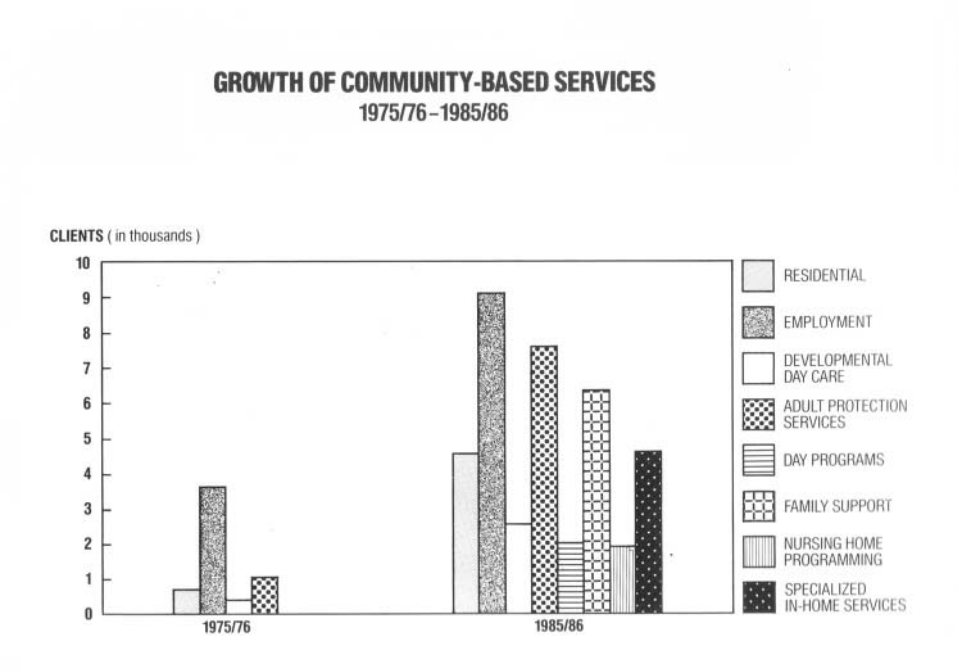


Figure 2.2-5
Growth of Community-Based Services 1975/76 to 1985/86

"Over this time period, expenditures for community-based services increased from $10M to $181M... The number of developmentally handicapped people served in the community increased from approximately 700 to 4,400 during the ten-year period."

- Challenges and Opportunities. p.7 (Document published by the Ontario Ministry of Community and Social Services)

STEPS TO INTEGRATION

In 1987, Ontario's Ministry of Community and Social Services released a document entitled Challenges and Opportunities: Community Living for People with Developmental Handicaps. It describes a decade of change within Ontario, from 1975 to 1985, where re-definitions of commitments and re-examinations of service models were made in order to develop a long-term framework towards, as the Ministry termed it, a "roadmap to full participation".

These commitments found their first manifestation in The Development Services Act of 1974[7], which outlined: 1) A phase down of large institutions; 2) Encouraged family care for developmentally handicapped children during their formative years -in their own homes and thereafter in their own communities; 3) Development of community-based support for in-community residential programs; 4) and a commitment to foster a developmentally handicapped adult's skills to his/her full occupational potential.

Since the mid-1970's, there has been tremendous growth in the type and range of services available to support Integration. A giant step forward was the passage of Bill 82 by Ontario's Ministry of Education in 1980 -outlining that all school-age children in Ontario would have access to *"programs appropriate to their individual needs without payment of fees"*[8]. This afforded education, during the formative years, to a developmentally disabled child. Improved learning techniques led to increased skill and capabilities to move into independent settings.

Refocusing of the residential model for developmentally handicapped persons in Ontario has been based on a change in attitude by the government and society. Developmentally disabled persons have slowly been accepted as members of society (albeit still often as deviants or dependents). The first step is accepting the risks of living in the community and seeing the potential of this disadvantaged group to express their value, as well as the potential of a community towards acceptance. Living in the community further provides opportunity for community awareness and positive integration.

Figure 2.2-6
Working Together

With new positive attitudes and Community Living support in place, the remaining Provincial Institutions were seen as archaic, and moves to close them down soon followed.

THE FINAL CASE FOR CLOSING OF INSTITUTIONS

By the mid-1980's, services within communities had been even further developed. There was also more exposure and acceptance by society (although there was still much progress to be made). Most influential of all was a strong desire for families to keep developmentally disabled members as part of their families, giving rise to a strong opposition to their placement in institutions. Considering all of these factors, the Ontario Ministry of Community and Social Services saw the final closure of institutions as a viable goal. The Institution, as a long-term residential model, was now seen as undesirable and unnecessary.

Baumeister cites maintenance costs as another incentive for the closing of institutions. He says, *"more public money is spent on the five per cent of mental retardates who are institutionalized than upon the ninety-five per cent who are not."*[9]

Between 1982 and 1987, the first six institutions in Ontario were closed. Challenges and Opportunities described how sociologists concurred with family members regarding the positive changes in developmentally disabled persons that were moved into the communities. It also described Institutional living as a non-viable service model for the future. The document explains that, *"the congregation of hundreds of people in large remote settings is often counter-productive in preparing people to live in the community*[10]*."* And that the Institutional model *"does not promote family involvement with the developmentally handicapped person, for example, geographic areas served by some institutions can make family visits both expensive and time consuming*[11]*."*

These same resources could be better used towards the rapid growth of community services in supporting sustainable residential alternatives. Even if institutional care were viable, many present institutions would require rebuilding and relocation because of remoteness and deterioration.

Since 1987, thirteen provincial institutions have been closed or completely redefined in nature. In September of 2004, an announcement was made by the Government of Ontario that

Figure 2.2-7
Changing Image

The change of names of the original Toronto Lunatic Asylum (at 999 Queen Street West, later at 1001 Queen Street West) reflect the changing attitudes towards the institution.

1850 - Provincial Lunatic Asylum

1871 - The Toronto Lunatic Asylum

1907 - Toronto Hospital for the Insane

1919 - Ontario Hospital

1966 - Queen Street Mental Health Centre

1997 - Centre for Addiction and Mental Health (CAMH)

Ontario's three remaining institutions will be closed by 2009 -with an attempt to place a thousand individuals in the community.

There is even more need for living arrangements for those developmentally disabled adults that were raised at home. Medical advancement has led to an increased life-expectancy for the North-American population –including those with developmental disabilities. Because of the current trend and desire of families to keep their developmentally disabled sons and daughters as part of their family units, there is a strong reluctance towards placement in institutions when the aging parent can no longer take care of their child, who is now an adult.

The following section describes some community-integrated residential solutions as alternatives to Institutions, and the architecturally-related issues concerning these models.

(Endnotes)

1 H. N. Switzsky, Integration of Developmentally Disabled Individuals into the Community (Minnesota: Paul H. Brookes Publishing Co., 1988), p.29.
2 Ibid. p.31.
3 Ibid. p.32.
4 Wolf Wolfensberger, The Principle of Normalization in Human Services (Toronto: National Institute on Mental Retardation, 1972), p. 27.
5 H. N. Switzsky, Integration of Developmentally Disabled Individuals into the Community (Minnesota: Paul H. Brookes Publishing Co., 1988), p.35.
6 Wolf Wolfensberger, The Principle of Normalization in Human Services (Toronto: National Institute on Mental Retardation, 1972), p.28.
7 Challenges and Opportunities: Community Living for People with Developmental Handicaps (Ontario: Ministry of Community and Social Services, 1987), p.5.
8 Ibid. p.7.
9 Alfred A. Baumeister, Residential Facilities for the Mentally Retarded (Chicago: Aldine Publishing Co., 1970), p. 22.
10 Challenges and Opportunities: Community Living for People with Developmental Handicaps (Ontario: Ministry of Community and Social Services, 1987), p.22.
11 Ibid. p.23.

2.3 NORMALIZATION: AND SUPPORTIVE RESIDENTIAL MODELS

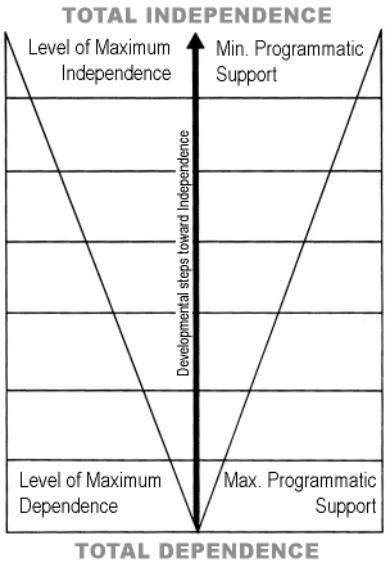


Figure 2.3-1
Developmental or Normalization Model

In this thesis, the stance of viewing developmentally disabled persons as developing individuals is adopted. This diagram shows the relationship between dependence and programmatic support in this goal.

The previous sections of Chapter Two outlined the history of residential environments for developmentally disabled persons and the consequent attitudes towards this disadvantaged group. It can be seen through the description of the resulting architectures how an embodied meaning can be extrapolated from each form of facility. In the past, the location of the building was the first step in symbolizing the relationship of this disadvantaged group to the rest of society. For example, the residential school was habilitative in nature and as such, was small in scale and located within city centres –so as to best fit within communities. Contrastingly, the iconography of the later institutional asylums, isolated with high gates, and secluding them away from communities, showed society's fear of these people.

The design of residential facilities for developmentally-challenged adults is often affected by the attitudes and philosophies that are held towards them by the designer of the facilities and the communities that they are part of. As such, it is important to take a stance on the view towards developmentally disabled persons, in order to design a residential home that works in accordance with current positive views. In this thesis, the stance of viewing the developmentally disabled person as a developing individual is adopted.

The Developmental Model (or Normalization Model) described earlier, advocates for an atmosphere found in the typical home, with additional features that maximize the potential for development. Wolfensberger describes the developmental model as characterized by architecture to: *"1) facilitate and encourage the resident's interaction with the environment; 2) foster individuality, dignity, privacy, and personal responsibility; 3) furnish residents with living conditions which not only permit but encourage functioning similar to that of non-handicapped community age peers."*[1]

This section will discuss residential models that support Normalization. It will also discuss contextual architectural features that will become a basis for the design, such as the benefits of physically integrating developmentally disabled persons into a community.

Figure 2.3-2
Community Living Logo

"The symbol [used by Community Living Canada, Ontario, Toronto, and others] is intended to convey a sense of vibrancy, movement and progression, in the same way that the organization and its people strive for progress toward Community Living for all."

-www.communitylivingontario.ca

SUPPORTED INDEPENDENT LIVING AND GROUP HOMES

"Normalization, Developmental Model, dignity of risk, right to choose, ability not disability, independence, accessibility, community….These terms, the watchwords of our current thinking about mental retardation, note that retarded people have entitlements to an existence and a style of life which approximates reality as the rest of us experience it…. .In the present quest for 'Normalization' and other ideals, we are working for community alternatives…. If these community alternatives are to be any more truly human and 'normal' than the Institutional alternative and some community alternatives of the past, we must begin by thinking about what living in the community means to us."

-(Carolyn Chrington and Gunner Dybwad, The Retarded Citizen in Quest of a Home p. ix)

"Community Living" is relatively new in the context of residential situations for persons with developmental disabilities, yet it has had a profound effect on the living conditions of many people. In basic terms, as described by the Vision Statement for the Community Living Association of Ontario, *"The goal of Community Living is that all persons live in a state of dignity, share in all elements of living in the community, and have the opportunity to participate effectively[2]."* It has a broader meaning than just non-Institutional living. Raymond Lifchez, of UC Berkeley's Department of Architecture writes in Design for Independent Living, *"The requirement for mainstreaming [another term referring to integration in relation to Community Living] is that people be truly in the world, spiritually and mentally, even though they may not be on the street or entirely on their own[3]."*

Community Living arrangements for persons with developmental disabilities include: foster homes, Institutions, nursing homes, Independent-Living, family homes, group homes, and Supported Independent Living (SIL). Supported Independent Living (SIL) units and group homes are the two models of Community Living arrangements used in the design portion of this thesis. These were selected as they reflect the supported situations that are most reflective of the spirit of

Figure 2.3-3
Staff Helping a Person with a Developmental Disability in a Group Home

A major difference between a SIL home and a group home is the level of external support for each. Group homes, with residents who require more support, often have live-in support-staff. Whereas, SIL homes, housing more independent persons, require less constant support.

Normalization, housing residents that would be the best capable of interacting with the community, and thus benefiting from this contact.

Supported Living homes can house any small number of residents (usually 1-6 in one unit[4]), and can offer individuals a level of support based on their particular changing needs and abilities. Challenges and Opportunities, explains, *"Typically, SIL clients go to work or to a training program during the day. A worker, however, may go to the client's apartment to assist him/her in the morning before work, in the evenings, or on weekends... and provides assistance required to live as independently as possible[5]."*

The group home, on the other hand, houses residents who require more support, often with a live-in support-worker. A group home is, *"a place, usually a house, where a group of unrelated persons, usually with a similar type of disability live. The home can provide supervision and training to help its residents adapt to living together and within the community[6]".* It is a place, like most homes, where residents sleep, eat and carry out tasks of daily living. The group home is unlike Institutions of the past that were self-contained. Rather, in this setting (like that of the SIL homes described above) residents leave the home for educational or vocational training, and to use amenities that are found in the community (work, shopping, places of worship, places of entertainment, etc.)

Chapter Three centers around the design of a group home complex (with varying degrees of support) for adults with developmental disabilities, which would be located within Trinity-Bellwoods Park. The complex consists of a series of Supported Independent Living homes, group homes, and a building that would house a day program and other support facilities.

In the Supported Independent Living homes, residents would have their own living quarters, with support from staff who would visit the persons as required. Residents would mostly take care of their own needs, but some may require training or supervision in daily-life decisions, such as items concerning the home, finances, or work.

The group homes would cater to those residents who require a greater deal of care, supervision, and training by staff that would be either live-in staff or there on a shift-basis.

The day program building would offer a wide range of services (including vocational training) that would support developmentally disabled persons who live in the complex and in the surrounding community, and would be closely connected to the local Community Centre and its already existing programs.

Figure 2.3-4
Resistance to Integration in the Community

Integration of persons with developmental disabilities has often been met with resistance by communities. This section attempts to address some of these concerns.

ADDRESSING SOME COMMUNITY CONCERNS

The initial Normalization movements, where developmentally disabled individuals were mainstreamed into public schools, into communities, and into the work environment, were predicated on the belief that the community would be accepting, have positive reactions, and would realize the benefits of socially interacting with such persons. Current research shows that these hopeful attitudes have not always come into fruition. Dr. Gail O'Conner, Researcher for Department of Social and Health Services for the United States writes, "*There is adequate documentation that the general public holds essentially negative attitudes toward integrating the developmentally disabled into the community*[7]*."*

What follows below is a discussion in response to some concerns, based on research collected in Urban Community Care for the Developmentally Disabled, that are often put forth by communities in opposition to SIL programs or group homes in their communities (as per Figure 2.3-5):

The first reason listed for community resistance in Figure 2.3-5, is economically-based. This reason for opposition to homes for developmentally disabled persons in neighbourhoods is predicated on the belief that this will create an undesirable element in the neighbourhood, and hence will cause property values to go down. In response to this concern, numerous studies carried out in Canada and in the United States have shown that there *"is no evidence that property values have declined because of the existence of a group home in a given neighbourhood*[8]*."*

Another concern, related to the one just stated above is that there exists a lack of trust that service providers will be able to maintain adequate standards and services. There are no facts to support this concern either. It is true that some harsh realities for this social services system are that it is still in its infancy and that it has grown, because of need, at a rapid pace[9]. This has led to a complexity of organization and a redundancy formed by bureaucracy[10]. Still, this does not affect the strict guidelines concerning the maintenance of such homes. The majority of current programs are sponsored by nonprofit organizations that either lease or own the property. The sponsor is involved

Figure 2.3-5
List of Some Reasons for Community Resistance to Integration of Persons with Developmental Disabilities into the Community.

in the planning, development, and maintenance of such programs. They are also subject to stringent by-laws and regulations, inspections, and other controls that group homes must comply with, before approvals are given, and also when they are in operation.

Ernest Koller, author of Urban Community Care for the Developmentally Disabled, suggests that the most common reasons for opposition to homes for developmentally disabled persons within communities are based on fear[11]. It has been shown in previous sections how, in the past, fear and prejudices towards this group led towards exclusionary tactics. Today, this same apprehension can still exist, with concerns stemming from a lack of knowledge about developmental disability or about such homes, and how they would fit into communities. There is also the unfounded belief that persons with developmental disabilities have an unpredictable behavior, and that residents of the community have reasons to fear from their actions. James G. Turner, author of Zoning Law for Group Homes and Community Residences, responds, *"retarded persons who live in group homes are no more physically or sexually aggressive than any other group in our society. In addition, the supervision provided by a group home is usually greater than that provided by many families so the chances of inappropriate behavior are even less[12]."*

In this way a group home, or a SIL home, is not a source of problems, rather it is a solution. It provides a supervised residential facility for persons that might otherwise be living in the very same neighbourhood in substandard conditions, or without any supervision. Dr. Pamela Cushing, an Anthropologist with a Canadian-based research background in Social Sciences, writes, *"When persons with developmental disabilities are given a supportive and adapted relational-ethical environment, they are able to claim power, often very creatively, over many of their choices… implicitly contest[ing] the discriminating limiting stereotypes applied to them as a group and as individuals.*[13]*"*

Ultimately, community acceptance relates to quality of life. Predominantly negative cultural

attitudes can cause marginalization, and inhibit our collective ability to value and recognize what persons with intellectual disabilities offer amongst us. For if they become too segregated, then they will be subjected to another type of institution conceptually.

Community integration can be improved by focusing on similarities and what persons with developmental disabilities can do, rather than what they cannot or their dependence. Solutions in place today often take the form of lobbying to make the public aware and to dispel fears of persons with developmental disabilities. This thesis also proposes to use the community park, and allotment gardens, as a place where interaction between the community and the marginalized group can occur. The intention is that this interface would aid in dispelling fear. The shift needed, as discussed in Chapter One, is towards a greater appreciation of what society stands to gain by diversity in the community, including persons with intellectual disabilities because of what they can, and could offer.

Figure 2.3-6 (this page) and Figure 2.3-7 (following page) Group Homes

These two homes are both examples of houses that were designed with the context of homes in the neighbourhoods in mind.

The exterior design shown in Figure 2.3-6 "fits into its context" at the expense of losing opportunities for creating connections to the street.

Contrastingly, the design of the home in Figure 2.3-7 uses threshold elements, such as a deep porch, to encourage interaction between the residents of the home and the community.

PHYSICAL INTEGRATION – LOCATION, CONTEXT, AND SIZE

A major aspect of Normalization is the mainstreaming of a person with special needs into society. As was seen with the institutional asylum there is a danger to segregation. Wolfensberger writes, *"if the goal is preparing a person toward independence and normative functioning, then we must prepare him to function in the context of the ordinary societal contacts which he is expected to have and to handle adaptively in the future*[14]*."* He points out that the values of society have shifted, that now a person can no longer be separated from society because his/her presence is seen as unpleasant -the same holds true for any group of persons, whether it is in terms of race, social class, or disability.

The external and internal appearance of a residential home can bring about certain attitudes or associated connotations. If a home for special needs persons looks like a hospital or a prison, it is more likely for the community to see the people who live there as "sick" or as "criminals". For example, if a drain is put in the middle of a living room floor, as was done in some institutions, then there would be some unavoidable assumptions made about the persons who occupy that space.

The design aspect of this thesis has taken careful consideration in regards to what the building perception is to be, that is, how the residential facility is to be perceived by the public. This has been dealt with through decisions about: what the external appearance of the home is and what the intended relationship to the community, in which the home exists in, is hoped to be. Buildings and their settings permit social interaction on the physical level and are facilitated by many factors such as: location, context, and size.

Locating homes for developmentally disabled individuals in urban communities has many benefits. It provides a variety of places to meet and interact with different types of people. More interaction with community members fosters understanding, which can lead to acceptance. It also affords the person amenities that are crucial to independent living, such as: bus systems, grocery stores, Community Centres, and places of employment. Further, as described in Section-1.3, this type of environment is most likely to absorb a group of special needs persons best[15]; contributing to

Figure 2.3-7
Group Home

(Refer to note on previous page under Figure 2.3-6)

self-sufficiency and decreased dependency on external support or staff.

For developmentally challenged persons who have been brought up in their parents' or relatives' homes, in need of alternative living arrangements, there needs to be a considerate and smooth transition from their previous home to the group home. An urban location, where residents can live within the environment they have been accustomed to, is beneficial, and would greatly aid in the transition process. Also, being located in communities allows for the person to be in closer range to their family. Close proximity makes visiting between the residential home and the family's home more likely, a mutual advantage to the resident, their family, and staff.

A community-based location of a home for developmentally disabled adults, who come from institutions, means something different -*"because of their age, length of stay, the location of the reason for their initial placement, lost any close ties that they may have had with their families and home communities…. As a result, their behavior has been adapted to institutional demands and expectations*[16]*…"* For such persons, it is important to introduce and teach new skills that are required for effective Community Living, such as: employability skills, concepts of time, concepts of orientation (especially in today's diverse communities), use of public transportation, socializing in the residential and external recreational settings, shopping skills, interpersonal skills on the one-to-one level, and how to interact with others within the community.

It is important for the home or facility to make a symbolic identification with its neighbours. This is not to say that the architecture must conform to the style of its neighbours. Rather, it needs to be sensitive to its surroundings, reflecting the character of the area, *"neither overshadowing it's neighbors in size, nor providing services that upset the neighborhood's natural balance*[17]*."* Further, if the building becomes a symbol of normality, even innovation, the residence-community gap can better be bridged.

Barred and gated homes give the impression that there is imminent danger, or something to fear. Creating a home, that has areas where opportunities for residents and the community at large to interact will help dispel fears and create interpersonal contact.

"The Normalization Principle dictates here one of its major corollaries: every effort should be made not to congregate deviant persons in numbers larger than the surrounding (community) social systems can absorb and integrate[18]*."* This implies a modestly-sized facility dependent on individual sites and the communities they exist in.

The actual number defining "modestly-sized" is arguable. W. P. Gerry (author of Community Homes for the Retarded) speculates that the most appropriate number of people in a residence is 8 to 10 with *"a mixed neighborhood –one with apartments, one-family dwellings, older and younger people, and transient as well as permanent neighbours*[19]*."* Whereas, Psychologist L. Glenn (who specialized in Normalization) propose that 15 to 20 is the upper limit for a residential home and that it should look no larger than a large family home[20]. L. Ziemianski (in Interrelationships of Community Residences for the Handicapped with their Surrounding Localities) concluded from her observations of various community residences that the numbers 6-12 had a higher assimilation rate into neighborhoods and community acceptance[21]. And Sociologist M. P. Janicki (specializing in the area of older adults with developmental disabilities) writes, *"Research supports the idea that 4 to 6 persons is within a lower group limit. However, a homelike atmosphere cannot be achieved when the group becomes unwieldy and individuality is hampered. The upper limit appears to fall in the 10 to 14 person range*[22]*."* Others cite that the size of a group home is not a factor in personal development at all.

In the end issues of size relate to the specific site and community that the home is designed for. The design portion of this thesis has taken these issues into consideration, and is discussed more specifically in Chapter Three.

(Endnotes)

1 Wolf Wolfensberger, The Origin & Nature of our Institutional Models (New York: Human Policy Press, 1975), p. 50.
2 *"Vision Statement,"* Community Living Ontario <http://www.communitylivingontario.ca/about/vision.html>
3 Raymond Lifches, Design for Independent Living (London: The Architectural Press Ltd., 1979) p.20.
4 Challenges and Opportunities: Community Living for People with Developmental Handicaps (Ontario: Ministry of Community and Social Services, 1987), p.16.
5 Ibid. p.15.
6 James G. Turner, Zoning Law for Group Homes and Community Residences (Toronto: Ontario Association for the Mentally Retarded, 1984), p.1.
7 Verdiansky and Parker. Residential Provision for the Mentally Handicapped in Living Environments for Developmentally Retarded Persons (Baltimore: University Park Press, 1981), p.165.
8 James G. Turner, Zoning Law for Group Homes and Community Residences (Toronto: Ontario Association for the Mentally Retarded, 1984), p.5.
9 Challenges and Opportunities: Community Living for People with Developmental Handicaps (Ontario: Ministry of Community and Social Services, 1987), p.15.
10 Ibid. p.20.
11 Ernest Koller, *"Community Relations in the Context of Social Change,"* Urban Community Care for the Developmentally Disabled (Springfield: Bannerstone House, 1980), p.50.
12 James G. Turner, Zoning Law for Group Homes and Community Residences (Toronto: Ontario Association for the Mentally Retarded, 1984), p.5.
13 Pamela J. Cushing, Negotiating Mutuality and Agency in Care-Giving Relationships with Women with Intellectual Disabilities <http://www.pamelacushing.com/index2.html?larche-biblio.shtml>
14 Wolf Wolfensberger, The Principle of Normalization in Human Services *(*Toronto: National Institute on Mental Retardation, 1972), p. 45.
15 Wolf Wolfensberger, The Principle of Normalization in Human Services *(*Toronto: National Institute on Mental Retardation, 1972), p. 48.
16 M. P. Janicki, Community Living Alternatives (Montreal: 1979), p. 12. [paper presented at 38th Annual Meeting of American Psychological Association]
17 Ibid. p. 20.
18 Wolf Wolfensberger, The Principle of Normalization in Human Services *(*Toronto: National Institute on Mental Retardation, 1972), p. 49
19 W.P. Gerry, Community Homes for the Retarded (Mass.: Lexington Books, 1975), p. 84.
20 L.Glenn, The Mentally Retarded Citizen and the Law (New York: The Free Press, 2005), p.50.
21 L. Ziemianski, Interrelationships of Community Residences for the Handicapped with their Surrounding Localities. (New York: Eleanor Roosevelt Development Services, 1997), p.11
22 M. P. Janicki, Community Living Alternatives (Montreal: 1979), p. 11. [paper presented at 38th Annual Meeting of American Psychological Association]

CHAPTER 3:
DESIGN

SUMMARY

Section 3.1 describes the current conditions of the site area. The section begins with a look at the Garrison Creek park system. It then moves on to describing the area around, and items of interest within, Trinity-Bellwoods Park. The section concludes with focusing on the specific site within the park.

Section 3.2 is the design portion of the thesis. First, there is a discussion of the program elements included and the specific site strategy taken with the site. The design is then presented, along with a description of detailed design choices.

The chapter ends with an overall conclusion for the thesis.

3.1 MAPPING CURRENT CONDITIONS

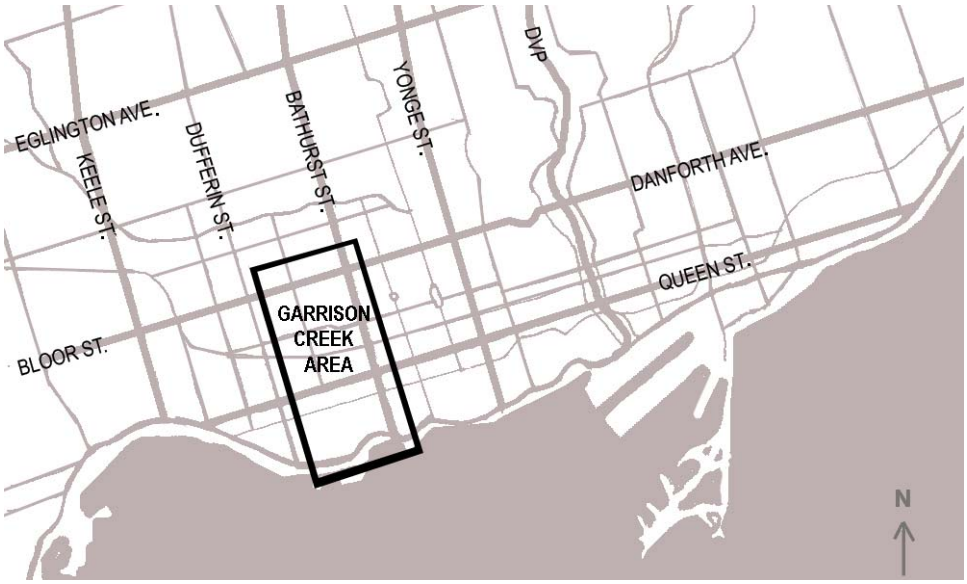


Figure 3.1-1
Locating the Garrison Creek Area on a Map of Toronto (N.T.S.)
2007

SITE IN THE CITY

The site chosen for this design is within Trinity-Bellwoods Park, along the Garrison Creek Park System, located in the west part of downtown Toronto, Ontario, Canada.

The following mappings in this section will illustrate the area in more detail -from a general perspective of the Trinity-Bellwoods area, to a more detailed description of the specific site within Trinity-Bellwoods Park.

GARRISON CREEK AREA

The following is a series of mappings that describe the Garrison Creek area. A brief description of the significance of the mappings is outlined below.

The park system itself spans inner-city neighbourhoods from the waterfront to north of Bloor Street (Christie Pits Park). The Trinity-Bellwoods area is bordered by other uniquely characteristic and culturally diverse neighbourhoods; such as Chinatown to the east, Little Portugal to the west, and Little Italy to the north (refer to Figure 3.1-2).

Figure 3.1-3 illustrates designated zoning along the park system. The area primarily comprises of low-density residential areas, with concentrations of commercial areas along main roads, and mixed-industrial zones in the southern portion (ending at the waterfront).

The next map, Figure 3.1-4, shows various infrastructural elements used by the mainstream public. The purpose of this diagram is to illustrate the accessibility and availability of various community amenities within the area. As described in chapter one, locating a residential facility in an urban environment which has access to normalized facilities, affords disadvantaged groups with experiences that are necessary for independent living, and is demonstrative of an environment that can absorb a group of special needs persons effectively. Also of particular interest is the location of several community centres in various community parks along the System. Placing supportive housing in these parks affords opportunities for linkage and support from these community centres, and by extension, a further connection to the community.

Figure 3.1-5 maps other supportive housing in the area, both privately and municipally operated. The map shows that there tends to be a concentration of such residences along arterial roads, and that only a handful are connected to parks or open spaces. It also shows that this area already has the capacity to contain supportive housing, and that there is a need for such homes in this area.

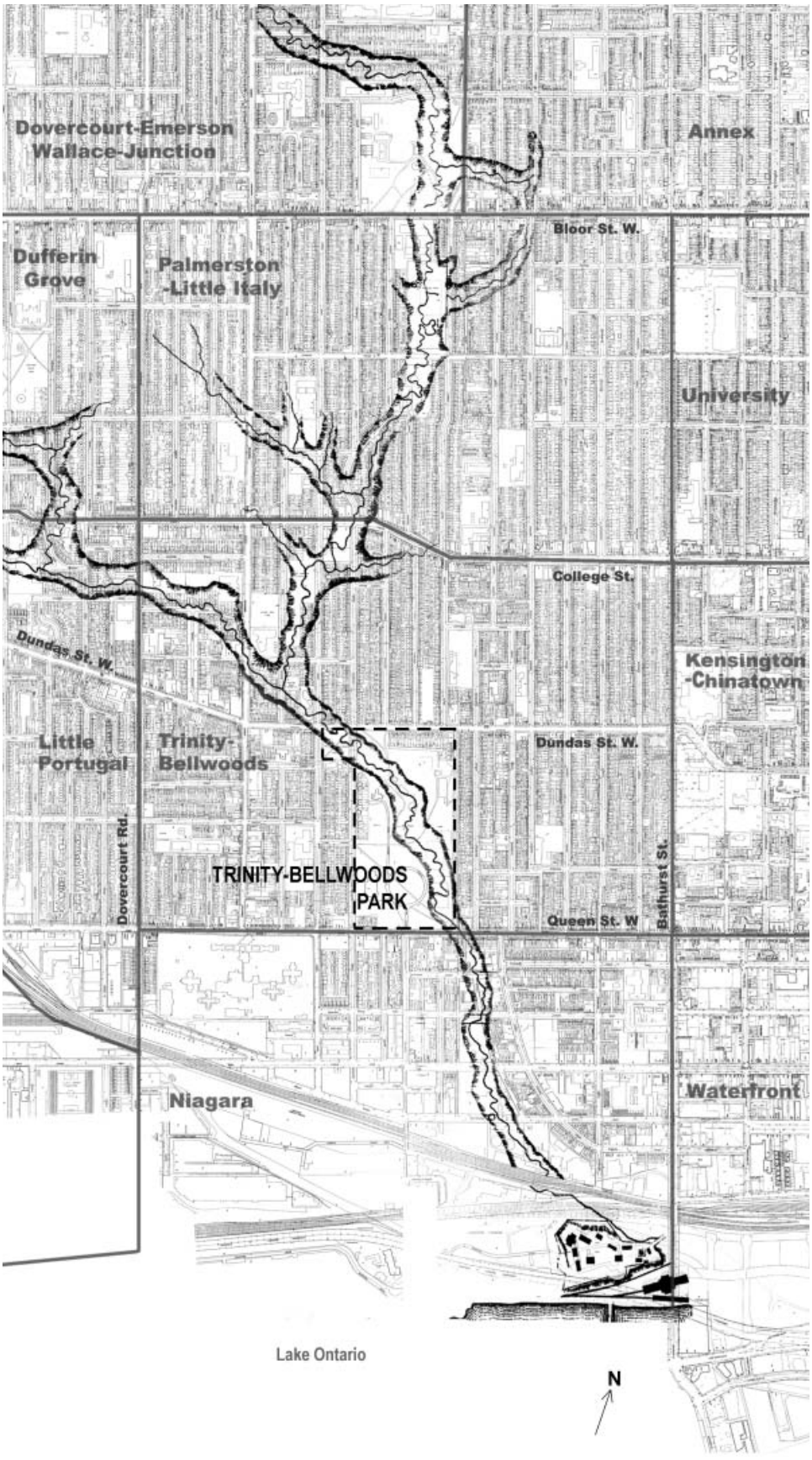


Figure 3.1-2
Map of Neighbourhoods within and Bordering the Garrison Creek Area 2006

Scale - 1:15,000

The neighbourhood boundaries on this map are defined by the Social Policy Analysis and Research Unit for the City of Toronto, and are based on research from Statistics Canada Census Tracts.

This map, and the following maps, are overlayed with the former Garrison Creek Profile (for reference).

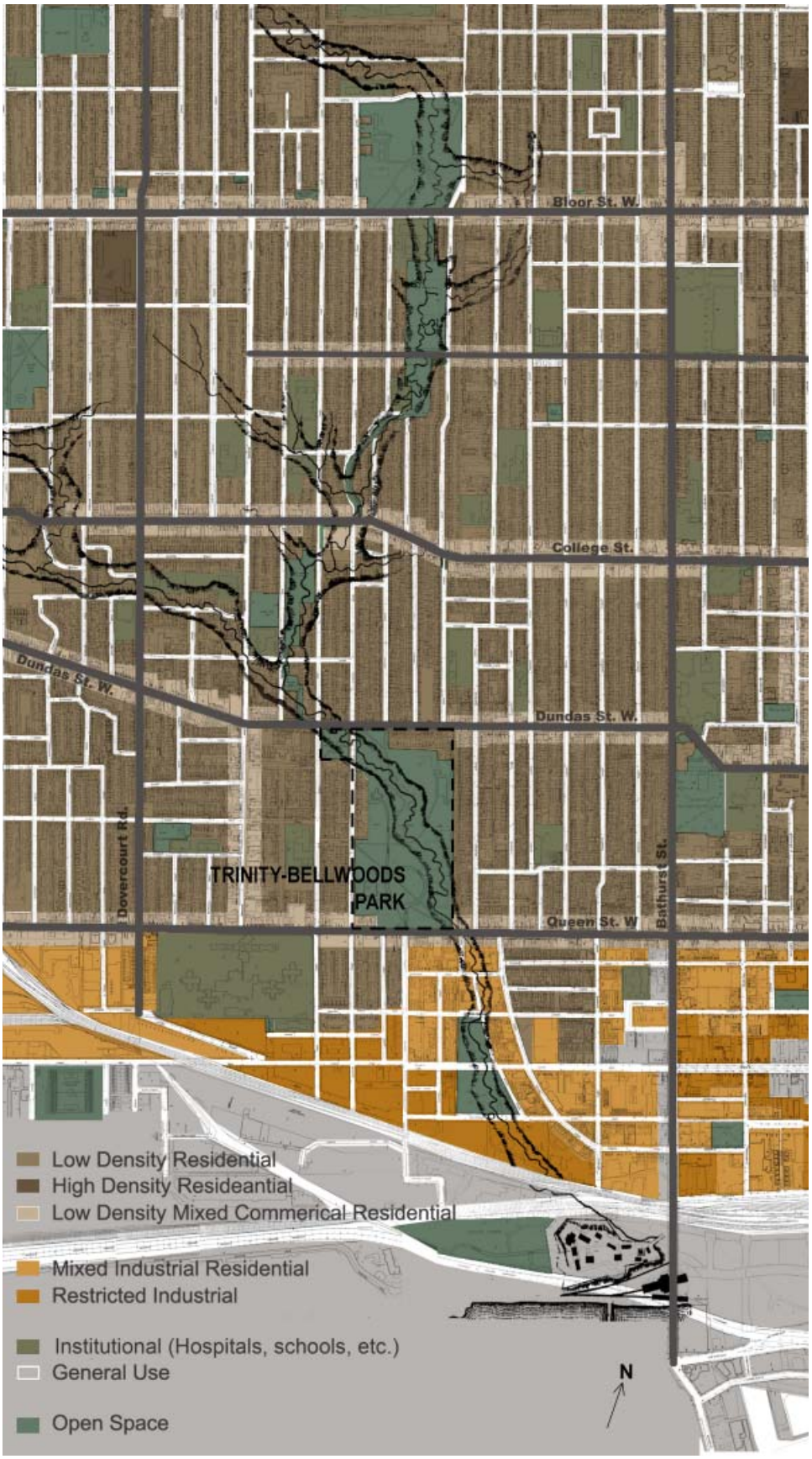


Figure 3.1-3
Map of Garrison Creek Area Zoning 2005

Scale - 1:15,000

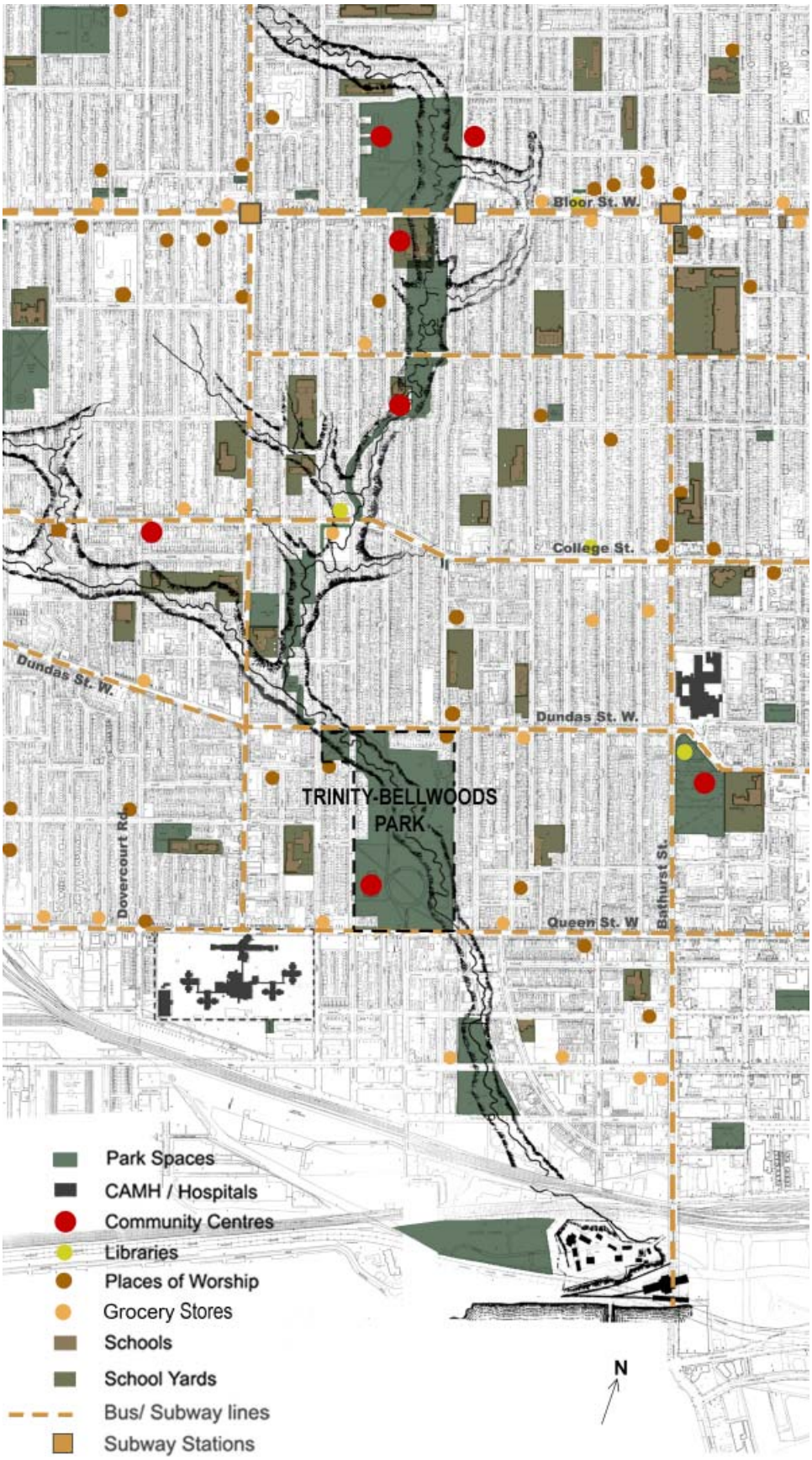


Figure 3.1-4
Map of Some Mainstream Supportive Infrastructure in the Garrison Creek Area 2007

Scale - 1:15,000

Information in this map is compiled from various maps of Toronto.

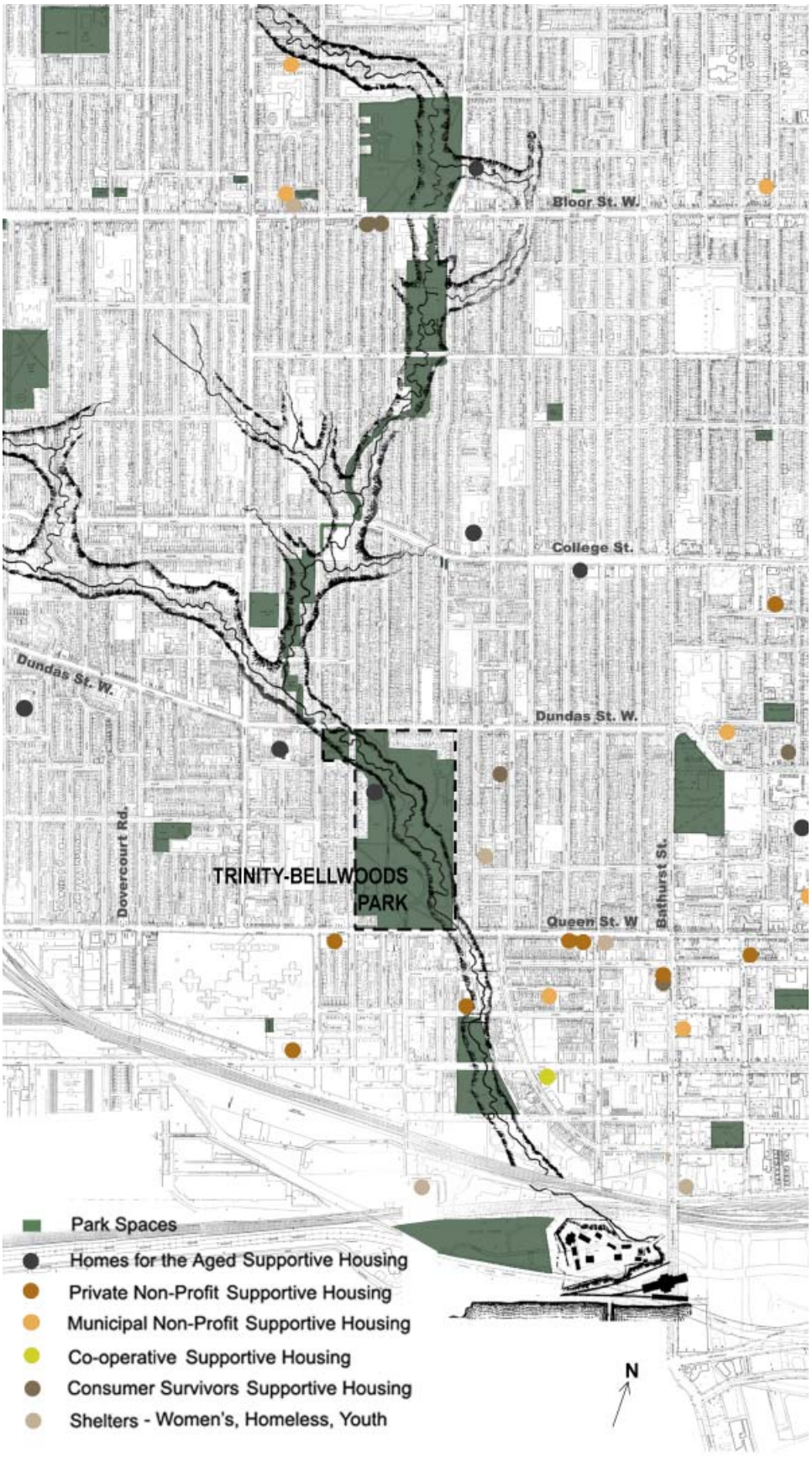


Figure 3.1-5
Map of Supportive Housing in the Garrison Creek Area
2007

Scale - 1:15,000

The location (and classification) of housing on this map is derived from addresses provided in the "Guide to Social Housing in Toronto - 1998" (found in the Toronto Urban Affairs Reference Library) and updated using Google Maps information.

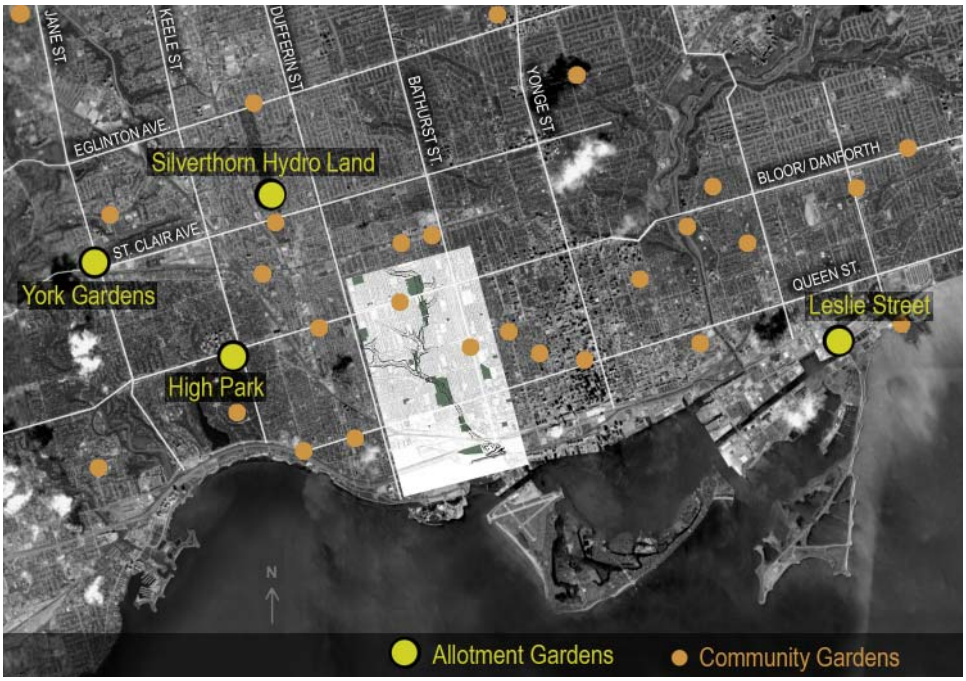


Figure 3.1-6
Map of Allotment and Community Gardens in Downtown area of Toronto (N.T.S.)
2007

The mapping shows that the number of allotment gardens are far less than the number of community gardens in downtown Toronto.

Figure 3.1-6 identifies various allotment and community gardens in Toronto. Although similar, the City of Toronto defines the two garden-types differently: The City's website describes a community garden as being built and maintained by a community-formed group[1]; whereas an allotment garden differs in that it is run by a group that owns or controls the property[2]. An allotment also offers social interaction by way of working together co-operatively, but differs in that one is assigned a plot and pays a seasonal or annual fee. There are only eleven of these types of gardens around Toronto, only a handful of which are in the downtown core[3]. A recent article in NOW magazine explains that these, *"allotment gardens are full, but there's no plans for more[4]."* The article describes that there are 1617 spaces, all of which are filled, with each allotment having long waiting lists (demonstrating demand for such a garden-type). *"Last year, the prized High Park Allotment location had two names carried over from last year's waiting list[5]."*

Walking in the Trinity-Bellwoods area during the summer months is enough to reveal the fondness of gardening that many residents in the area have. It is a neighbourhood that is rich in front-yard gardens, whose owners have taken great pride in creating and tending-to -especially in the Little Italy area just north of the site.

As described in chapter one, neighbourhood allotment gardens are included in this design as tools for personal healing and as a method for social interaction for both the disadvantaged group and the community-at-large. Such a feature would indeed thrive in a neighbourhood that is connected to a rich gardening culture.

A neighbourhood allotment is the garden-type used in the design. The reason this type was chosen is because of the way ownership is distributed. If the disadvantaged group is in a position of stewardship over the gardens, then they invariably have equal status there and a sense of belonging in this space. Rental of land can also be generative of funds for the group, and ensures that people who have something invested in the garden will take care of it and maintain it. Also, those that rent garden space would know that the allotment is run by a particular group, thus supporting the ideas of integration and interaction that are being promoted.

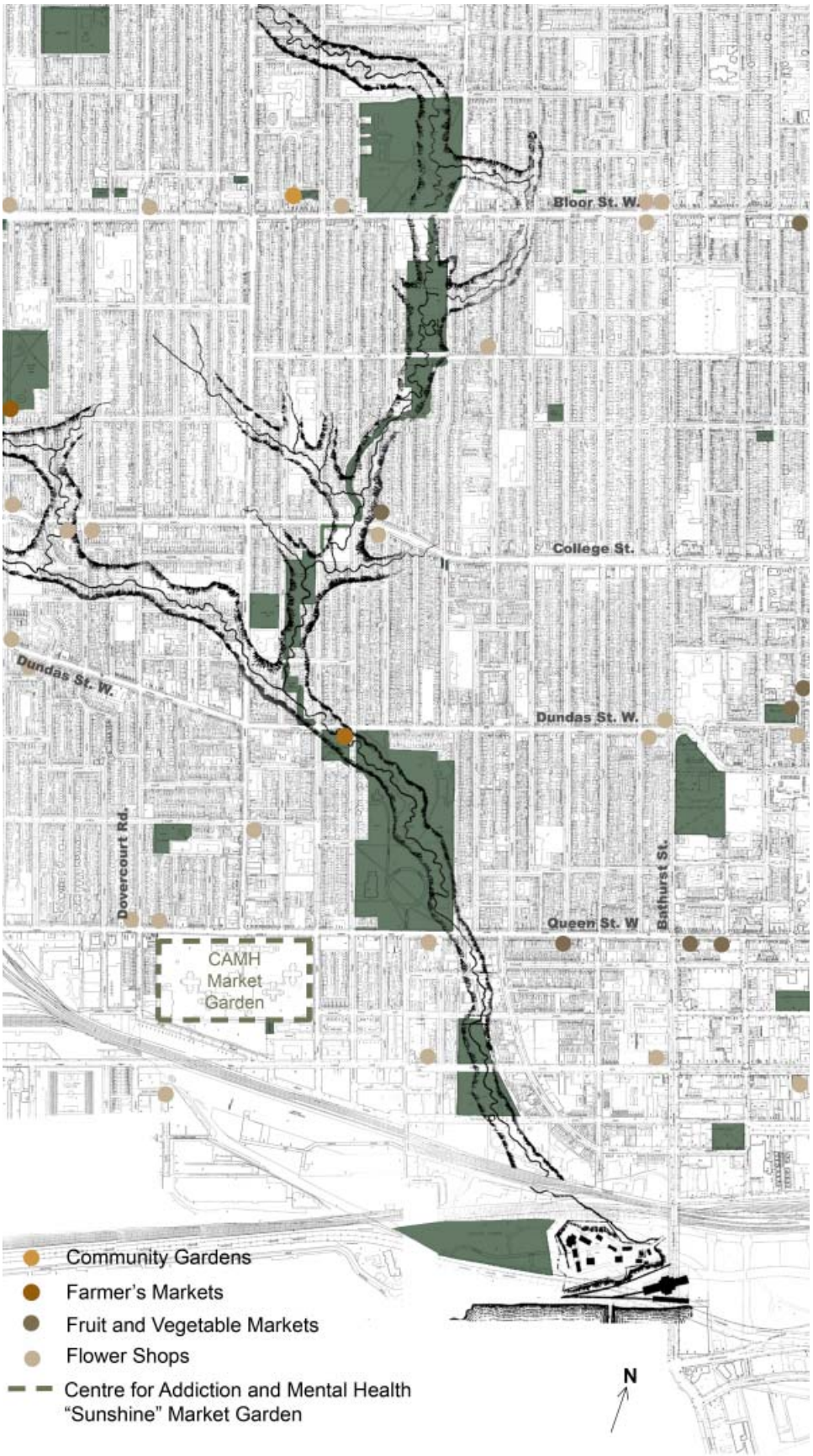


Figure 3.1-7
Map of Known Gardening-related Locations in the Garrison Creek Area
2007

Scale - 1:15,000

This map is meant as a more detailed extension of Figure 3.1-6, and shows various markets, garden-related shops, and community gardens in the Garrison Creek area.

Figure 3.1-8
Picture of Wading Pool in Trinity-Bellwoods Park

TRINITY-BELLWOODS PARK

This section focuses-in from the maps of the Garrison Creek area to the specific park. Trinity-Bellwoods Park is part of the Garrison-Park System and Discovery-Walk Trail that runs along the site of the former flowing creek. The park is bordered by busy Queen Street West to the south, shop-lined Dundas Street to the north, and Victorian-row-housed Gore Vale Street to the east. The north-south running Crawford Street, bounds the site to the west, and stops one block south of Dundas Street, where the park extends further west one block to Shaw Street (refer to Figure 3.1-9).

Built structures within the park include (refer to Figure 3.1-10): a community centre with an indoor pool, retail stores along Queen Street, private homes, garages, and small sheds related to recreational elements. The main park area has (informal) field space for soccer and football, volleyball courts, a children's playground, a wading pool, softball fields, tennis courts, and an outdoor rollerblade rink (ice rink in winter).

Local residents frequently jog, skate, or walk their dogs along the lighted paths in the park. A remnant of the ravine within the park, known as the "dog bowl", is a popular designated leash-free area, and is also used as a sledding hill in the winter[6].

The park is also the site of various cultural events, such as the Anarchist Book Fair, Portugal Day, summer-time Farmer's Market, Nuit Blanche, the Queen West Art Crawl, and the Alley Jaunt (where the park's laneways and garages get transformed into art gallery space for the annual event)[7].

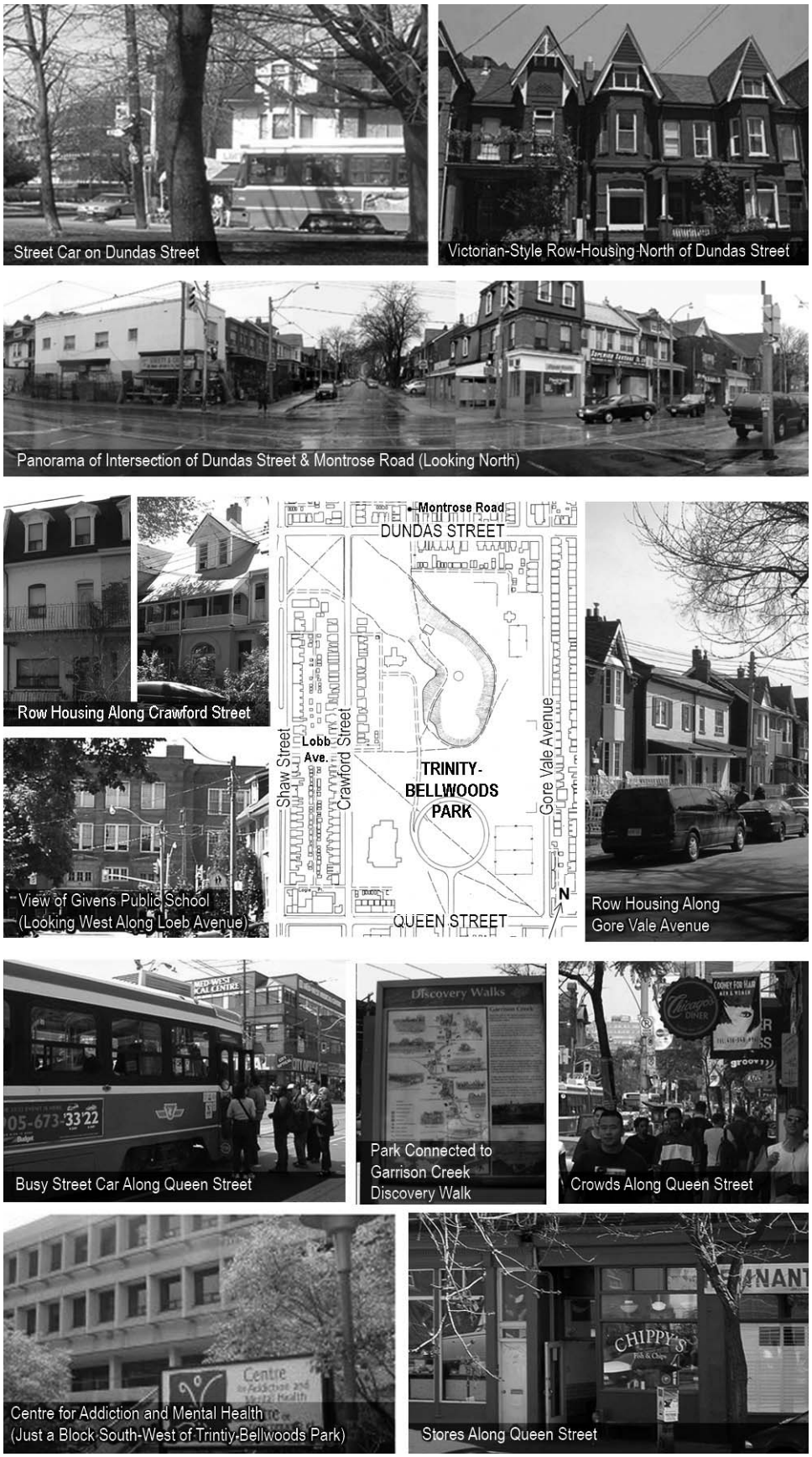


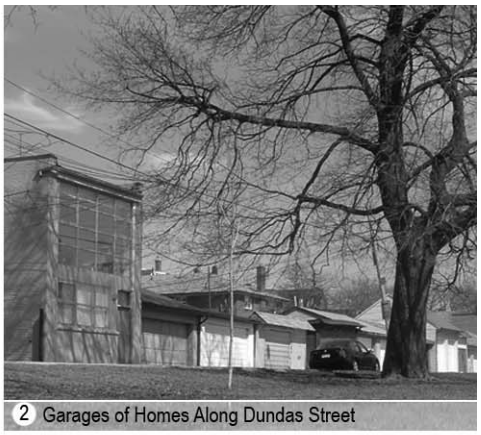
Figure 3.1-9
Map and Pictures of Trinity-Bellwoods Park Surrounding Area
2007

Map Scale - 1:10,000

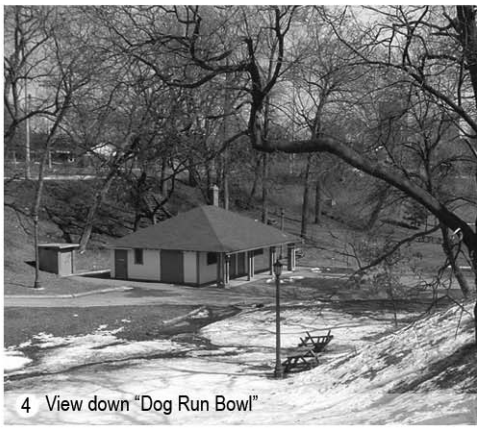
Figure 3.1-10
Map of Trinity-Bellwoods Park
2007

Scale - 1:4000


1 St. John the Babtist Church

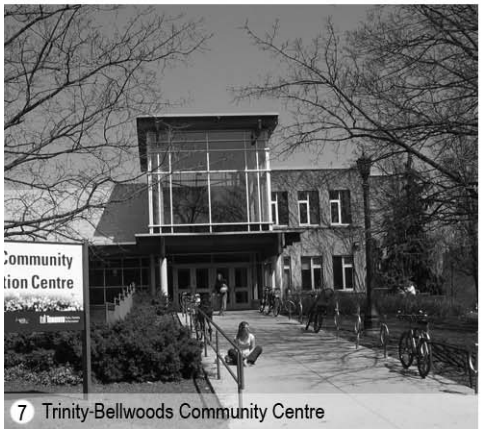

2 Garages of Homes Along Dundas Street


3 John Gibson House (Home for the Aged)


4 View down "Dog Run Bowl"


5 Paths - Walking, Biking, Inline Skating, and Running


6 View of Tennis Court and CN Tower, (looking south-east)



7 Trinity-Bellwoods Community Centre


8 Restored Trinity-Bellwoods Gates

Figure 3.1-11
Pictures of Some "Items of Interest" in Trinity-Bellwoods Park


30


Fenced Backyards
Path to John Gibson House (Home for the Aged)
LOBB STREET
Informal Entrance into Park
PLAY GROUND
FOCUS AREA
CRAWFORD STREET
CHILDREN'S WATER FEATURE
Open Area
VOLLEY BALL COURT
TEATHER BALL AREA
parking
TRINITY-BELLWOODS COMMUNITY CENTRE
TRINITY CIRCLE

SITE

The focus area chosen for the design of the supportive housing complex is in the central-west side of the park. It is bounded by Trinity-Bellwoods Community Centre to the south, Crawford Street to the west, fenced Victorian-style housing to the north, and bleeds into the park to the east.

Current uses in this space include: a volleyball court, a children's playground, a tetherball area, a summer-time wading pool, and a quiet treed area with benches.

The termination of Lobb Street at Crawford extends into an informal entrance into the park. As can be seen in Figure 3.1-12 it is paved and lined with trees. There exists opportunity to create a more formal entry, in addition to this one, connected to the community centre.

Figure 3.1-12 (top, spread) Elevation of Site (and details of elevation) Along Crawford Road, looking east (N.T.S.)

Figure 3.1-13 (bottom, left on previous page)
Existing Conditions

1:1000

The proposed site is highlighted on this map.

(Endnotes)

1 *"Community Gardens Programs"* City of Toronto <http://www.toronto.ca/parks/programs/community_faq.htm>
2 Ibid.
3 Paul Terefenko, NOW: Harvesting denial, Oct. 2007 <http://www.nowtoronto.com/issues/2007-10-11/news_story2.php>
4 Ibid.
5 Ibid.
6 *"Neighborhood Watch: Trinity Bellwoods,"* BlogTO <http://www.blogto.com/city/2006/11/neighborhood_watch_trinity_bellwoods/>
7 Alley Jaunt <http://www.alleyjaunt.com/>

3.2 DESIGN:

Figure 3.2-1
Gardening

In this design, gardening is used as a tool for personal healing and development.

DESIGN SUMMARY - PROGRAM ELEMENTS

The final design proposal is a model for integration of supportive housing (and gardens) within reconnected urban park-systems. The intent is to re-invest the landscape with greater purpose and to create an inclusive environment where interaction and communication between the community and its disadvantaged members are encouraged.

This design is for a group-home complex, with varying degrees of support, for adults with developmental disabilities within Trinity-Bellwoods Park. The scheme consists of Supported Independent Living (SIL) units, group homes, an allotment garden, an outdoor market space, and a building that will house a day program and other support facilities. Each element will be explained briefly below and expanded upon later in this section.

As discussed in Chapter 2.3, Supported Independent Living (SIL) units and group homes are the two models of supported-residences used in the design portion of this thesis. These housing types were selected because they reflect a supported environment most reflective of the spirit of Normalization; housing residents that would be best capable of interacting with the community and benefiting from this contact.

In the design there will be four SIL homes shared by six persons each. These homes would house residents who are mostly capable of taking care of their own needs, possibly with some external support from case-workers who visit residents, but do not live there. There will also be a double room in each home for couples with developmental disabilities. Furthermore, these homes are meant to help integrate persons into a normalized setting and as such, will reflect the character of a normal residential family home.

There are also two group homes in the design (See section 2.3 for definition of a group home). The group homes would accommodate eleven residents each, who require a greater deal of care and supervision by a live-in care worker. The care worker would be part of the home and would also be able to access his/her unit separately. Allowing for this personal space will help the care

Figure 3.2-2
Gardening

In this design, gardening is also used as a tool for interaction and communication between the community and its disadvantaged members.

worker maintain his/her own personal life while living at the same time with the residents.

A day program building is also part of this design. The building is meant to be at the center of a range of services that would support developmentally disabled persons who live in the complex and in the surrounding community. It houses various programmatic elements such as; an adult day program, a greenhouse, and a store.

Day programs typically offer instruction and support towards developing life and social skills for its clients. This day program building will house offices where case-workers can work with clients, a classroom where lectures can be given, an activity area for general use, and another activity area connected to the greenhouse meant for activities associated with gardening. Keeping in mind previous discussions on gardening and inclusion, the programs will have a strong focus on gardening as a recreational, therapeutic, and vocational element (refer to “Healing Garden” section of chapter 1.3). Spaces to support these activities will include a greenhouse, a store, and allotment gardens.

The intent is that the allotment gardens will be a place of interaction, where residents can mingle with the community in a supportive setting.

The greenhouse and store are meant to address vocational training aspects of the day program. The greenhouse is a place where gardening can take place year-round for both therapy and training. The store and market space would be a place where products that are grown as part of the day program could be sold. These aspects can also be generative of funds and further encourage positive interaction with the community.

Figure 3.2-3
Diagram of Site Strategy

1:1000

The area bounded by the red box is the park space appropriated for private use. The other program elements (gardens, day program, market space, and entrances) are still part of the public domain.

SITE STRATEGY & CONNECTIONS

Existing site conditions were described in section 3.1 of this chapter. Also introduced were various opportunities for intensification and development of connections between the street, the park, the community centre, the proposed residential facility and day program, and the proposed allotment garden space. Figure 3.2-3 illustrates these various connective opportunities. The volleyball court, playground, and wading pool would be relocated to other spaces in the park.

At the Shaw Street end of Lobb Street is Givens Public school. The termination of the Street on Crawford extends into an informal entry into the park. This existing path will be left relatively intact and will focus on children's activities, helping to create a connection between the school and various program elements in the park. The introduction of the residential facility and garden space will further define this path and maintain it as an informal entry into the park.

There is also an intention to create a second entry from Crawford Street into the park that is more formal in nature. This space is intended to have the dual function of entry as well as an outdoor farmer's-market-type space. This function already exists on the north-west corner of the park. Moving the market space between the day program and the community centre will create a more defined setting where the community and supportive housing residents can come together to sell what the residents have planted. This has the benefits of linkage and intensification of activity between the designed facility and the existing community centre.

Chapter Two illustrated the history of residential environments for developmentally disabled persons. It was shown how the architecture used reflected attitudes towards the group and symbolized the relationship between the community and disadvantaged groups. For example, remoteness and high gates suggested that there was something to fear from these groups. As a result of these lessons from the past, concepts of inclusion have been stressed in this thesis. Designing homes that are sensitive to their surroundings are important to building bridges between the community and the residents of the homes.

Figure 3.2-4
New Designed Formal Entry to Park and Linkage Between Day Program Building and Community Centre

A street face of similar scale to other homes in the area allows for physical integration into the community. Careful regard for setbacks and continuation of the height of surrounding homes will maintain the scale of the street. Street presence should be encouraged through porch-like conditions and balconies, thus bringing life to the street.

In an attempt to respect the scale of the park, the portion of the home facing the park is more intimate in scale. Grade changes help delineate between private spaces of the home (i.e. backyard and porch) and public park space.

The allotment gardens should be designed to be a medium between the park and the residential facility. With the gardens being so close to the residential facility, issues concerning degrees of privacy and encouragement of interaction will have to be taken into account. The gardens should also offer places of casual interaction, such as walkways, seating and gathering patios.

Figure 3.2-5
Picture of Model done by Brown + Storey Architects of their Trinity-Bellwoods Park Plan

DESCRIPTION OF B+S TRINITY-BELLWOODS PARK PLAN

Chapter 2.2 described the Brown + Storey Architects' proposal for the Garrison Creek Linkage Plan. Along with general strategies for the whole system, there were also focused park plans, with each proposed park development focusing on different amenities. Various versions were imagined; Figure 3.2-6 illustrates one possibility for Trinity-Bellwoods Park, the largest park in the system, and the site chosen for this thesis.

The most apparent of design features in the Brown + Storey proposal is the reinstatement of the ravine profile. As for programming, not all existing functions are accounted for (such as tennis courts). Still, new program elements are included such as: various retention ponds (to store and filter water, connecting to the existing underground storm water lines), fountains, bridges, arcades, paths, gardens, treed areas, and terraces.

The proposal also includes the reinstatement of St. Hilda's Walk, a historic pedestrian walk lined with elm trees, that starts from Queen street, passing the community centre, ending at the John Gibson House (used to be St. Hilda's College)[1]. A second paved path running parallel to St. Hilda's walk is also included in Brown + Storey's design. Between these two paths is an intensification of some of the program elements listed above.

REGENERATION PLAN
A1 - New pedestrian bridge
A2 - Excavated Crawford bridge
A3 - New public arcade
A4 - St. Hilda's walk restored

FACILITIES
B1 - New seniors residences mows
B2 - Grass ampitheater
B3 - Children's playground
B4 - Children's wading pool
B5 - John Gibson House
B6 - Trinity-Bellwoods Centre

WATER LANDSCAPE ELEMENTS
C1 - Access points to existing underground stormwater lines
C2 - High pool and fountain
C3 - Cascading landscape/ fountain
C4 - Dam and waterfall
C5 - South water spray fountain
C6 - Water mist fountain

URBAN & NATURAL LANDSCAPE
D1 - View Promontory
D2 - Skate boards/ inline skates sculptural landscape
D3 - Queen street terrace
D4 - Dundas street terrace

Figure 3.2-6
Brown +Storey Architects' Proposed Trinity-Bellwoods Park Plan

1:3000

DESIGN

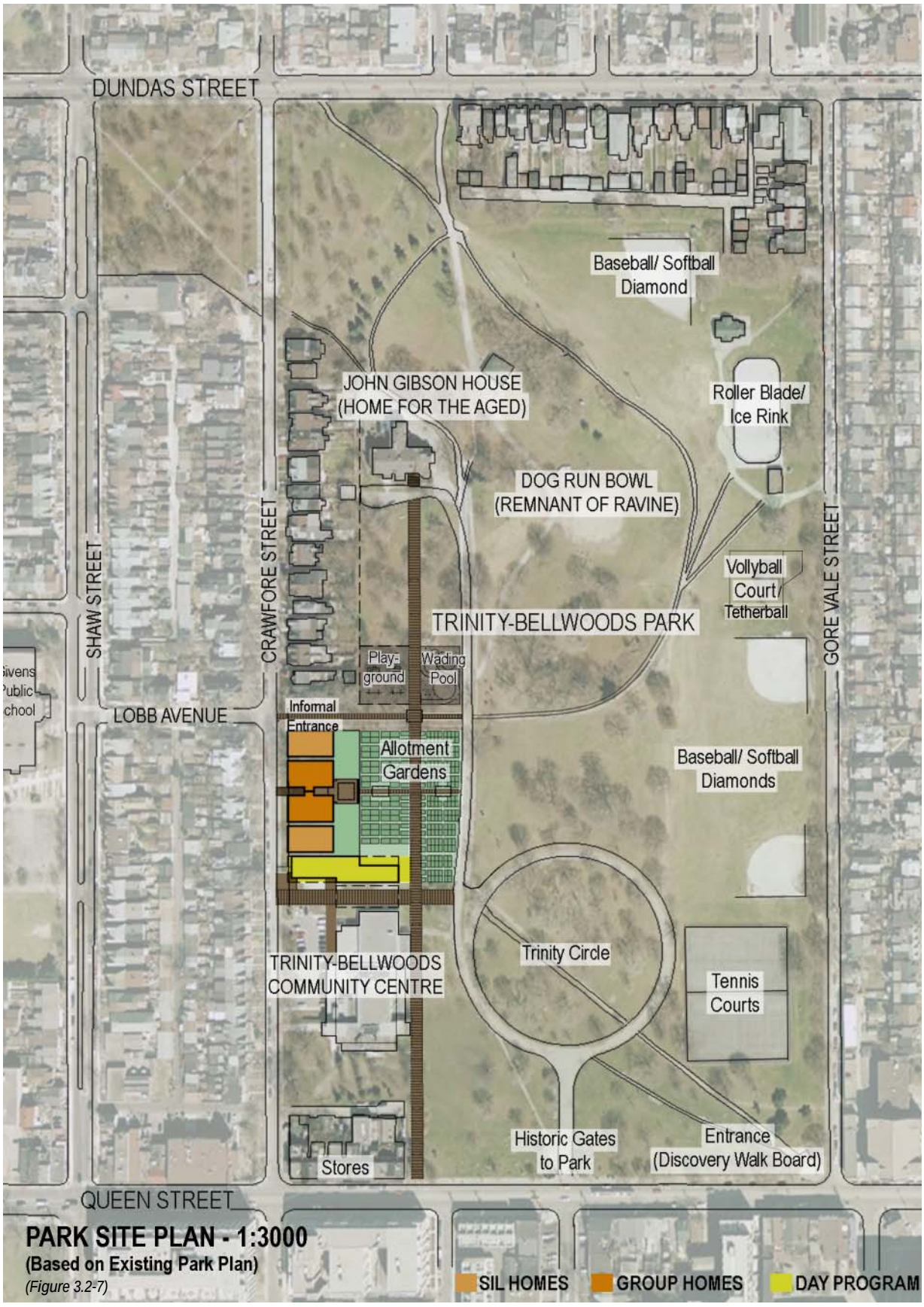
The two versions that will be described next are demonstrative of the spectrum of possible park designs that could be implemented if the design of the group home complex were to be carried through; ranging from working with existing conditions to using a completely re-envisioned park plan. Although Brown + Storey Architects' design proposal for Trinity-Bellwoods Park is used as a basis for this design, it is not necessary for it to be implemented to have the design carried through.

Figure 3.2-7 shows the design introduced into the existing park plan. No new functions are added (as is the case in Brown + Storey's plans), and existing functions displaced by the design insertion are accounted for. The volleyball court and tetherball areas are moved close to the Gore Vale Avenue side of the park, creating a sports axis along this edge. This strategy is also used in the second version of the park plan shown in Figure 3.2-8.

St. Hilda's walk is re-instated as part of the design. This path would create connections between the community centre, the day program, the homes, the allotment gardens, and the John Gibson Home. It would also create pedestrian traffic along the path and through the gardens, creating interaction between those who use the park and those in the garden and homes. The existing paved path connected to Trinity Circle is also maintained, and would most likely be used more by cyclists and roller bladders.

The playground and wading pool are moved just north of the informal entry pathway. As described earlier, this location was chosen because the intent was to include program elements relating to children along this route (connecting the path to Givens Public school at Shaw and Lobb Streets). As well, this location would encourage more activity along St. Hilda's Walk and beside the gardens.

A second entry from Crawford Street into the park that is more formal in nature is also created. This space will act as an entry and as an outdoor farmer's-market-type space. Creating a market space between the day program and the community centre creates a distinct setting where


DUNDAS STREET
Baseball/ Softball Diamond
JOHN GIBSON HOUSE (HOME FOR THE AGED)
Roller Blade/ Ice Rink
DOG RUN BOWL (REMNANT OF RAVINE)
SHAW STREET
CRAWFORE STREET
GORE VALE STREET
Vollyball Court/ Tetherball
TRINITY-BELLWOODS PARK
Play-ground
Wading Pool
LOBB AVENUE
Informal Entrance
Allotment Gardens
Baseball/ Softball Diamonds
Trinity Circle
TRINITY-BELLWOODS COMMUNITY CENTRE
Tennis Courts
Historic Gates to Park
Entrance (Discovery Walk Board)
Stores
QUEEN STREET
PARK SITE PLAN - 1:3000
(Based on Existing Park Plan)
(Figure 3.2-7)
SIL HOMES
GROUP HOMES
DAY PROGRAM

the community and supportive housing residents can come together to sell goods. Furthermore, this creates linkage and an intensification of activity between the day program and community centre. This strategy is used in both park plan versions.

Figure 3.2-8 shows the park plan if Brown + Storey's plans were to be implemented. The benefit of working with Brown + Storey's plans are that the parks would be part of a network, strengthening the supportive housing layer as a network also.

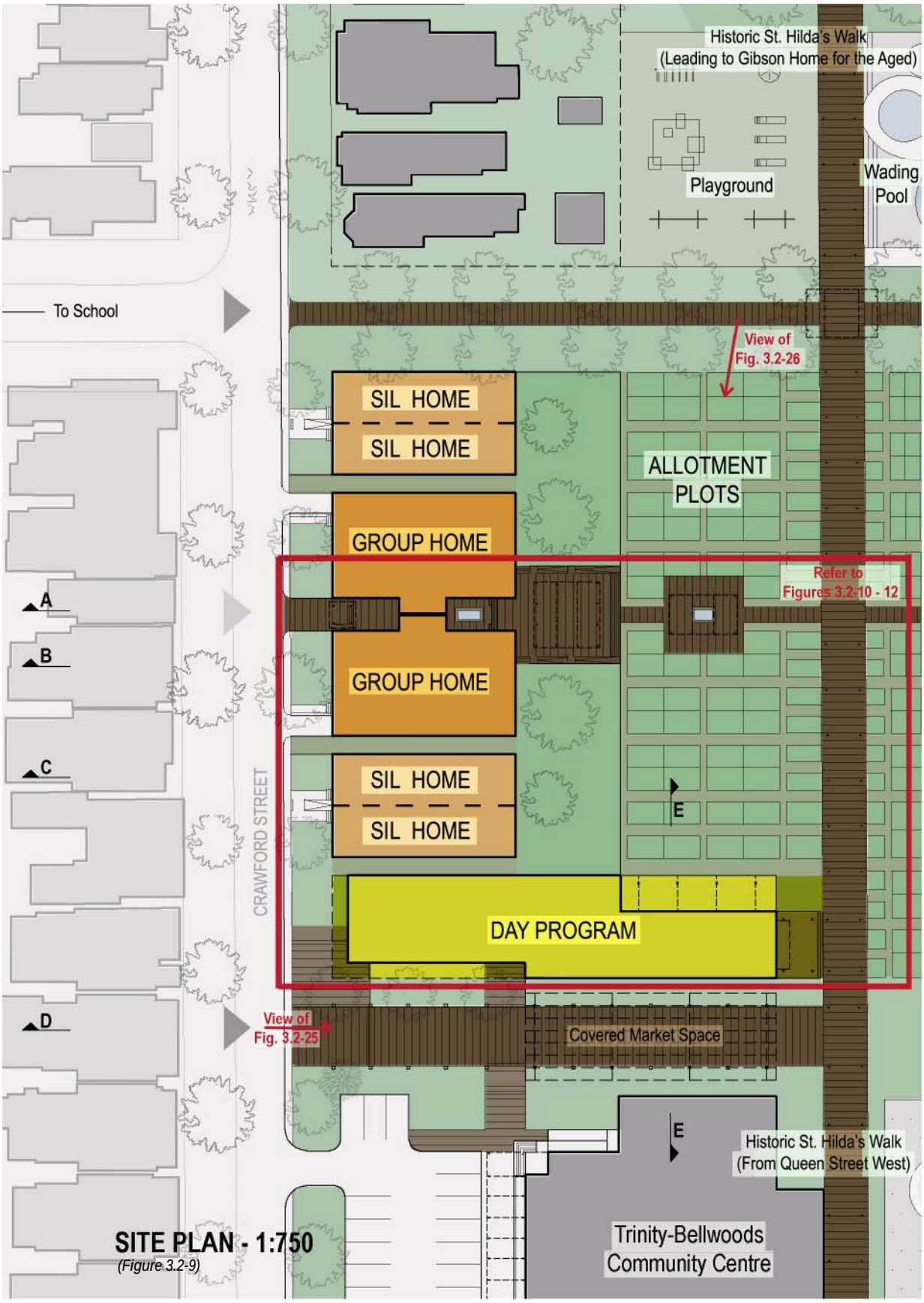
St. Hilda's walk is kept in this version as well, along with the second paved path that runs parallel to it. The intensification of program elements between the two paths is maintained here, with the relocation of the wading pool between the two.

The connection between Givens Public school and the informal entry path is also strengthened by concentrating the playground, wading pool, children's plots, learning pavilion (along the ravine edge), and educative gardens along the informal entry path.Other park features in this version include: gathering spaces, paths, fountains, the ravine profile, and bridges.

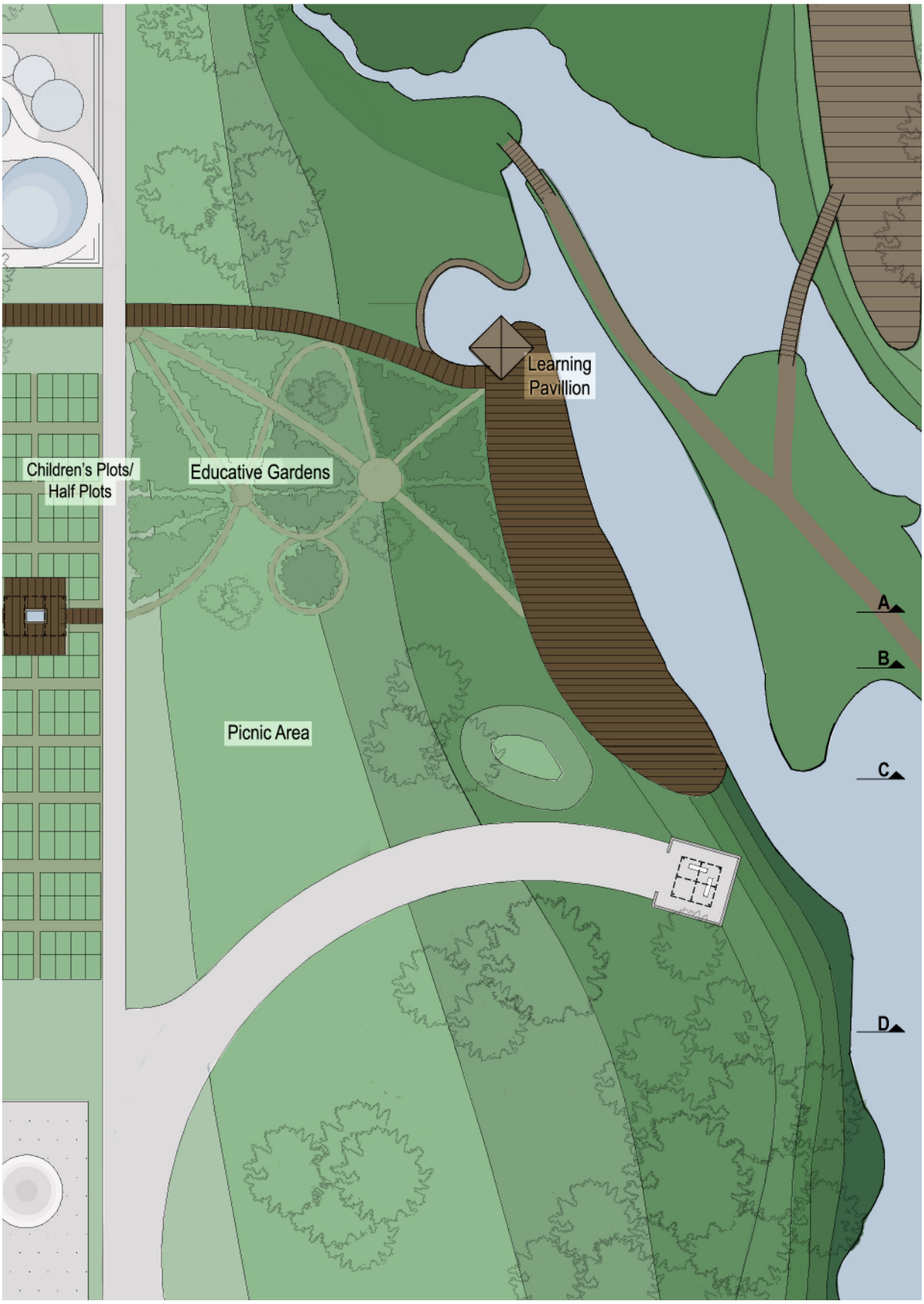
A key source used for the design elements of the residences was a document published by the Ministry of Community and Social Services, entitled Guidelines: Designing Residences for Mentally Handicapped Adults. It outlines various physical and spatial characteristics of spaces within these types of homes, such as ideal square footage for particular rooms, various regulations and codes, and other general guidelines. In many cases the suggested guidelines were used, in others they were altered to achieve certain goals. Also, in some cases new types of spaces are proposed. In these instances educated judgments are made based on research. More detailed design choices are outlined in the next section "Design Details – Intimate Space of the Home" and the sources used to make those decisions are outlined in that section.

Site connections and programmatic elements have been described earlier in this chapter. The following set of drawings illustrates the design proposal.

PARK SITE PLAN - 1:3000
(Based on Brown + Storey Park Plan)
(Figure 3.2-8)

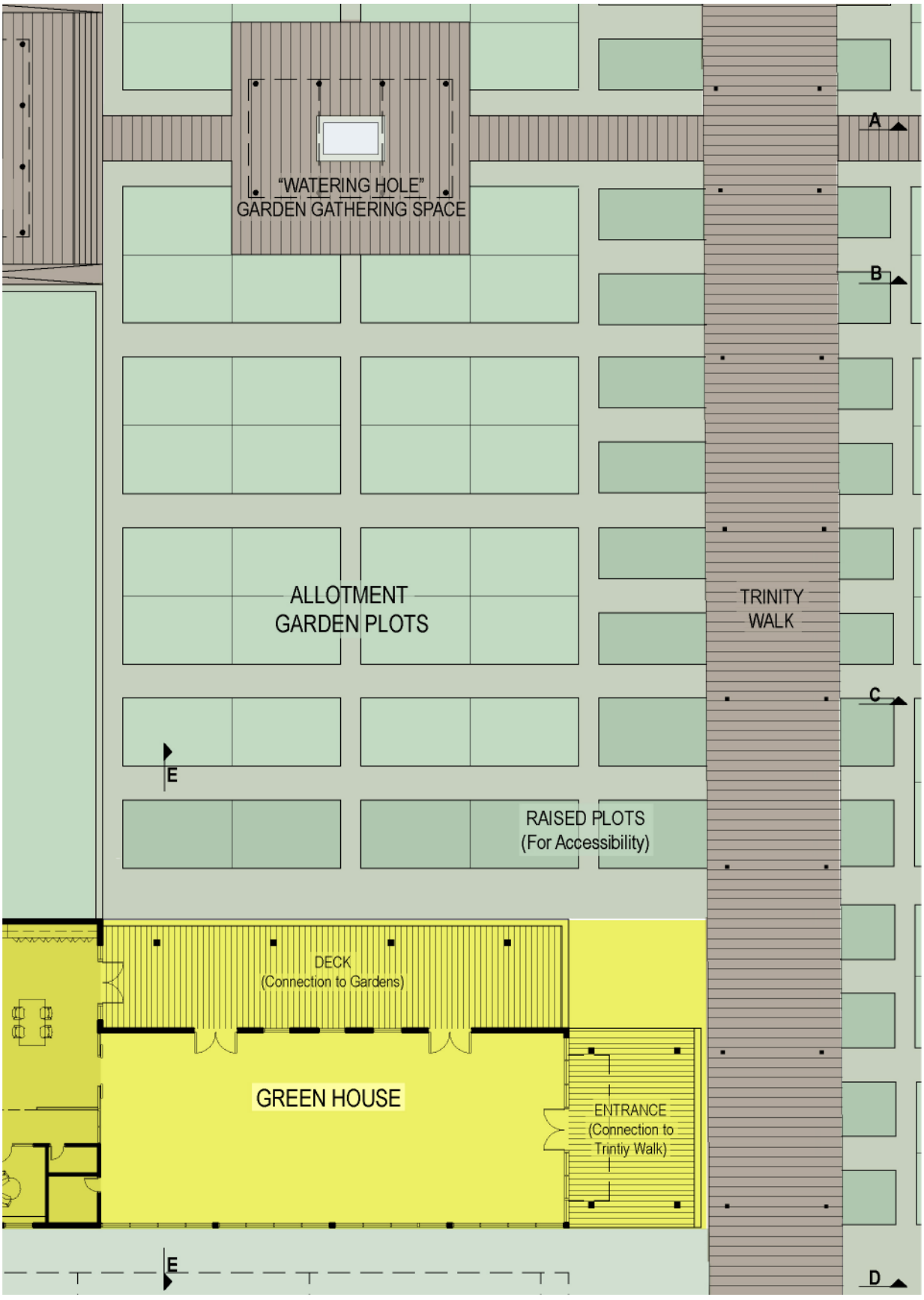


SITE PLAN - 1:750
(Figure 3.2-9)


Learning
Pavillion
Children's Plots/
Half Plots
Educative Gardens
Picnic Area
A
B
C
D

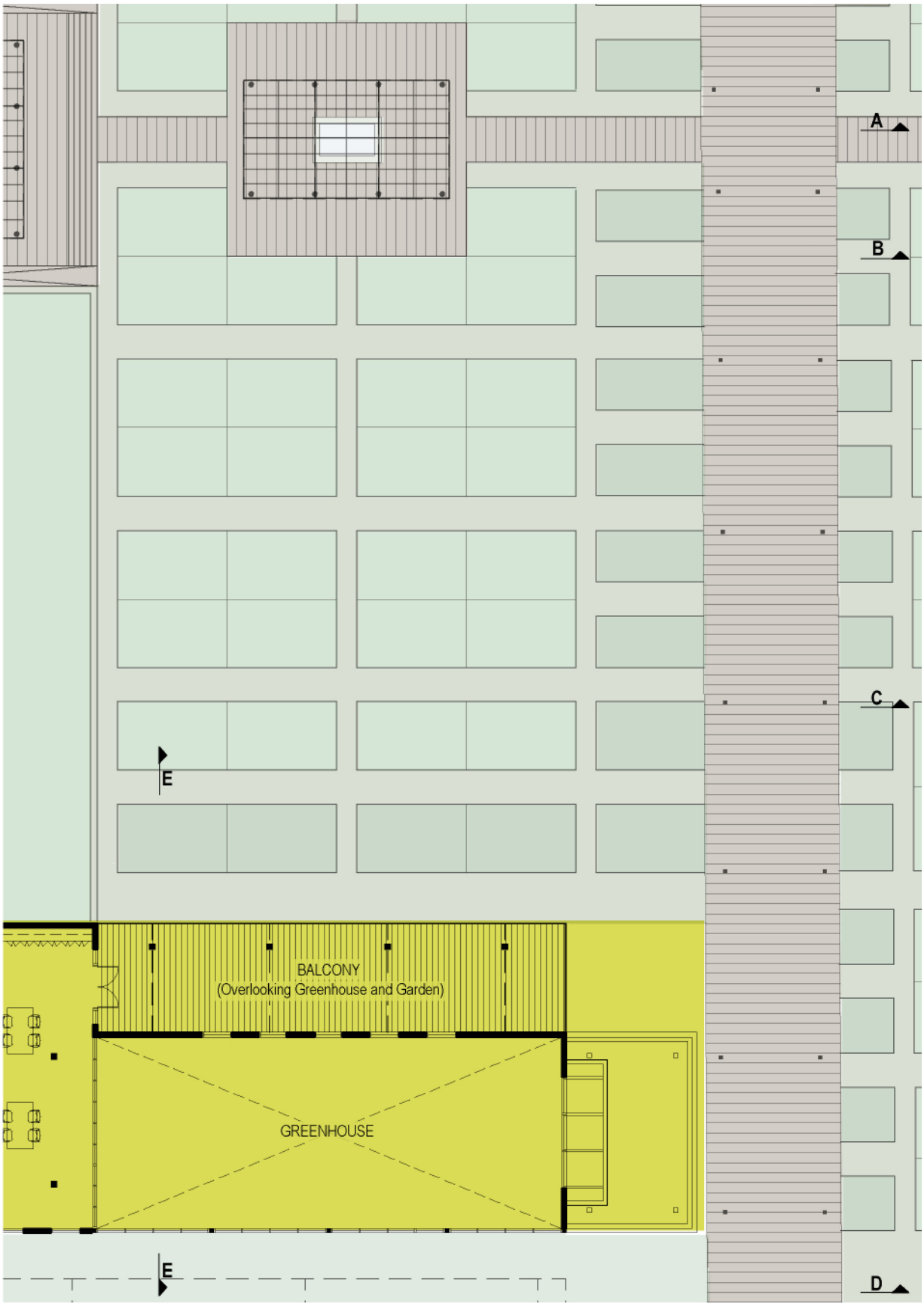
PARTIAL GROUND FLOOR PLAN - 1:250

(Figure 3.2-10)


"WATERING HOLE"
GARDEN GATHERING SPACE
A
B
ALLOTMENT
GARDEN PLOTS
TRINITY
WALK
C
E
RAISED PLOTS
(For Accessibility)
DECK
(Connection to Gardens)
GREEN HOUSE
ENTRANCE
(Connection to
Trintiy Walk)
E
D

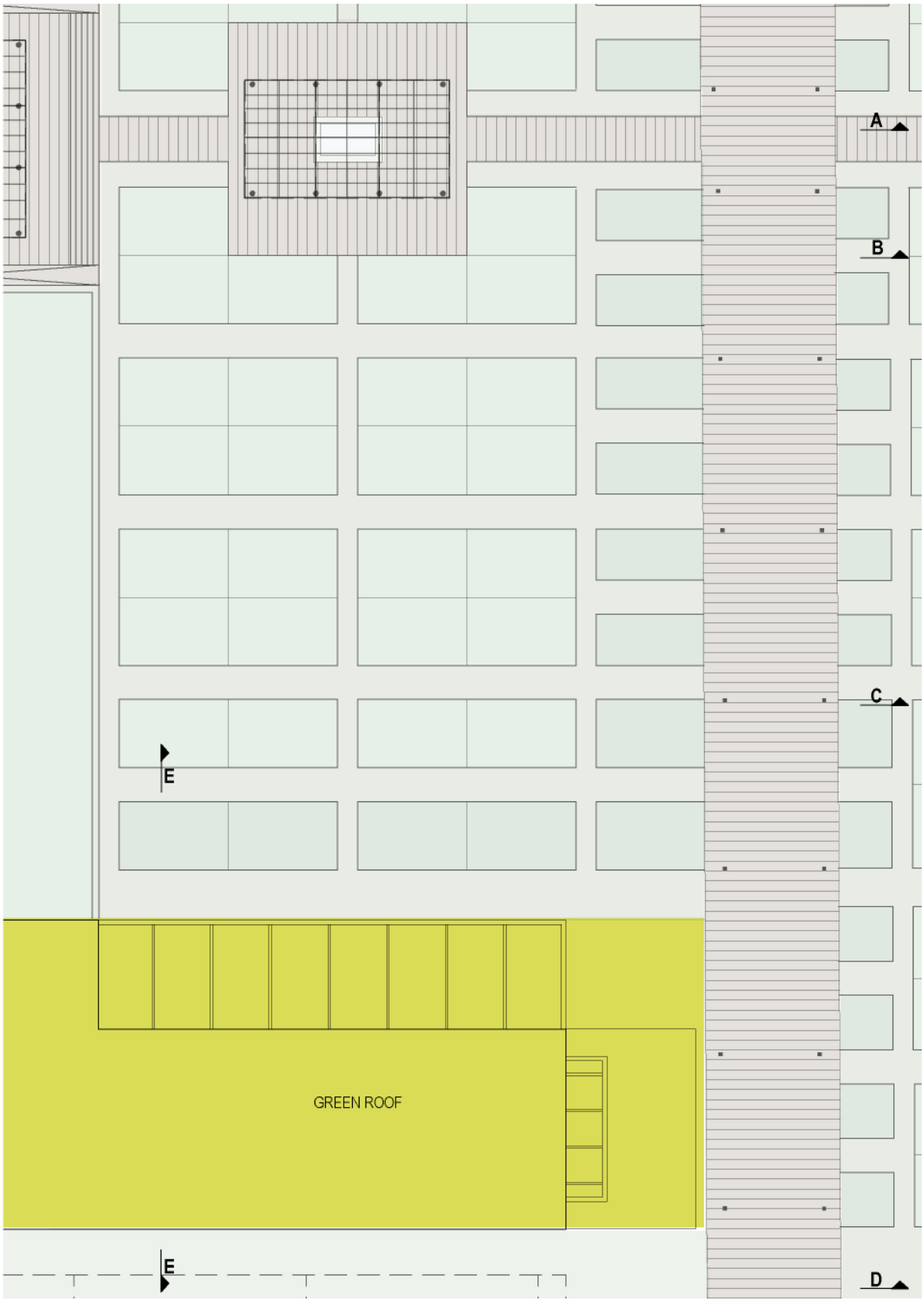
PARTIAL SECOND FLOOR PLAN - 1:250

(Figure 3.2-11)


A
B
C
E
BALCONY
(Overlooking Greenhouse and Garden)
GREENHOUSE
E
D

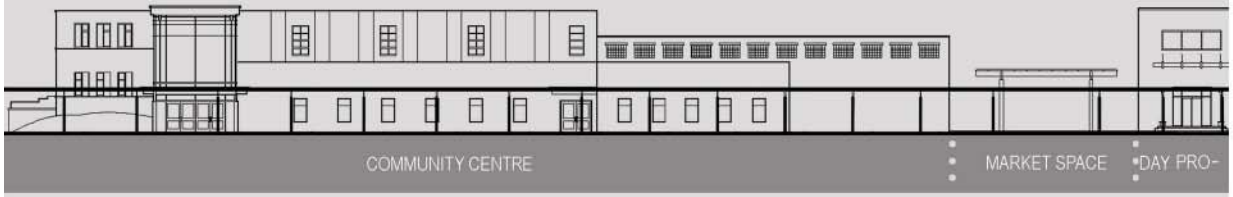
PARTIAL THIRD FLOOR PLAN - 1:250

(Figure 3.2-12)


A
B
C
D
E
E
GREEN ROOF

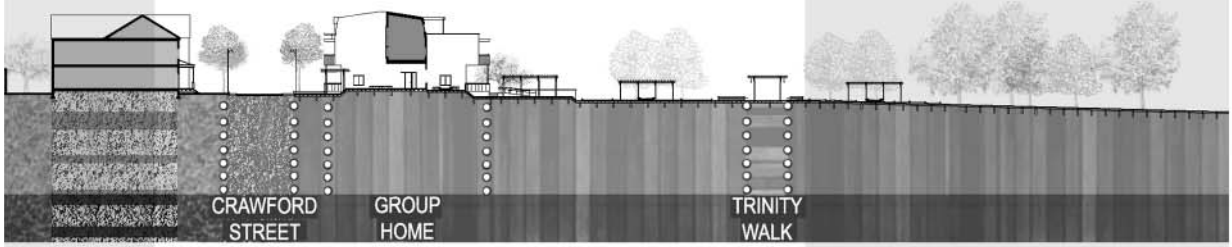
DETAILED WEST ELEVATION (FRONT) - 1:300
(Figure 3.2-13)

WEST ELEVATION (FRONT) - 1:500
(Figure 3.2-14)



EAST ELEVATION (BACK) - 1:500
(Figure 3.2-15)

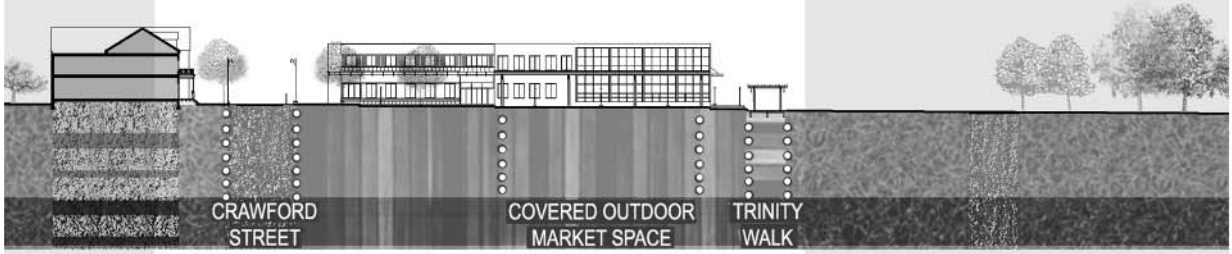

SIL HOME
SIL HOME
DAY PROGRAM BUILDING
MARKET SPACE
DAY PROGRAM
MARKET SPACE
COMMUNITY CENTRE
GRAM
GROUP AND SIL HOMES/ GARDEN PLOTS
INFORMAL ENTRY INTO PARK
NEIGHBOURHO
HOMES



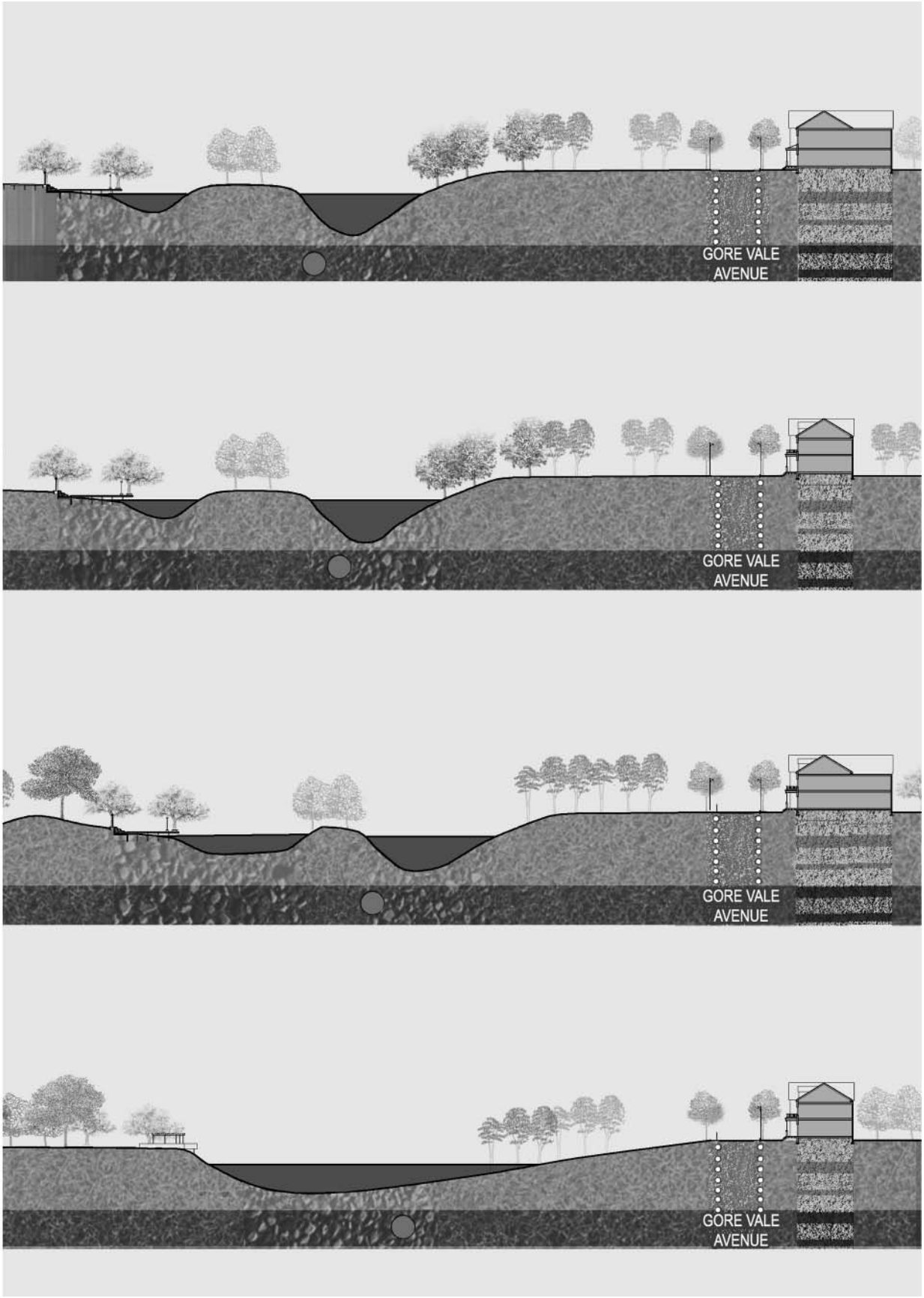
SECTION A - 1:1000
(Figure 3.2-16)

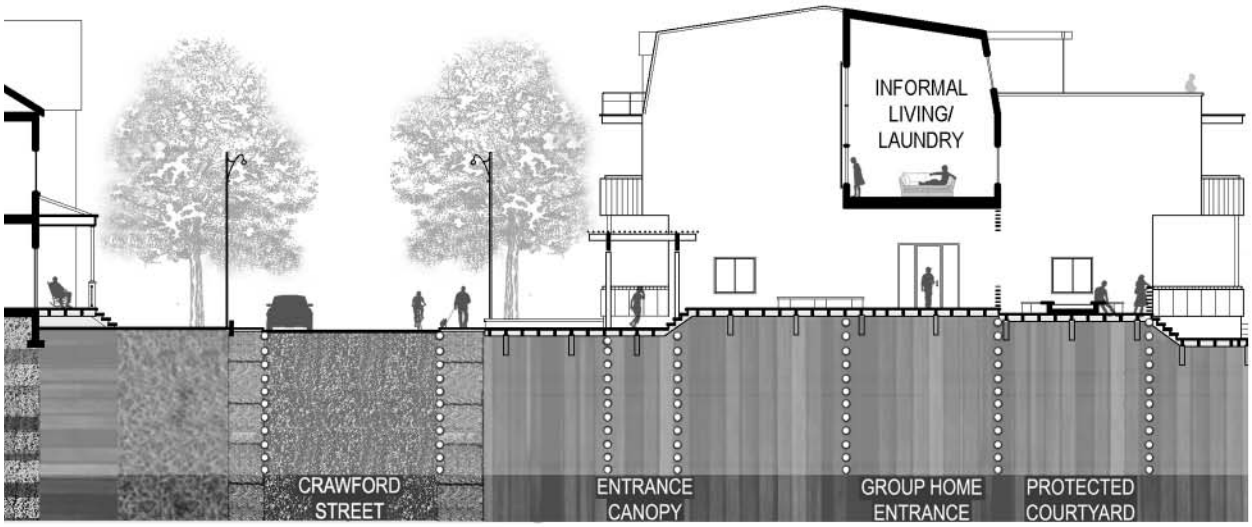
SECTION B - 1:1000
(Figure 3.2-17)

SECTION C - 1:1000
(Figure 3.2-18)

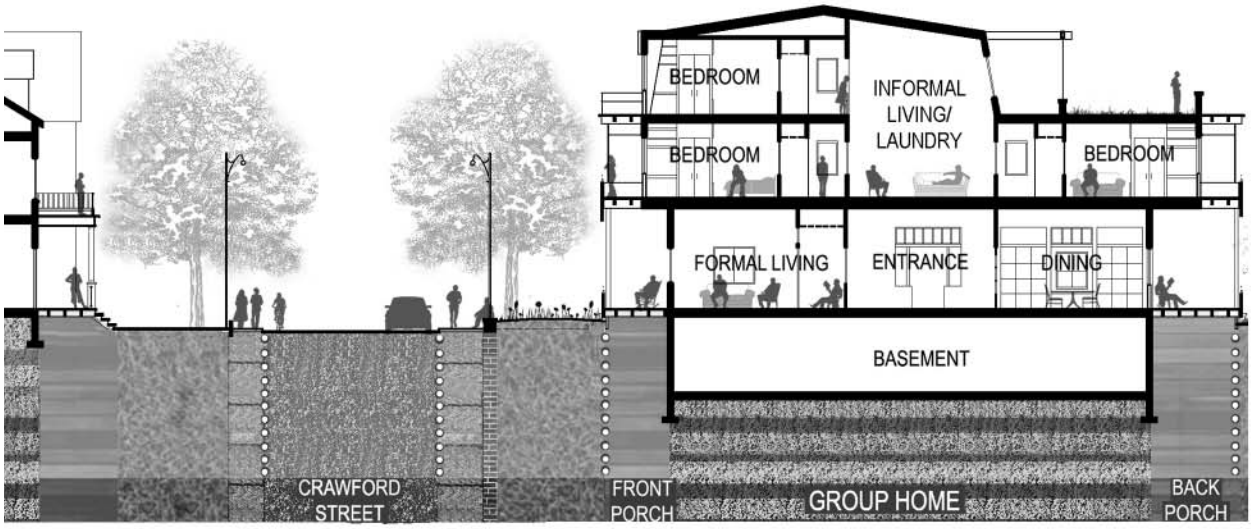


SECTION D - 1:1000
(Figure 3.2-19)

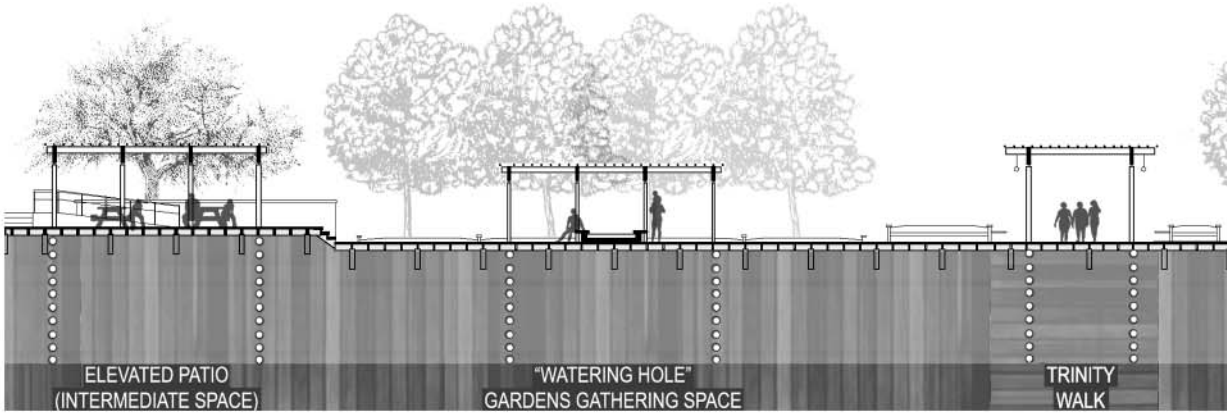

GORE VALE
AVENUE
GORE VALE
AVENUE
GORE VALE
AVENUE
GORE VALE
AVENUE

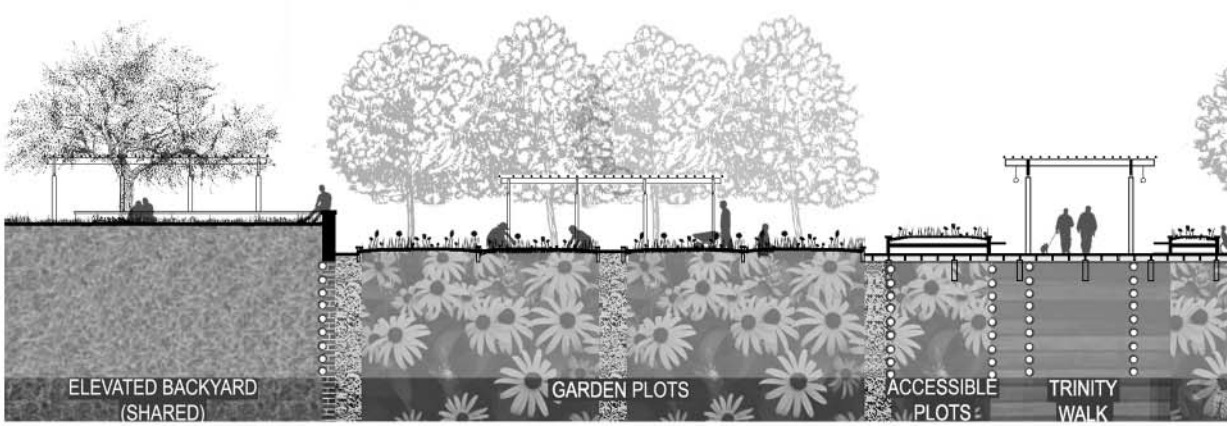


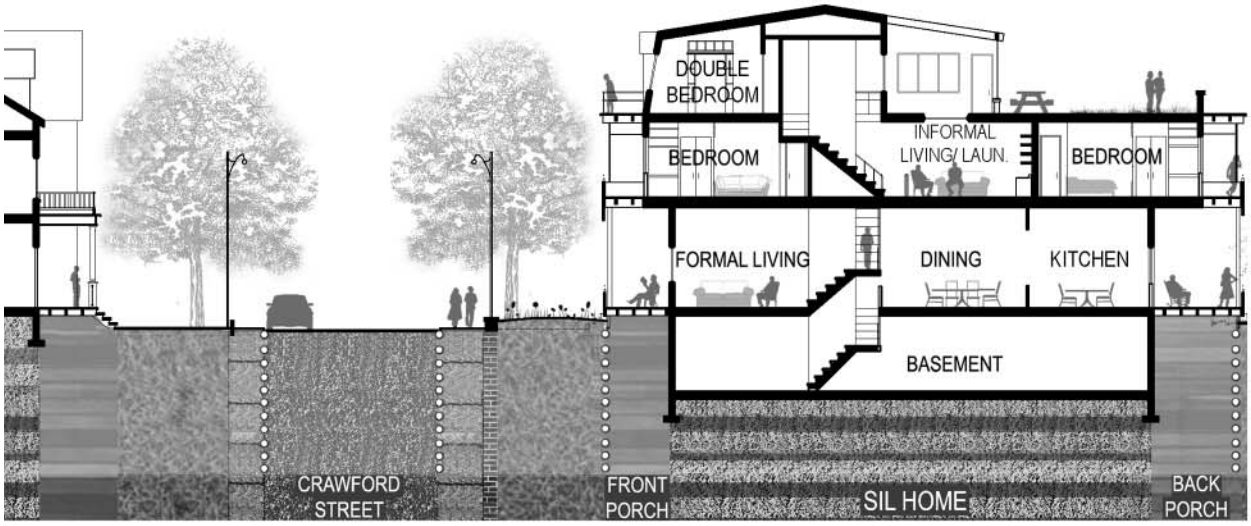
DETAIL SECTION A - 1:300
(Figure 3.2-20)



DETAIL SECTION B - 1:300
(Figure 3.2-21)


ELEVATED PATIO
(INTERMEDIATE SPACE)
"WATERING HOLE"
GARDENS GATHERING SPACE
TRINITY
WALK


ELEVATED BACKYARD
(SHARED)
GARDEN PLOTS
ACCESSIBLE
PLOTS
TRINITY
WALK

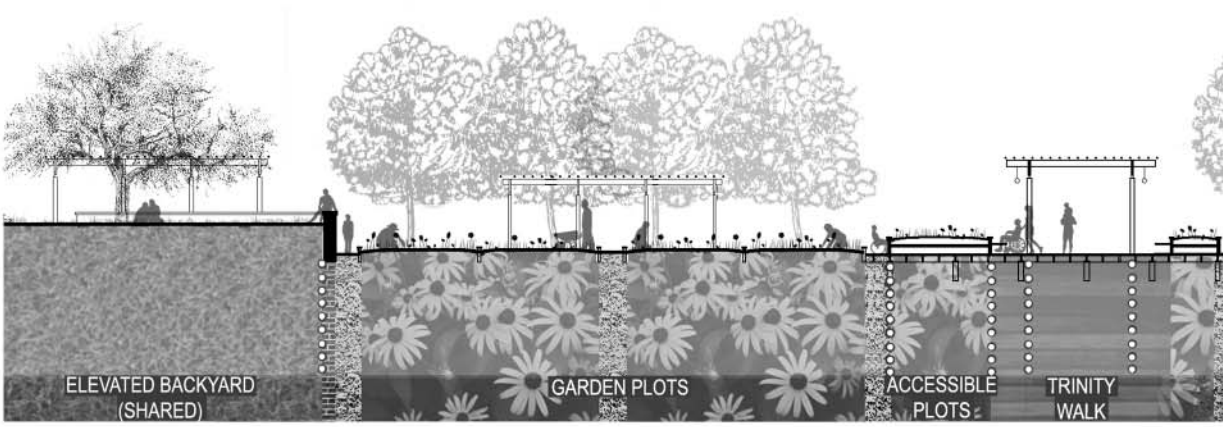


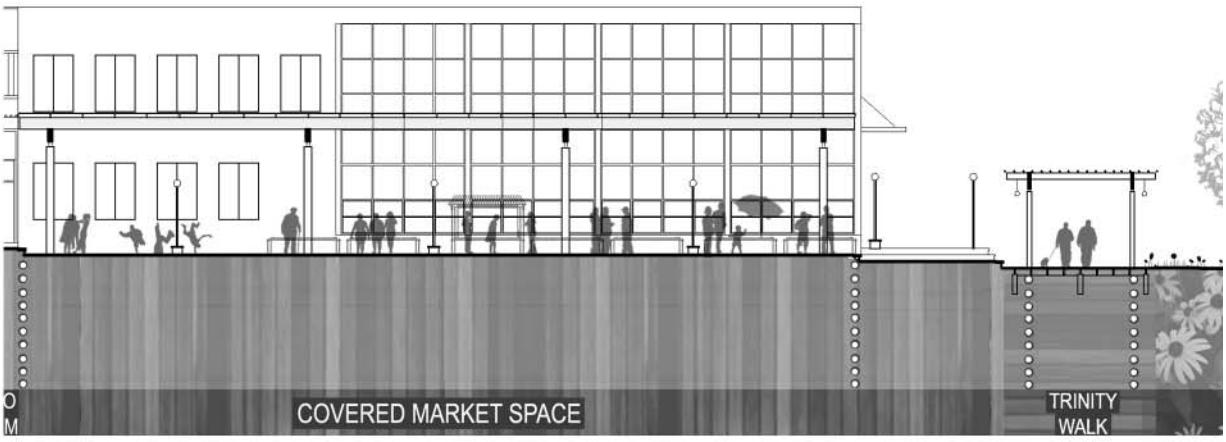
DETAIL SECTION C - 1:300

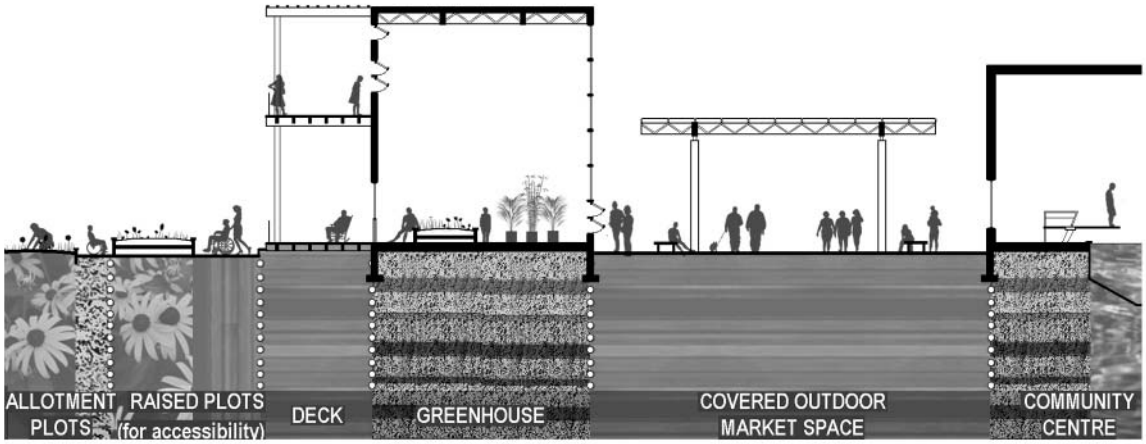
(Figure 3.2-22)

DETAIL SECTION D - 1:300

(Figure 3.2-23)


ELEVATED BACKYARD
(SHARED)
GARDEN PLOTS
ACCESSIBLE
PLOTS
TRINITY
WALK


COVERED MARKET SPACE
TRINITY
WALK



SECTION E - 1:300

(Figure 3.2-24)

The following vignettes (subsequent pages) illustrate different conditions in the design. Reference as to where these views are taken from can be found on Figure 3.2-9 (Site Plan).

Figure 3.2-25 is a perspective taken from the new park entrance, looking from Crawford Street into the park. The trellised market space can be seen in the center of the vignette, with the day program building to the left (north) of this promenade, and Trinity-Bellwoods Community Centre to the right (south) of it.

Figure 3.2-26 is a view from the park side of the design. Two quadrants of allotment plots are shown in the foreground, including raised accessible plots and gathering spaces. Other elements of interest in the illustration include (from left to right): the restored historic St. Hilda's Walk, the back of the day program building, the group home shared backyards, and the group homes themselves.

(Figure 3.2-25)

(Figure 3.2-26)

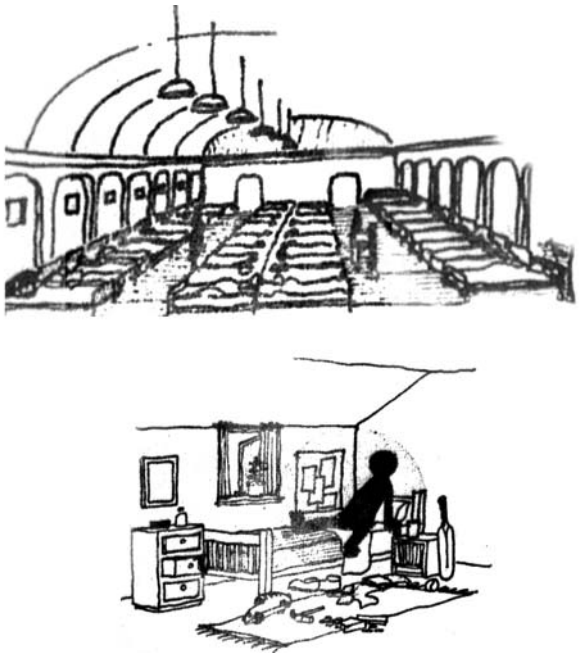


Figure 3.2-27
Public vs. Private Space

DESIGN DETAILS - INTIMATE SPACE OF THE HOME

Normalization requires various scales of spaces that allow for a range of interaction. This can range from being alone, to being part of an intimate group, to being part of a large group. Architects Janet E. Reizenstein and William A. McBride, in a case study of a group home for developmentally disabled persons, predicated on design for Normalization write, *"The major problem with many group-homes today are that residents have to make definite choices about whether they are in a public space (shared living area) or a private space (bathroom or bedroom), with very little, if any, intermediate spaces*[2]*."* For example, during the research of this thesis, when visiting a Villa Charities Group home in Woodbridge, ON., in 2005, workers expressed the lack of a semi-private space when a resident's family came to visit, leaving the resident with the choice of entertaining their family or friends in the main common spaces (with no privacy), or in their rooms, which were too personal and too small for this purpose. This design addresses this issue and provides a variety of spaces for different levels of privacy.

Other general issues designed for include: flexibility of use, a domestic atmosphere, and a warm and pleasant setting. Accessibility is also a key design feature, since developmental disabilities can be coupled with physical disabilities, especially in the case of the group home, where persons generally would require more support.

Key texts used in this section include: Community Group Homes (based on research conducted by Architecture, Research, and Construction Ltd. or the ARC group), The Essence of Home, Design Solutions for Assisted Living Housing (by Architect William J. Brummett), and as described earlier, Guidelines for Designing Residences for Mentally Handicapped Adults (published by the Ontario Ministry of Community and Social Services). Other significant sources used that specialize in either design for Normalization or group homes include: Dennis Day-Lower (Executive Director of the National Shared Housing Resource Centre), Kenneth Bays (Director of the Centre on Environment for the Handicapped in the United States of America.), and Janet E. Reizenstein and William A. McBride (architects specializing in design for Normalization).

Figure 3.2-28
View of Entrance Sequence From Sidewalk to SIL Homes.

Entry/ Thresholds

The first area of concern in this section is the approach to the front door, or the external portion of entry. This sequence, crossing from the outside realm to the interior one, can take many forms, including stairs, paths, porches, canopies or other such clear threshold elements.

The ARC group (Architecture, Research, and Construction, Ltd.) cites privacy as the most important of environmental factors to be considered in the design of a group home, something that most clearly distinguishes between goals of Normalization and those of Institutional life. They explain that privacy is important because it means having control over contact with other people and over a place (territory). In a group home this idea is translated to how spaces are used, with many elements having dual functions, one an obvious function, and another which marks territory. The ARC group writes, *"Outside the house, a slope down to the sidewalk helps drain water away from the house and also marks the edge of the front yard, defining the boundary between public and private property. The porch provides shelter from the rain but not for strangers, unless invited*[3]*."* The same rules can be extended throughout the home and also form a language of ownership.

Brummett discusses how many group homes for developmentally disabled persons have residents that may have a reduced ability to clearly comprehend their environments. An unclear physical environment, he writes, *"can compound misunderstanding, potentially increasing confusion, anxiety, inappropriate behavior, and dependency on care giving staff*[4]*."* He outlines the importance of having significant architectural features that clearly provide these thresholds, and hence distinguish one space from another. Architectural devices that can be used, in conjunction with the elements listed above, include, but are not limited to, change in material, scale, volume, light, texture, height, and level changes. In this design entranceways are of similar character, shape, and material. They create a consistent architectural language that serve the purpose of shelter, as well as cast shadows that are understood as being entranceways. Level changes, canopies, and low walls are also used

Figure 3.2-29
First floor plan of a Group Home for 6 (Not to Scale)

Of particular interest is the use of thresholds and way-finding devices in the entry sequence of this home.

to delineate spaces from one another. They are also used as an indication of a change in level of privacy from one space to another.

The second aspect in this category is the entry space, which can also take on many forms, including vestibules, a small hall, or a small room. The home should have an easily accessible and informal entry, and should serve as a weather barrier to intercept water and mud[5]. McBride and Reizenstein write, *"It should be warm in character and welcoming[6]."* The entry area is also the first indication of the character of the residence as well as the first space where orienteering occurs, but should also respect the privacy of other residents. Way-finding is particularly important in a home where residents would benefit from clarity.

Figure 3.2-29 is a good example of the use of thresholds and way-finding devices. It is a floor plan for an unspecified six-resident house for developmentally disabled adults found in the book Community Group Homes. There are threshold elements such as the stairs leading upward toward the large porch. The porch extends the home's living space, thereby increasing the choices of shared spaces to use. It also acts as an exterior buffer that provides a way to remain protected in one's own territory, while being connected to the life of the street.

Once one enters the entry vestibule there are clear choices laid out: one can precede straight upstairs to his/her room, avoiding any social contact if desired. In homes where unrelated adults live together the importance of this choice seems clear; this entry vestibule also has space where persons can wait before entering the rest of the home. This has the dual function of being used by the residents who need space to wait for pre-arranged rides as well as by guests who are waiting to be given permission to enter the rest of the home.

Other than a clear relationship of the entry to the main stair, there are also cues that lead one towards potential areas of activity. In this case, architectural elements encourage going to the

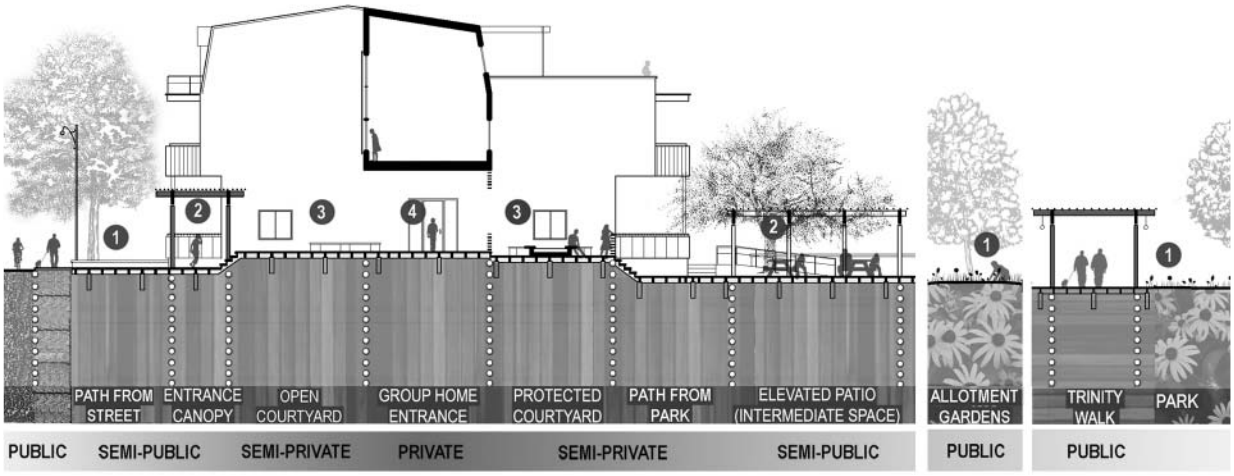


Figure 3.2-30
Diagram of Shared Entrance Sequence to Front Door of Group Homes.

1:400

Diagram shows levels of privacy delineated by level changes, courtyards, gathering places, and canopies.

left, where the main social area is. Devices used to encourage this movement are a clear, large, open and prominent entry to the room. As well, the dining room to the right has a pocket door that can be closed, another indication that this is a more private area.

Figure 3.2-31 shows the ground floor plans of the homes in this design. The group homes share an entrance courtyard and sequence accessible from the street. This courtyard is more protected, as these homes house more vulnerable persons, and it also promotes social interaction between the homes. Figure 3.2-30 shows the sequence of level changes and canopies used.

The interior plan of the group home uses similar devices described in the example above. Once in the home, one enters into an entrance vestibule where a person can wait for pre-arranged rides or where guests can wait without entering the actual home. Past this space, the resident is given choices of where to go next: they can go directly up the stairs (without entering any social spaces) if they want to avoid social contact; they can also choose between the public living area, which is more open with half-walls and no doors, or the more intimate kitchen area (with a smaller opening and sliding doors that can close it off).

The SIL homes house more independent people and function more like normalized homes. In this case, entrance directly off the street, with a regular porch sequence, was used. Like the group homes, there is also an entrance hall with similar functions of coat storage, and an area where guests can sit or where residents can wait for rides. From this space, one can enter the main living area or proceed directly up the stairs to their rooms.

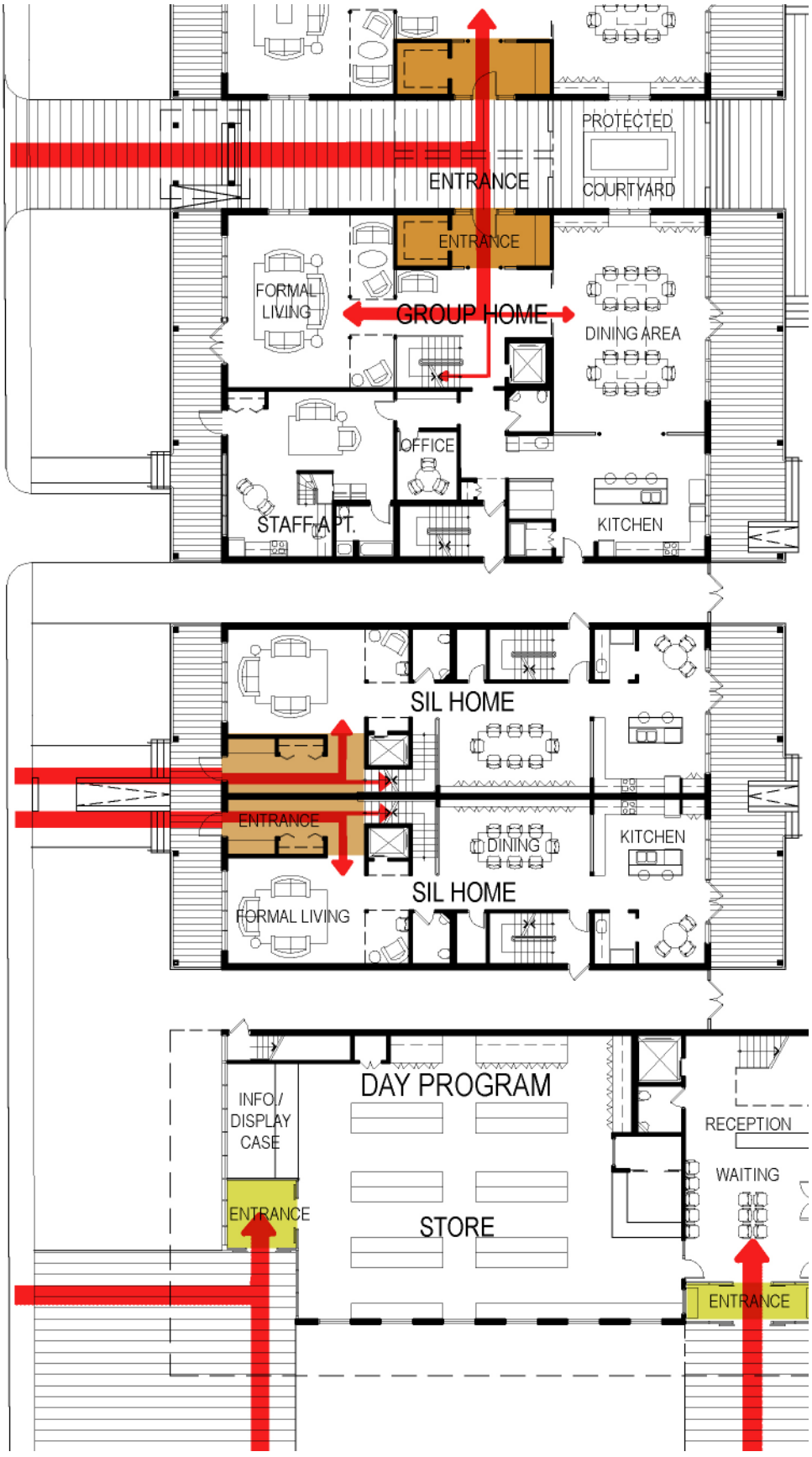


Figure 3.2-31
Diagram of Entry into Designed Spaces

Partial Ground Floor Plan
(Refer to Figure 3.2-10)
1:250

Arrows show patterns for entry sequences. Thicker red lines reflect higher public usage, while thinner lines show routes that are more private to the residents.

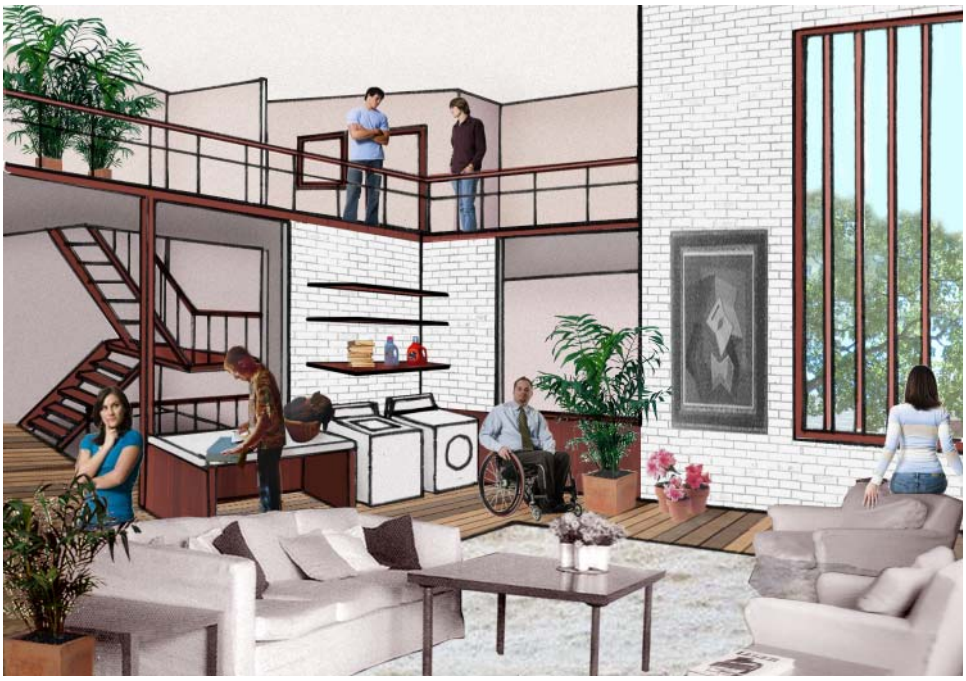


Figure 3.2-32
View of Private Shared-Living Space in Group Home (Second Floor)

Shared Living Spaces/ Laundry

Living room spaces can encourage social relationships, conversation, relaxation, and entertainment. Guidelines: Designing Residences for Mentally Handicapped Adults (by the Ontario Ministry of Social Services), outlines that the *"area should accommodate small groups but generally, need not accommodate all staff and residents at one time, because it is assumed residents will have varying interests*[7]*."*

As described earlier, designing for Normalization entails accommodation of a range of spaces that allow for varying degrees of privacy and contact. Much like in a typical family residence that has both a family room and a living room, there is a need for at least two shared living spaces with different character. In this design, providing different types of shared living spaces offers the opportunity of creating distinctly different levels of interaction.

The first of these shared living spaces is more public in nature. In both types of homes this space is located on the ground floor close to the entrance. It is meant to be a space where residents feel comfortable entertaining guests without bringing them into the more private confines of the home. The living rooms face the street and have access to the porches (that can act as an extension of the living room spaces). Furthermore, this allows for a visual and physical link to life on the street. There are also alcoves that allow for smaller groups to gather or for a person to be alone but still part of the communal area.

The second shared living space is more intimate and more private, and is on the second floor where the resident rooms are. Such a space on the second floor encourages close social relationships between the residents that would not occur if there were only bedrooms on this level. In the group homes this space is more enclosed for reduced sound transmission, and also has partial views toward the street and the park. There is also space for laundry in this area. The benefits of locating the laundry area in this space are described next.

The ability to have control over one's own personal items and to clean one's own laundry as a personal event can help a resident maintain self-esteem and privacy. Bayes writes, *"learning to care for and keep track of one's clothing and linen is a way to develop pride in personal appearance, feelings of competence and control of personal possessions... it is essential to self-sufficiency[8]."* Brummett further describes doing laundry as an activity which, *"can be rich in homelike associations and memories, and provides an opportunity for residents to undertake and complete meaningful and worthwhile tasks[9]."*

Both Bayes and Brummett comment on how designers for group homes rarely take the opportunity to make laundry room spaces that are attractive and supportive. Brummett goes into more detail, and describes features that would make a laundry space more lively and useful. He suggests that the laundry room act as a casual social space (in this case, part of a socially charged shared living area). Also, according to him, this space should contain enough area for folding laundry and enough seating to promote social interaction.

McBride and Reizenstein also stress that if a laundry room is to successfully encourage capable residents to take care of their own clothing, then it should be located as close to the residents' rooms as possible (as is done with this design). As well, they suggest that it should have a pleasant atmosphere and enough natural light to make it an enjoyable space that encourages casual sociability. Making the laundry room an enjoyable place promotes the use of it and helps make the act of doing laundry a positive individual or social experience.

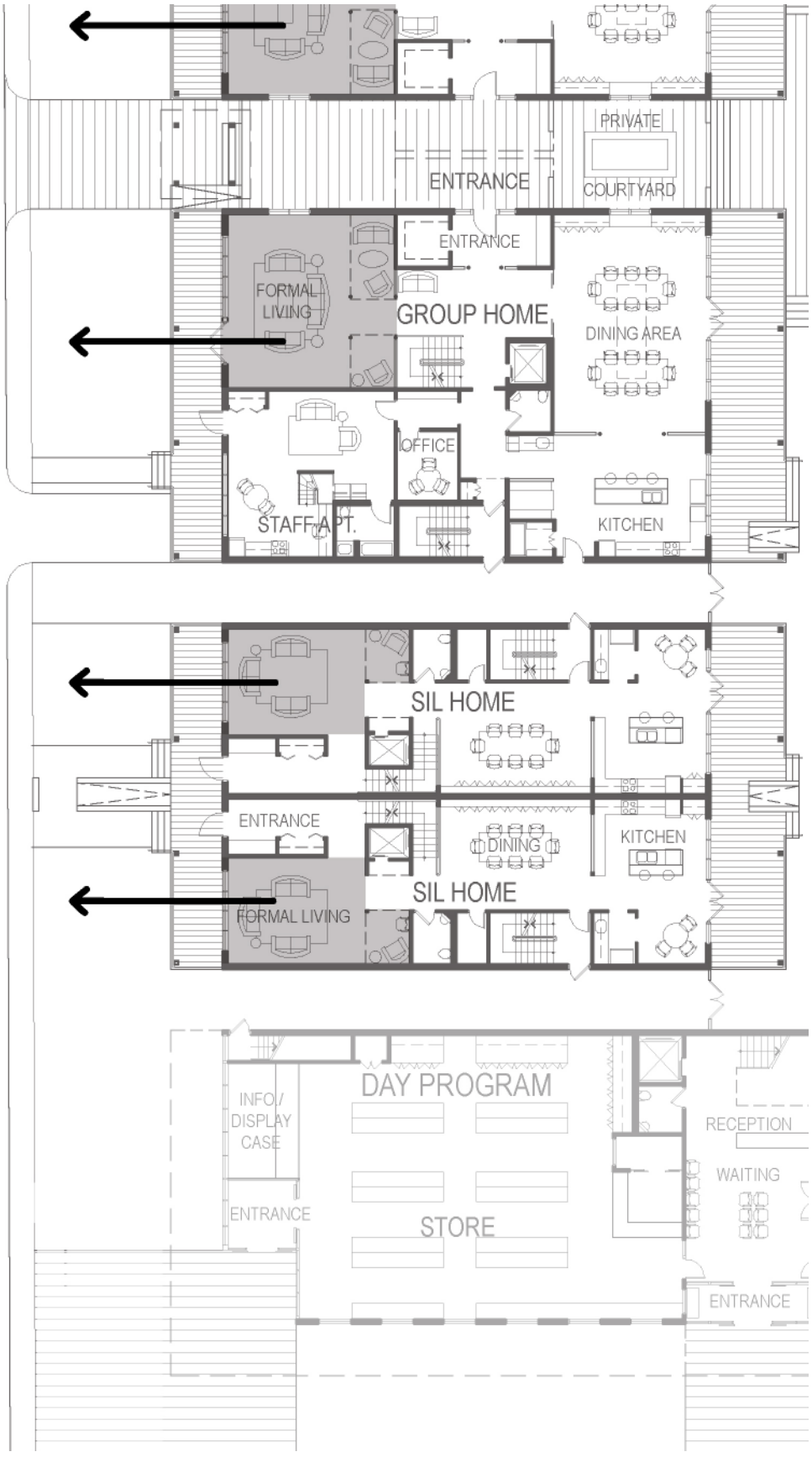


Figure 3.2-33
Diagram Highlighting Shared Living Spaces on Ground Floor.

Partial Ground Floor Plan
(Refer to Figure 3.2-10)
1:250

Arrows indicate visual connections to street.

Figure 3.2-34
Diagram Highlighting Shared Living Spaces on Second Floor.

Partial Second Floor Plan
(Refer to Figure 3.2-11)
1:250

Arrows indicate visual connections to street and park.

1. Pocket doors can close off dining area.
2. Storage of supplies (art and others)
3. Window seat with view of courtyard.
4. Connection to porch, possible extension of eating area to outdoors.
5. Space for two tables of six to eight, or one long table for twelve+.
6. Open connection between dining and kitchen areas.
7. Main Kitchen area.
8. Door from parking for quick grocery drop off and kitchen deliveries.
9. Pantry/ storage.
10. "Breakfast Nook" or alternate dining area for small group.
11. Snack prep. area (off of main kitchen, accessible without entering kitchen.
12. Broom Closet
13. Alternate kitchen entrance.

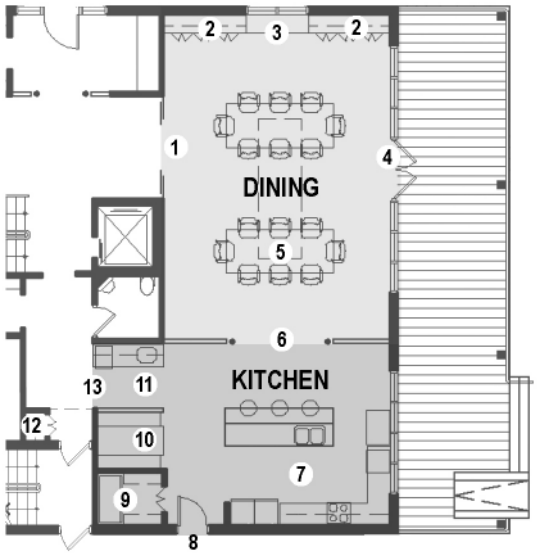


Figure 3.2-36
Diagram of Kitchen/ Dining in Designed Group Home.

Partial Ground Floor Plan
(Refer to Group Home in Figure 3.2-10)
1:200

Kitchen/ Dining

There is a natural bonding that occurs when people come together to prepare and share a meal. As such, the kitchen and dining rooms of a shared residence are important common areas, as they have the potential to develop group cohesiveness and life-skills. These skills can then be transferred to other situations, which the resident(s) can use in the community.

Based on the desired level of development for the residents, different models of meal management can be used. For example, some residences have meals prepared by one cook for all the residents, requiring a kitchen with a design that is more traditional in nature. It can be argued that having one cook prepare all meals is more efficient, but it is also more institutional in character, denying the residents the potential for development in preparing their own meals, and leaving all control in the hands of staff. Bayes writes, *"It is a vicious circle: the residents are not considered competent enough to use the kitchen, and they are denied the opportunity to practice skills to increase their competence. The message to the residents is that they must continue to be dependent on others[10]."*

In a group home where the development of the individual is the primary objective, a different model can be adopted. In many shared residences, residents are encouraged to be involved in meal preparation. The daily activities of planning menus, grocery shopping, cooking, cleaning, and sharing a meal are all important life-skills that can aid in integration and building self-confidence, self-esteem, and a sense of responsibility[11]. Designing an inviting kitchen can aid in this space becoming a hub of activity.

Day-Lower writes, *"In these kitchens, it is important to have at least two simultaneous work counters to accommodate multiple and simultaneous meal preparation, one primary area for larger meal preparation and one secondary, smaller area for one or two persons[12]."* In the design of the kitchens in these homes, both a main counter and an island are included. The island, intended as

Figure 3.2-35 (previous page)
Picture of The Group Home Dining Experience.

Figure 3.2-37
Booth

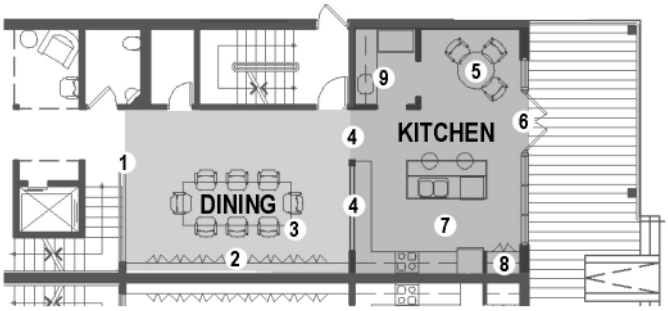
Figure 3.2-38
Example of Pantry/ Storage in a Group Home

a secondary preparation space, can act as a two-sided work counter or as a place where people can sit on stools and passively participate in the preparation of food.

In group homes, it is often useful to buy items in bulk in order to save money and to cater to the individual needs of all the residents. A pantry area (as well as an extra freezer in the group homes) is also included in this design.

Reizenstein and McBride write of the importance of the physical connection between the kitchen and the dining area, which reinforce the connections between where food is prepared and where it is eaten[13].

There is also the aspect of flexibility that must be addressed. ARC suggests several ways of achieving this flexibility and variety of choice. First, they recommend that, in addition to a central dining area, a breakfast nook, booth, or small table with chairs be accommodated in the kitchen, as an additional social space. Day-Lower concurs with this design consideration, explaining that there will be times when a resident will not want to mingle and will want to be able to have a cup of coffee without socializing with the entire household[14]. This affords a space to a group for gathering in an informal setting, especially if a housemate is entertaining a friend or their family members. The snack area (adjacent to the kitchen) is meant to address this need for “alone time” as well.



1. Open connection to rest of house, casual preview of dining area from stairs.
2. Storage of supplies (art and others).
3. Space for table of six plus two guests.
4. Open connection between dining and kitchen areas.
5. "Breakfast Nook" or alternate eating area.
6. Connection to porch, possible extension eating area to outdoors.
7. Main kitchen area.
8. Pantry/ storage.
9. Snack prep. area/ Freezer (off of main kitchen)

Figure 3.2-39
Diagram Kitchen/ Dining in Designed SIL Home.

Partial Ground Floor Plan
(Refer to SIL Home in Figure 3.2-10)
1:200

Eating areas in institutions were designed to be cleaned easily, and were designed to accommodate a large group of people, much like with a cafeteria. As such, to encourage a more home-like setting, the main dining areas in these homes should be more intimate in character and scale. The dining room itself should not be excessively formal, and should have enough seating area to accommodate all residents, plus a couple of guests[15]. The dining table is another issue concerning flexibility.

ARC writes, *"The traditional dining table, though symbolic in the sense that everyone could gather around it, does not work well with a large group for good interchange. The traditional shape itself –long and rectangular –also inhibits a natural flow of conversation[16]."* Based on their research, they concluded that if the central table seated up to eight persons, there was no problem with conversation, but with larger groups, the distance between people made carrying on conversations difficult. In these cases, they suggest that multiple, smaller round tables be used, so that residents can choose who they want to sit with and where they want to sit. Designing a large enough space allows for both options to be possible.

Another consideration to keep in mind is alternate uses of the dining room as another shared living space. Guidelines: Designing Residences for mentally Handicapped Adults writes that the dining room *"may sometimes be used as a gathering place for meetings and some recreation requiring table use for indoor activity[17]."*

Space for storage to accommodate these activities is also included in the design. Furthermore, the dining and kitchen spaces are directly adjacent to the back porch area that faces the park. This allows for opportunities for outdoor eating, and natural light and ventilation.

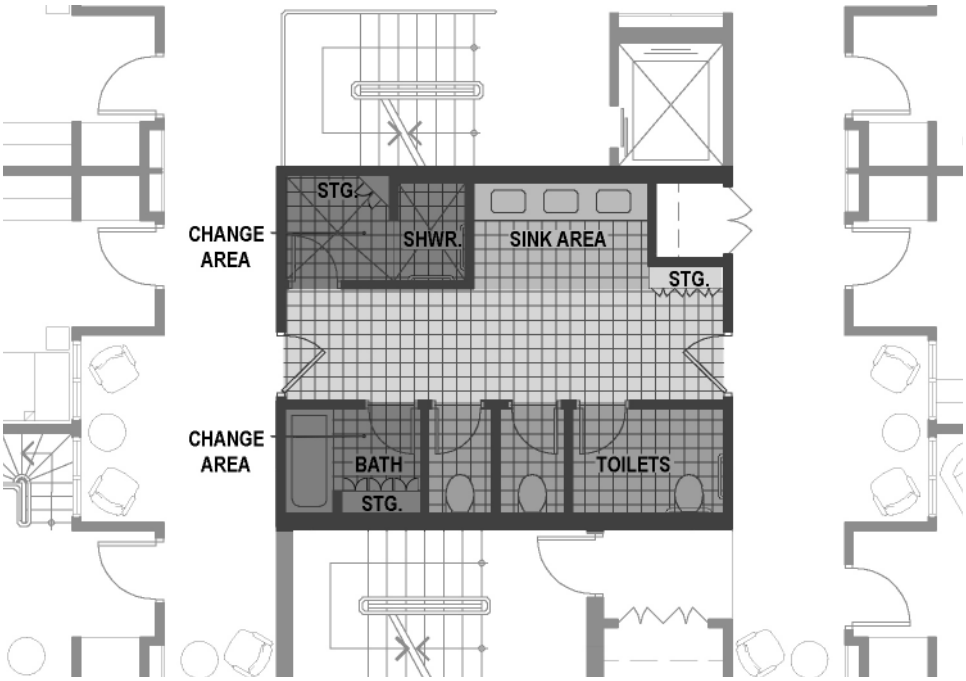


Figure 3.2-40
Detail of Washroom Plan of Group Home (Second Floor).

Partial Second Floor Plan
(Refer to Figure 3.2-11)
1:100

Washrooms

Washrooms in Institutions had no doors and no partitions between stalls. Showers were large rooms meant to clean many patients at once. These spaces were designed with the intention of mass cleaning as efficiently as possible. There was little concern for the dignity or individual development of the persons using these spaces.

Bathrooms should certainly be designed with function in mind. It is also important to remember that the bathroom, as a place of personal grooming and maintenance, is a private space, where through exercising personal-hygiene, self-image is fostered. McBride and Reizenstein explains that this is a crucial aspect of Normalization[18].

Even though the bathroom is an intensely personal space, most single-family dwellings have ones that are shared. For group homes, Day-Lower states that *"most shared households do not have private bathrooms for every resident; two to three persons per bathroom are common[19]."* ARC research showed *"an average of one toilet and lavatory for four residents and one tub or shower for five residents[20]."* The Ministry of Community and Social Services has a minimum requirement of *"one toilet and one wash basin for every five residents and one bathtub or shower for every eight residents[21]."*

Bayes further explains that in most shared-homes surveyed, stress occurs when persons have to wait to use the bathroom[22]. Much of these conflicts can be solved by separating functions to allow simultaneous use. Day-Lower writes, *"rather than the traditional configuration, toilets and sinks can be separated from the bathing function[23]."*

Figure 3.2-40 shows the washroom in one of the designed group homes and Figure 3.2-41 shows the washrooms in the SIL homes. In both cases, all separate functions (bathing, sink area, and toilets) are accessed from one central area that is easily reached from the main corridors.

ARC describes another problem that hinders Normalization when it comes to bathrooms in

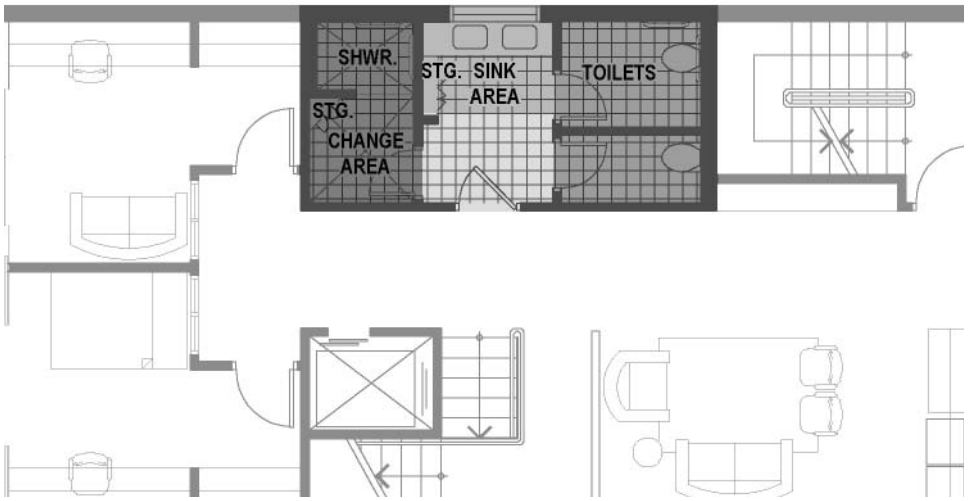


Figure 3.2-41
Detail of Washroom Plan of SIL Homes (Second Floor)

Partial Second Floor Plan
(Refer to Figure 3.2-11)
1:100

group homes. They explain that in the United States, some State and Federal regulations discourage storage of personal items in bathrooms. As such, residents need to carry their grooming articles (e.g. Toothbrushes, soap, etc.) to and from their rooms, leaving the bathrooms looking unlike those in regular homes, *"seeming rather cold, stark, and impersonal*[24]*."*

Solutions to this problem in this design involve including storage shelves and cupboards (more private and lockable) within the bathroom to accommodate space for each person to keep their personal toiletries. As well, having linen closets near the bathroom provides easy access for towels, and other grooming supplies.

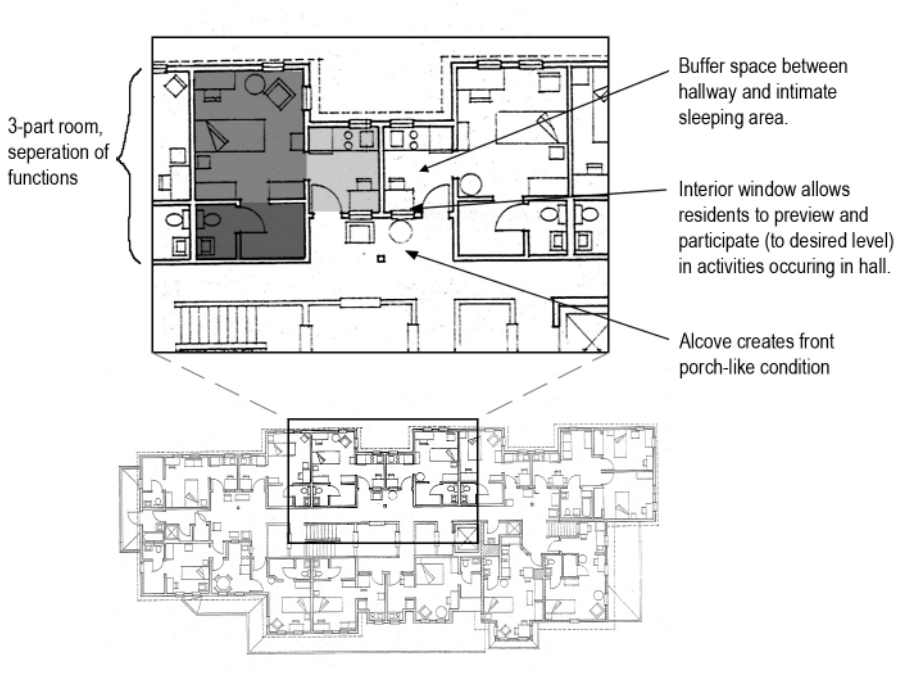


Figure 3.2-42
Second Floor Plan of the Eldridge House -a group home for Seniors (N.T.S.).

Example of a 3-part bedroom, with seperation of differrent functions and an entry alcove that acts like a front-porch condition.

Bedrooms

The ARC group in Community Group Homes conducted research studies of various shared residences. According to their findings, residents were found to spend much of their free time in their bedrooms, which were consistently considered their favourite room in the home. They write, *"Perhaps this is because in the bedroom, they can, at least to some degree control what happens and how the room looks, decorating and moving furniture to suit themselves[25]."*

McBride and Reizenstien argue that being adults, developmentally disabled residents should be afforded the right to having their own room, unshared, so that it is their own space, with doors that lock. Day-Lower further explains that every unrelated person should have a private bedroom because, *"It serves as a haven, allows for solitude, and is a place that reflects personal identity and individualism[26]."* Guidelines: Designing Residences for Mentally Handicapped Adults, writes that a personal bedroom, *"offers each resident the opportunity to reflect his/her own character and taste in arrangement, decoration and personal clutter[27]."*

As such, a bedroom is more than just a place to sleep or get dressed in. In a shared residence, where there is less control over other spaces in the home, a bedroom is especially important. Day-Lower likens the bedroom in such a house to a miniature version of a home for the individual person. As such, *"it has a 'front door', is an entertainment centre, a workplace, a resting place and a place for storage[28]."* He also stresses that it should be designed to allow it to have flexible uses, allowing it to be used as a "living" room during the day, and a sleeping area at night.

An important requirement for flexibility is room size, which dictates in part how a room can be used. A room that can only fit a bed implies that it is a space only for sleeping in and that 'living' takes place some where else.

Reizenstien describes the designs of rooms in a case study of the "New England Village" (group home for mentally disabled adults) as being small. The architect in this case hoped that residents would spend their time socializing with other residents outside of their rooms. In order to

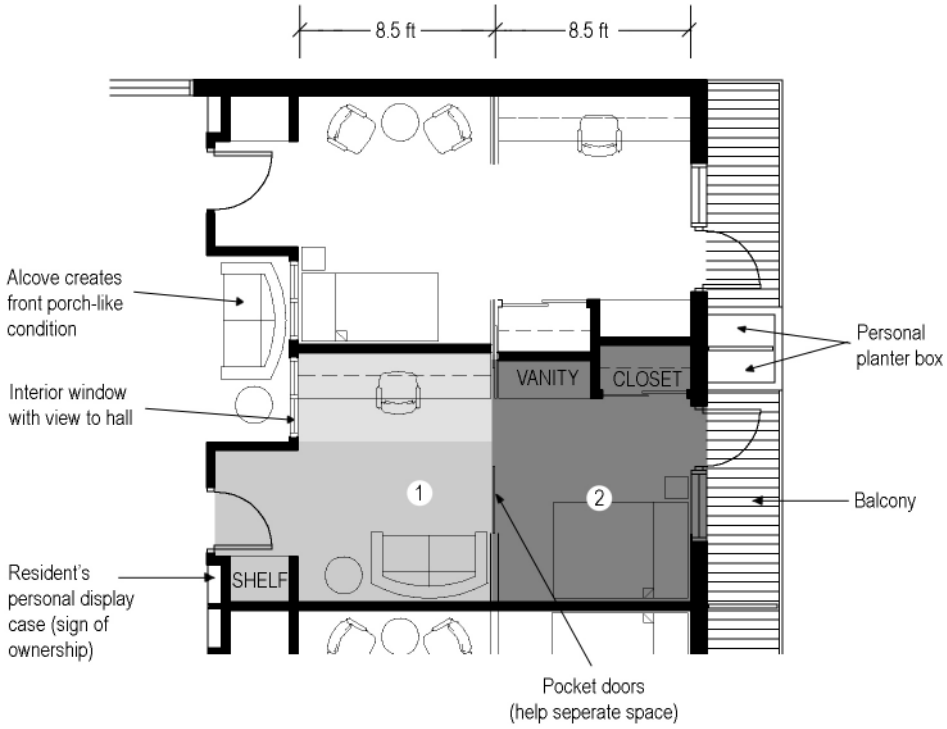


Figure 3.2-43
Detail of Resident Bedroom Used in Design.

1:100

This diagram is illustrative of a "two-part" room design. The first-half contains a work area and socializing space. The second-half is more private and can be partitioned off.

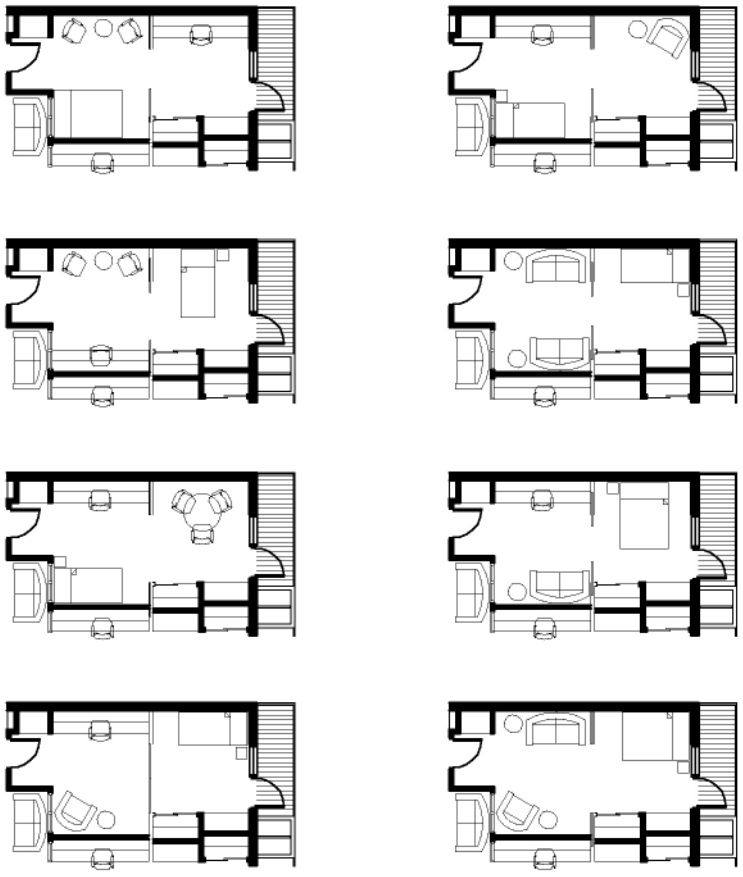


Figure 3.2-44
Different Combinations of Possible Bedroom Set-ups Based on 8.5ft Module.

1:200

Figure 3.2-45
Bedroom Dutch Door at Woodside Place (Group Home) in Pennsylvania

Dutch doors allow for varying levels of privacy between a resident's room and the corridor.

make the space within the room as efficient as possible, the architect ordered narrow steel framed beds, which residents and staff complained was too reminiscent of an institution.

Rather than forcing socializing through limiting a person's personal space, the bedroom can be designed to give the person the choice of what level of interaction they want. The room should be big enough that the resident can entertain a friend or that they can be comfortable being alone in. There should also be enough storage space for the person's personal belongings within this space. The Ministry of Community and Social Services recommend in their guidelines for designing such residences that the floor space for each room should be between 75square feet and 175 square feet, with window exposure and usable wall space[29]. The single rooms in this design are on the higher end of this scale, allowing for the creation of two usable spaces within the bedroom.

ARC further explains the need for the bedroom to convey a multi-use message. They write, *"For most people, to invite a casual visitor directly into a bedroom would be seen as a sexual invitation. But in a group home, the bedroom may be the only place to visit in private[30]."* The method for achieving such a program is to design a space that is flexible enough to be used as a "two-part room". He offers some ways that this can be accommodated for, by using screens, curtains, or wardrobe dividers. Also, he suggests that this division need not be so physical, for example a low bookcase, a canopy, or focused lighting could be used to delineate space.

Figure 3.2-42 is an example of a three-part room. First, the entry into the room is recessed, creating an alcove in front of the room that acts as a miniature porch and socializing area. This leads into the first portion of the bedroom that has a small kitchenette and snack table. A small interior window allows residents to control the level of interaction they are comfortable with. The window can remain open so they feel part of the activity that is going on in the hall. Or the curtains can be drawn to achieve privacy. The kitchen vestibule also acts as a buffer into the more private intimate sleeping area.

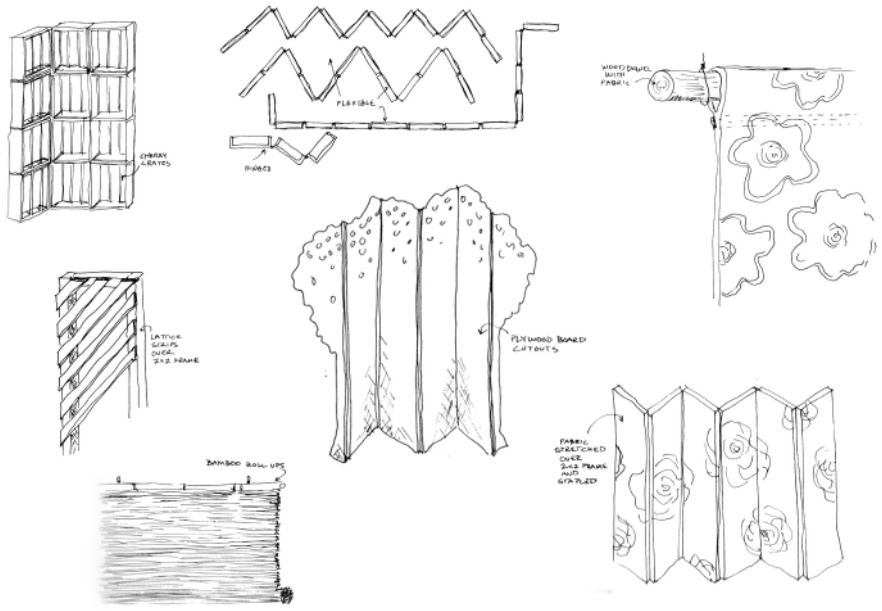


Figure 3.2-46
Examples of Screens that can be used to Divide a Room

The two-part room type was the model used for the design of the bedrooms in this thesis design. Figure 3.2-43 shows one of the rooms. Standard dimensions in the first part and second part of the room allow for certain flexibility, where the person can choose to move around certain functions to suit their needs. Figure 3.2-44 shows some alternatives. Kenneth Bayes writes, *"when possible the individual should at least help to choose and arrange his own space. A sense of confidence is instilled by providing an environment in which every element is easily controlled but of normal and common design, so that self-esteem is retained in the outside world[31]."* This accommodates for the desire to have ones own personal space, with each resident choosing their own configuration.

The room also has translucent pocket doors allowing for a partitioning in the space. They can be left open as one full space, or they can be closed off allowing for a separation of the two parts of the room (while still allowing light to penetrate both spaces). This is beneficial because one half can be kept more private than the other. Figure 3.2-43 shows how the configuration can allow for a socializing space in the first half and the sleeping area in the second space. This way a resident can entertain persons in their room without having them in the more private aspect of it.

There are some other features included in the design. One is the front porch condition described earlier. Another is a personal display case directly outside of each room –a sign of ownership of the room inhabited. There is also an interior window from the bedroom to the hall. This can be left open or closed depending on the level of interaction the person wants with others in the home.

Accommodations for double rooms for couples in the SIL homes are also made (refer to Figure 3.2-12, Partial Third Floor). They function similarly to the single rooms in that they can be partitioned into two spaces as well. This type of room is included only in the designed Supported Independent Living homes because persons with developmental disabilities that are in relationships tend to be more independent than persons in supported group homes.

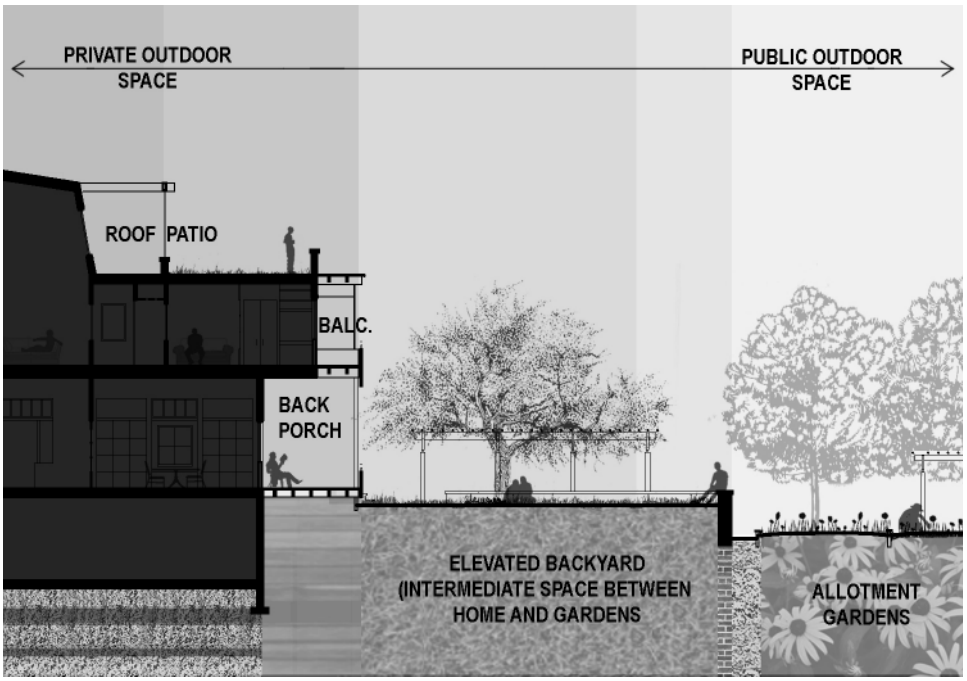


Figure 3.2-47
Diagram of Levels of Privacy in Outdoor Spaces of the Designed Homes

1:250

Private Outdoor Space

Private outdoor spaces include balconies, porches, decks, backyards, courtyards, and other spaces connected to, and which are private to, the home. The nature and scale of each of these can vary according to the home and the context that it is part of. Regardless of form, these spaces should provide the opportunity for a range of active and passive activities found in a normalized home setting.

The design takes into consideration the group being designed for and their needs for privacy as well as hopes for engagement with the community. This design proposes that the homes back onto the park. As such, it is important to create outdoor spaces that encourage interaction with the park. They should also accommodate varying degrees of privacy, with consideration to the capability or level of comfort of the residents.

The allotment gardens connect the homes to the park. Inclusion of the gardens, as described in earlier sections, is based on the goal of integration and creating a space for connecting activity between residents and the community. This space is at the same elevation as the park, and has the St. Hilda's walk, a public walk way running through it, providing an easy interface.

The raised backyards act as an intermediate space between the most private outdoor spaces of the home and the public space of the allotment gardens. The low brick wall and level change that separate the two spaces provides a sense of protection and privacy, while still being visually connected to the park. The backyard spaces are shared between the homes, promoting interaction within the micro-community of the homes.

The most private of outdoor spaces connected to the home include porches, balconies and rooftop patios. The porches are deep and act as extensions of the programmatic elements of kitchen and dining spaces of the home. Balconies provide private outdoor spaces for each resident.

Figure 3.2-48
Pictures of Staff Helping Residents in Group Homes

Staff Spaces

Some persons with developmental disabilities, like those who would be assigned to live in the group homes of this design, require more support and continuous supervision. Staff or care-workers provide this supervision and care, and are involved primarily in teaching life-skills and seeing to administrative matters. The relationship between residents and staff is determined by the goals set for the residents of such homes.

For example, section 2.2 described various models for institutions, one model being that of a custodial hospital, where the distinction and hierarchy between staff and patients was clear. Staff wore uniforms, ate in different areas, and watched over "patients" from glassed nursing stations. This was far from the normalized family-type environment that is being encouraged in this design. Rather, creating an environment of equality between care-workers and residents should be encouraged. This is accommodated by having a unit for the care-worker that is accessible from the residents' bedroom area. This implies that the care-worker, with a bedroom similar to everyone else, is a family member also.

In Guidelines for Designing Residences for Mentally Handicapped Adults, it is written that, *"staff also have a deep need for privacy and they must have some space which is completely private to themselves[32]."* Providing staff with their own personal unit that can be accessed separately from the rest of the home if they choose would enable them to work efficiently, as well as maintain their personal lives. (Refer to floor plans, Figure 3.2-10 and Figure 3.2-11).

The guidelines further recommend having an administration office within a group home. This space should be used for *"secretarial and book-keeping work, records, drug storage, and for private discussion of staff with residents or visitors.[33]"* As such, this space should be easily accessed from the entrance and be centrally located (refer to ground floor plan, Figure 3.2-10). For the smaller SIL residences, where residents require less support, the living room or dining room can be used for consultations with social workers that might visit from time to time.

Figure 3.2-49
Pictures of Broom and Linen Closets

Storage.

Another area of concern in designs of shared residences is storage. Reizenstein and McBride identify the problem of a lack of storage space in many group homes. They write, *"Residents and house co-coordinators complain that there is no room to store suitcases, trunks, off-season clothing and sports equipment… no place to store bicycles, camping equipment, grills or other outdoor paraphernalia*[34]*."* Much of this can be accommodated with an accessible, secure, and individual basement storage space, similar to the "locker" concept used in modern condominiums. Other storage spaces that are provided throughout the house include: closets and shelves in all rooms; linen closets; pantries; and housekeeping closets (for vacuums, mops, brooms, etc.)

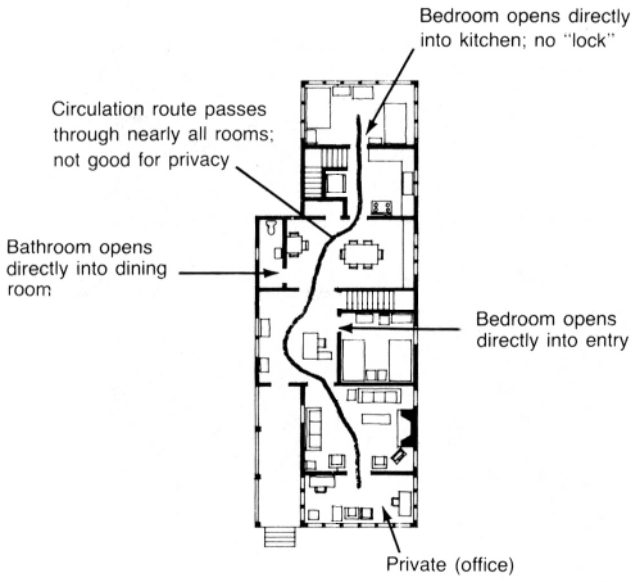


Figure 3.2-50
Floor Plan for 11-Resident Group Home for Alcohol and Drug Abusers (N.T.S.)

With a circulation route cutting through most rooms, this layout does not offer many opportunities for privacy.

Circulation - Corridors/ Stairs

Areas of circulation have the potential of being more than purely functional or simply about getting a person from one place to another. Instead, careful design of circulation elements can lead to situations of comfort, or provide opportunities for choice of interaction.

For example, Figure 3.2-50 shows a layout of a group home for eleven men with drug-related problems. Rooms open directly into common areas and the layout offers little opportunities for privacy. In this case, a casual preview space as part of the circulation route would be highly beneficial. A preview space can be defined as, *"a space, layer, or edge area where the activity of another space can be unobtrusively viewed by someone from another space prior to entering it*[35]*."* The ability to preview a space before entering it offers the individual time to make an unpressured choice about the level of interaction they wish to participate in.

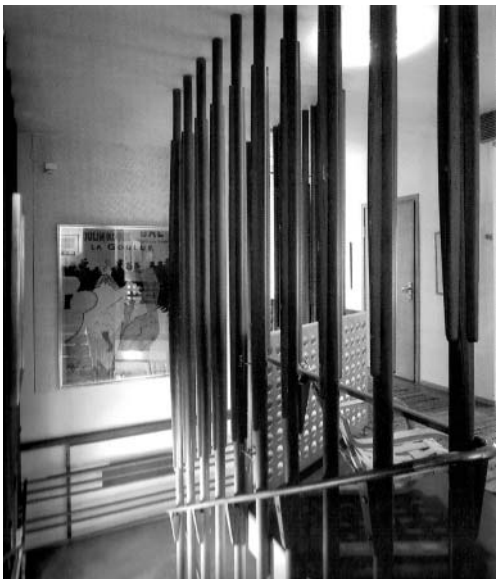


Figure 3.2-51
Casual Preview at Stairs in Villa Maria (by Alvar Aalto)

The preview afforded through this stair-case screen wall allows the resident to see a space before intering it.

Figures 3.2-51 and 3.2-52 illustrate how to incorporate preview spaces in design. Here, the design of the main staircase is open and overlooks the main shared space. This allows the resident time for orienteering and time to decide whether they want to join the activity that is taking place below or not. This design strategy is used in both the group homes and SIL homes within this design.

Another element of casual preview, as described earlier in this section, involves the bedrooms. The bedrooms have interior

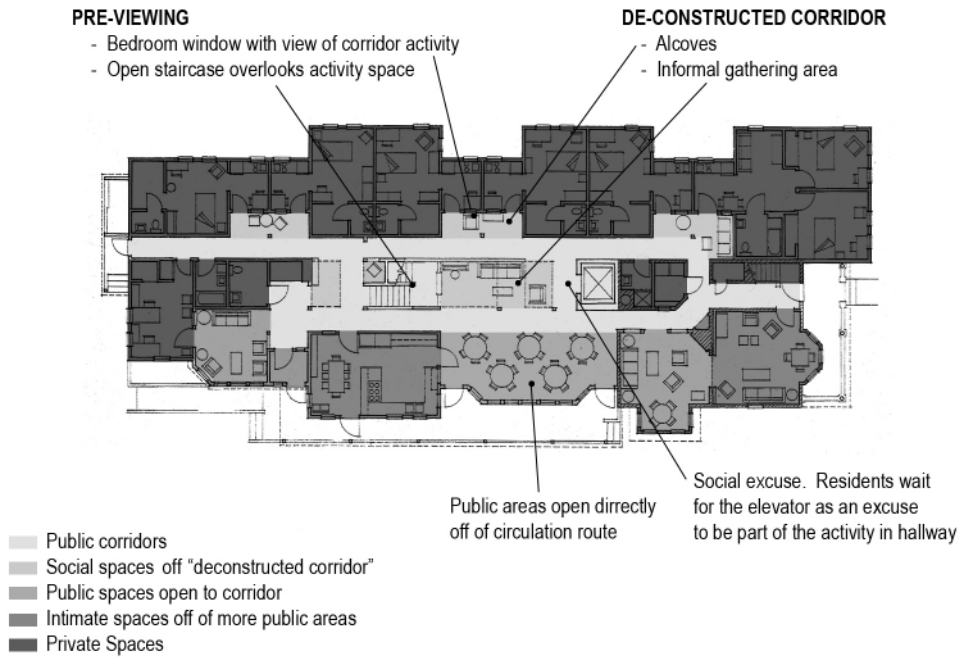


Figure 3.2-52
First Floor Plan of Eldridge House -Group Home for Seniors (N.T.S.)

Example that illustrates the use of "Pre-viewing" and "Deconstructed Corridor" in the design of a group home.

windows that face the circulation corridor. They also have alcoves in front of them. Both of these design considerations allow the individual to choose their level of participation in social activities from the security of their rooms. Also, this can potentially bring liveliness to the corridors, similar to streets with porch-like conditions. As described earlier, a similar approach is used for the rooms in this design.

Corridors should also reflect the character of the home. The sterile quality of corridors in institutions created a hospital-like environment. Often they were long, repetitive, and devoid of activity other than circulation. Here, corridors should reflect a home-like atmosphere.

Victor Regnier, Dean of Architecture at the University of Southern California, contends that in order to maximize space, the use of a double-loaded corridor is often unavoidable[36]. In such cases, he offers some suggestions for "deconstructed corridors" that have a double function. He suggests considering the corridor as a single-loaded edge between units and as a shared space. Figure 3.2-52 is an example of a "deconstructed corridor". In this case, the circulation route loops around and bleeds into an informal gathering space next to the stairs. This way, waiting for the elevator, making your way down the stairs, or simply moving through the building provides excuses for informal social encounters. Similar approaches to circulation are applied in this design. For example on the second floor of the homes, informal gathering spaces, such as the private shared living space and alcoves in front of the bedrooms (refer to Figure 3.2-11), open off the main circulation route.

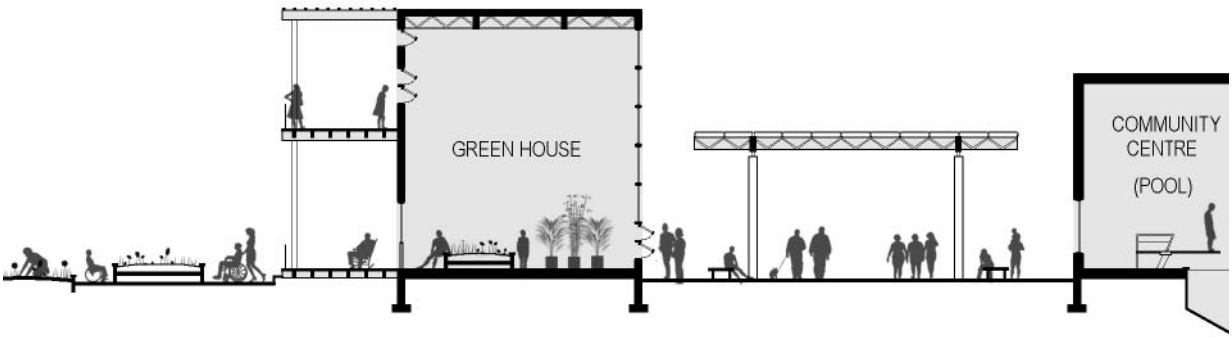


Figure 3.2-53
Section Through: Greenhouse of Day Program, Outdoor Market/ Entrance, and Community Centre.

1:300

DESIGN DETAILS – DAY PROGRAM

As described earlier in this chapter, the Day Program would accommodate a range of services that would cater to the persons living in the group home complex, as well as other developmentally disabled persons in the community. The design includes various programmatic elements such as: an adult day program, a greenhouse, and a retail store.

A general research source for the design of this day program was Designing a Better Day: Planning and Design Guidelines for Adult Day Centres, by Kieth Diaz Moore (the chair of the Architecture program at the University of Kansas). General design guidelines he writes about include designing an environment that is: open (with non-internalized spaces), that offers choice; that has a clear circulation route, and that promotes flexibility in use. He writes about available information regarding day programs, *"There are not very many good precedents and even if one finds a good precedent, the exact population mix and programming of the adult day service may be quite different[37]."* There is much diversity in adult day programs/ services, because there are various strategies in responding to needs of participants, as well as differing funding restraints.

This range of type was seen in the day programs visited. For example, one day program was for general disadvantaged groups, and ran out a cultural community centre. It included: gallery space, running tracks, gymnasiums, and a cultural wing. The other, specifically for persons with developmental disabilities, was a far smaller program that operated out of a group home basement. Because of this wide scope of approaches towards day programs, many programmatic inclusions in this design were based on educated assumptions as to what would best suit the goals of this particular design and group being designed for. Design choices were also based on various lessons discussed in the previous section "Design Details of the Home".

Figure 3.2-54
Participants of the Furniture Bank Program Posing In front of One of Their Delivery Trucks.

The adult day program is accessed from the market space entrance into the park, and is connected, via a path, to the side entrance of Trinity-Bellwoods Community Centre. The entrance opens to a waiting area where persons can be guided to offices (where clients can meet with case-workers), the workshop associated with the greenhouse, or upstairs to the other day program functions.

The greenhouse and retail store are meant to address vocational training aspects of the day program. The greenhouse is a place where gardening can take place year round for both therapy and training. Chapter 1.3 discussed various benefits of Horticultural therapy programs for improving the physical and social health of persons with developmental disabilities. Vocational training would also involve gardening. The retail store would be a place where participants can showcase and sell their work, instilling pride, with earnings being saved by the individual or proceeds going towards funding the program.

There are many examples for such programs. Although they are not day programs, some well-known models include the Salvation Army and Goodwill. They are nonprofit organizations that provide education, training, and career services to people with disadvantages. Types of persons they assist include persons who are: welfare dependent, homeless, with a lack of education or work experience, with physical disabilities, or to those with developmental disabilities[38]. Donated clothing and household goods are collected, sorted, repaired, and then sold in retail stores. The revenues fund job training, while the programs provide employment and training for the disadvantaged person.

Another program, located in Toronto, is Furniture Bank. It is a charity offering a range of furniture recycling services on a commercial basis. They provide employment and life-skills training for people on the Ontario Disability Support Program (ODSP) or to those who have limited employment opportunities (such as those with developmental disabilities). They accept donations

Figure 3.2-55
Adults with Developmental Disabilities Working in the L'Arche Daybreak Craft Studio.

of furniture, repair and refinish them, and re-distribute or sell the repaired pieces. Their website explains, *" participants in our Repair and Refinishing program learn woodworking skills, repair and refinishing skills, basic job skills, and life skills[39]."* The shop supports a client showroom and a sales boutique. The skills learned from this program are then used by the person for working and living within the community.

Another example, L'Arche Daybreak, part of an international network of L'Arche communities for developmentally disabled adults, is located in Richmond Hill. It is a self-sustaining craft-oriented day program, which contributes to the general funding of Daybreak. Participants make items such as candles, pottery, and mosaics. L'Arche's information pamphlet describing the program explains, "*part of the program's function is to create avenues of expression… all of them are individually designed according to the members' creative wishes and abilities[40]."* They also run a dance troupe that runs in a similar fashion. Both of these programs instill a sense of accomplishment for the persons participating in them, as well as allowing interaction with the community.

In the design, the retail store and outdoor market space are places where products grown or produced through the adult day program can be sold. This follows the examples of programs described earlier, where there are opportunities for: generation of funds, employment training, teaching of general life skills, developing feelings of accomplishment and self-worth, and interaction between the group and the community.

The workshop area on the ground floor is where activities related to the greenhouse would take place, such as the preparation of plants for sale, or the manufacturing of products made from plants grown in the greenhouse or in the allotment gardens.

The activity area on the second floor is meant as a more sheltered environment than the workshop below. Still, it is also visually connected, through glazing, to the activity in the greenhouse.

Figure 3.2-56
Snoezelen Room at Bloor MacMillan Rehab Centre

The balcony accessible from the activity space also reinforces this connection, with further visual links to the green house and views to the allotment gardens.

There is also a kitchen on this level (for teaching important life skills, associated with eating and cooking, and for general activities), a classroom (where lectures can be given), and an administration area.

Another area on the second floor is the Snoezelen Room. The Snoezelen, or controlled sensory stimulation environment, is a therapeutic and recreational space that aids persons with developmental and physical disabilities[41]. This space is designed to be a multisensory environment that provides sensory stimulation and relaxation using lighting effects, colour, sounds, music, and scents[42]. Bloorview McMillan Kid's Rehab is an example of a program in Toronto that houses a Snoezelen program -with therapeutic rooms and even a Snoezelen pool. Similarly, the Snoezelen room in this design would be a space that creates a soothing and stimulating setting through the use of light, sound and textures.

Figure 3.2-57
Picture of Leslie Street Allotment Gardens

This allotment garden is one of the first of its kind in Toronto.

DESIGN DETAILS –ALLOTMENT GARDENS

According to a report by Go for Green: the Active Living Environment Program, gardening is the second most popular leisure activity in Canada, with 72% of Canadian adults enjoying its benefits[43]. The City of Toronto's website, promoting Community Gardens in the city, writes, *"In recent years it [gardening] has been gaining rapidly in popularity… public parks and other city-owned lands provide opportunities for creating and demonstrating the benefits of gardening[44]."* The website further explains that these benefits include goals set out for the disadvantaged group in this thesis towards encouragement of community integration.

Section 3.1 described the difference between allotment and community gardens. The section also explained that there are very few allotment gardens in the city, with only 1617 spaces, all of which are full and with long waiting lists. The design of this thesis provides 65-71 large allotment plots (10' x 16') and 160-172 smaller plots (10' x 8'). The variation in number of plots is due to allocating some of the lot spaces as gathering areas. Also the design includes raised allotment plots that are meant for persons who require added accessibility, whether it is for an individual in a wheelchair or an elderly person who cannot bend down. This further perpetuates the goal towards an inclusive space.

Other than bringing about feelings of inclusion, gardening can also help in the healing process, and provides positive social interaction. The gardens aspect offers a place where the group and the neighbourhood can mingle, bringing about awareness. As such, a major design element for the gardens is to include gathering spaces. Susan Naimark, the author of A Handbook of Community Gardening, writes, *"Setting aside a place in the garden where gardeners can gather to sit and talk will encourage them to get to know each other[45]."* "Watering hole" spaces are included as a place to access water, as well as a social excuse space for interaction with others using the gardens. Seating is also included along the edges of the raised plots facing St. Hilda's walk. This is meant to encourage persons walking through the gardens to feel comfortable enough to sit and

Figure 3.2-58
Planter Table

This is a picture of a specially-designed planter-table, for persons confined to wheel chairs, by City Farmer.

socialize in the gardens area.

Besides the goal of community togetherness, the allotment gardens are also meant to contribute to the financial costs involved in running the group home complex by charging a fee for each plot. Typically, a permit fee for a municipally run plot (of varying size) costs approximately $53.50 per season (May 1 - October 15)[46]. The allotment gardens listed in Section 3.1 are overseen by the city's Parks & Recreation department and as described in the article in NOW magazine, *"The city has no strategy to procure more allotment real estate[47]."* Including allotment gardens as part of a community park system and the proposed supportive housing network would fulfill this need. Depending on what fees are assigned to the plots, they could be generative of between twelve to sixteen thousand dollars per season.

Being part of a city park also affords other cost savings for the allotment garden. For example, in municipally run allotment gardens, items such as topsoil, fencing and water are provided by the City[48]. As well, as part of a park system that promotes natural stormwater retention, naturally filtered and stored water could be used instead of potable water sources. Furthermore, forging a partnership between the various government departments responsible for running the group homes and the Parks & Recreation department makes logistical and financial sense.

(Endnotes)

1 "*Trinity-Bellwoods Park Regeneration"* (pamphlet provided by B+S Architects).
2 William A. McBride and Janet E. Reizenstein, *"Design for Normalization: a social environmental evaluation of a community for mentally retarded adults,"* Journal of Architectural Research, March 1977, p.20.
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5 . Guidelines: Designing Residences for Mentally Handicapped Adults (Toronto: Ministry of Community and Social Services, 1999), p.10.
6 William A. McBride and Janet E. Reizenstein, *"Design for Normalization: a social environmental evaluation of a community for mentally retarded adults,"* Journal of Architectural Research, March 1977, p.12.
7 Guidelines: Designing Residences for Mentally Handicapped Adults (Toronto: Ministry of Community and Social Services, 1999), p.3.
8 Kenneth Bayes, Designing for the Handicapped: the Mentally Retarded (London: George Godwin Ltd., 1971), p. 37.
9 William Brummet, The Essence of Home: Design Solutions for Assisted Living Housing (Toronto: Van Nostrand Reinhold, 1997), p.98.
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18 William A. McBride and Janet E. Reizenstein, *"Design for Normalization: a social environmental evaluation of a community for mentally retarded adults,"* Journal of Architectural Research, March 1977, p.21.
19 Dennis Day-Lower, Shared Housing: A Manual for Group Residences (Philadelphia: Shared Housing Resource Centre Inc., 1983), p.22.
20 Community Group Homes: An Environmental Approach (New York: Van Nostrand Reinhold Co., 1985), p. 43.
21 Guidelines: Designing Residences for Mentally Handicapped Adults (Toronto: Ministry of Community and Social Services, 1999), p.19.
22 Kenneth Bayes, Designing for the Handicapped: the Mentally Retarded (London: George Godwin Ltd., 1971), p. 25.
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24 Community Group Homes: An Environmental Approach (New York: Van Nostrand Reinhold Co., 1985), p.43.

25 Ibid. p.40.
26 Dennis Day-Lower, Shared Housing: A Manual for Group Residences (Philadelphia: Shared Housing Resource Centre Inc., 1983), p.23.
27 Guidelines: Designing Residences for Mentally Handicapped Adults (Toronto: Ministry of Community and Social Services, 1999), p.18.
28 Dennis Day-Lower, Shared Housing: A Manual for Group Residences (Philadelphia: Shared Housing Resource Centre Inc., 1983), p.23.
29 Guidelines: Designing Residences for Mentally Handicapped Adults (Toronto: Ministry of Community and Social Services, 1999), p.18.
30 Community Group Homes: An Environmental Approach (New York: Van Nostrand Reinhold Co., 1985), p.116.
31 Kenneth Bayes, Designing for the Handicapped: the Mentally Retarded (London: George Godwin Ltd., 1971), p. 21.
32 Guidelines: Designing Residences for Mentally Handicapped Adults (Toronto: Ministry of Community and Social Services, 1999), p.10.
33 Ibid. p.2.32
34 William A. McBride and Janet E. Reizenstein, *"Design for Normalization: a social environmental evaluation of a community for mentally retarded adults,"* Journal of Architectural Research, March 1977, p.20.
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39 *"Repair and Refinishing,"* Furniture Bank <http://www.furniturebank.org/repair.html> (accessed December, 2007)
40 *"L'Arche Craft Studio"* (pamphlet).
41 *"Snoezelen,"* Wikipedia <http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Snoezelen> (accessed December, 2007)
42 *"The Snoezelen Room,"* PEI Co.D <http://www.peicod.pe.ca/snoezelen.htm> (accessed December, 2007)
43 Go For Green Active Living Environment Program <http://www.goforgreen.ca/home_e.html> (accessed Septermber, 2007)
44 *"Benefits of Community Gardens,"* City of Toronto <http://www.toronto.ca/parks/programs/community.htm> (accessed Septermber, 2007)
45 Susan Naimark, A Handbook of Community Gardening (New York: Charles Scribner's Son's, 1983), p.5.
46 *"City Allotment Gardens,"* Friends of Dufferin Grove <http://dufferinpark.ca/gardens/wiki/wiki.php/CityAllotmentGardens.FrontPage> (accessed September, 2007)
47 Paul Terefenko, *"Harvesting denial,"* NOW, October 2007 <http://www.nowtoronto.com/news/story.cfm?content=160086&archive=27,6,2007> (accessed September, 2007)
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CONCLUSIONS:

As stated in the very beginning, the aim of this thesis was to discuss re-investing the landscape with both a community and an environmental purpose by bringing infrastructure into the realm of public works. The focus has been on two community issues: the displacement of natural systems in the City and the marginalization of disadvantaged groups in society. Relating and designing for these two issues is intended to be demonstrative of a general strategy that could be applied to sites, in Toronto or even in other cities, with similar characteristics to this study area.

The final design links the two social concerns, beyond the metaphorical associations of *liminality* and *othering*, and extends Brown+Storey Architects' plans for re-linking of disconnected open spaces along the Garrison Creek Ravine System, as part of a stormwater management system. The resulting proposal further extends these ideas by envisioning the park as a multifunctional place, where housing-infrastructure for marginalized groups has been incorporated. This thesis is a focused exploration of this idea, but does not suggest that it has comprehensively investigated all the possibilities that the use of urban parks can have. Further investigations could include such aspects as environmental sustainability; the use of naturally filtered and stored stormwater for the gardens; the impact that creating large water catchment areas could have on human and animal health (ie. As a breading ground for malaria or other water-borne diseases); how feasible it is to fund such a project; and how the pooling and coordination of various government resources could realistically be accomplished (a complicated system of various municipal, provincial, and federal jurisdictional departments).

Instead, the approach taken was to look specifically at one community park (Trinity-Bellwoods) and one disadvantaged group (persons with developmental disabilities). Chapter 3 showed a demonstrative design of a group-home complex, complete with a day program, with the aim of facilitating the integration process of persons with developmental disabilities into a mainstream community. This approach could then be applied to suit other parks (along this or even in other systems) and "tweaked" to suite other disadvantaged groups.

Key design considerations for the homes themselves are: Normalization, positive integration, and the development of strategies for fostering communication between the disadvantaged group and the community that they are a part of. This is achieved through a design that inspires connecting activity between the home and the street (addressing issues of thresholds, scale, and the context of surrounding homes), and connecting activity between the home and the park (creating an interface, in this case, with allotment gardens).

Allotment gardens are proposed as a medium between the park and the residential facility. Gardening can be a safe and healthy recreational activity that can bring people together. Gardens can also act as a non-threatening place where the group and the neighbourhood can mix on "equal ground". The Trinity-Bellwoods area has a strong affinity towards gardening. With little access to existing allotment gardens, the proposed allotment gardens can benefit those who live in the micro-environment of the residential facility, and the macro-environment of the community that it is located in. Furthermore, gardening can be used as a form of therapy and for vocational training opportunities for the group. Allotments are used intentionally so that the disadvantaged group is in a position of

stewardship over the gardens, which encourages their sense of belonging there. Rental of land and selling of gardening-based products in the retail store can also be generative of funds, which perhaps can be used to make the homes a little more self-sufficient.

An important issue discussed in this thesis is the use of public park space for supportive housing as opposed to other non-park sites. What benefits does a urban park hold? One benefit is the urban location of these community parks. This affords the group amenities that are crucial to independent living, such as public transit, places of worship, places of entertainment, retail stores, and places of employment. This type of environment can absorb a group of special needs persons, and can contribute to their independence.

Another advantage of locating a supportive residential facility in a park is the proximity to community centres that this offers, especially if the design includes a day program, as this proposal does. Day programs offer social support services that can work in tandem with the community centre. These types of places are also hubs for community activity, further increasing integration of the disadvantaged group into the local neighbourhood.

As well, the fact that these parks could be part of a network, as per Brown + Storey's proposals, makes the base for the supportive housing element stronger. This way there can be supportive basis for a supportive housing network that is based on the efficient synchronization of various social and government resources.

The issue of using public parks as a site is further addressed by examining the meaning that a park's public space holds for its local citizens, and the potential that these spaces have for being centers of community life. The park as a public space lends itself as a venue for interaction, where through visibility, there can be encouragement towards interaction and acceptance. The shift to this inclusion is through reducing isolation and encouraging personal engagement, which in turn will reduce fear and separation. As such, public spaces are venues where all groups of society can meet on "equal ground" and where this process of inclusion can take place. The park as a public venue holds functions other than the ones proposed here, and would promote more opportunities for interaction, as opposed to homes that were not in this setting.

Although the proposed supportive housing takes away some public park space, including such an aspect to a park can also be highly beneficial for the group housed there. It also has the potential for strengthening communities by creating opportunities for contributing to the common good, and by becoming a catalyst for projects that are both environmentally and socially responsible.

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