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MONASTERY CHURCH AT KLADRUBY, 1712-1726, by G. Santini Aichel

CZECHOSLOVAK ARCHITECTURE, 1500-1800

3. BAROQUE ARCHITECTURE, 1700-1750

By Dr. L. B. Kreitner

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At the beginning of the eighteenth century the whole of Central Europe experienced once more a spiritual turning. A tradition had been built up for almost two centuries and had produced a milieu which by then was ripe for personalities coming from a soil loosened by this same tradition. Neither was there the need any longer for ideas imported from foreign countries, nor had the traditional schemes to be repeated all over again. Individuals appeared who were able to express their own creative faculties. The architects of this new generation rose to a higher social position, and owing to the characteristic cosmopolitanism of the new epoch of the Baroque era, they had the opportunity of visiting foreign countries. The years of apprenticeship were mostly spent with leading architects abroad, and many young men travelled in order to see and study the highlights of architecture in Italy, France and the Low Countries. experiences gained from these travels were not copied slavishly but assimilated and applied in an original manner.

This epoch which created the fame of the Viennese school of architects had also its extraordinary importance on Czechoslovakia and especially on Prague. The high level and selfassurance of the artists at that time is best to be seen from the fact that in 1709, three members of the Prague Artists' Guild, the painter Michael Halvax, the architect Frantisek Max Kanka and the sculptor Frantisek Preiss, applied for the creation of an Academy of Fine Arts in Prague, where Architecture, Painting and Sculpture were to be taught. The Hapsburg authorities, of course, gave no consent to this proof of Czech spirit of independence. Two years before, the Silesian Johann Christian Willenberg had applied for permission to "open a school in Prague where he could teach mathematical and geometrical science, especially the art of building fortifications." This is noteworthy because at that time no other country except for Italy and France had any academies. Neither Rome's Accademia di San Luca nor the Academie Francaise, Colbert's foundation, had to serve as a model; the instigators had, as they wrote, Plato's Academy in mind, a "free teaching institution." It may be remarked, too, that one of the Roman Academy teachers, Domenico Martinelli, several times visited Bohemia and Moravia to discuss building projects with Czechoslovak aristocrats.

In a similar way the Viennese architects, Johann Bernhard Fischer von Erlach, and the second great master of the Austrian Baroque, Johann Lukas von Hildebrandt, took a hand in Bohemian architecture. Although Fischer von Erlach's authorship of the Clam-Gallas Palace in Prague is not established beyond any doubt, it seems probable that he was responsible for the facade with its unusual proportions. Two narrow, only slightly protruding pavilions were placed towards the sides of the long frontage so as to stress the verticality against the four simple rows of high windows. The top of the centre is articulated by a discreet pediment anchored in a balustraded parapet. The entrances were laid into the pavilions and their importance underlined by carryatids supporting daringly Hildebrandt planned and built the arched balconies. Chateau of Prince Kinsky at Chlumec, which had been destroyed by the Prussians in the war of 1866. The present copy of the original building seems to have missed the primary proportions, as well as the real Baroque beauty of the decoration. Strangely enough, these two architects and the third in the triad of the great German names, Balthaser Neumann the was born in Cheb in Bohemia in 1687, but he never worked in his home country) had only a very restricted influence upon Bohemian architects. However, the Slovak capital, Bratislava, because of its neighbourhood to Vienna, shows in its palace architecture a marked influence of Fischer and Hildebrandt. and so do a few chateaux in Moravia, where the Viennese aristocracy had its summer residences. Fischer von Erlach also constructed the Premonstratensian Monastery in Hradiste (1), typical of Viennese architecture; and the Archbishop's Residency in Olomouc (3).



1. J. B. Fischer von Erlach: Premonstratensian Monastery in Hradiste, about 1715. [Left part of the building is an earlier construction by an unknown architect.]

The tradition of Italian architecture was continued in Bohemia by a few North Italian artists who immigrated at the beginning of the eighteenth century. Giovanni Battista Alliprandi from Verona was the only one to settle in Prague. The others were called by Bohemian nobles to smaller towns, such as Klatovy, where Marcantonio Gilmetti perpetuated the principles of Roman architecture, and Pietro Paolo Columbani, who continued Caratti's work on the Lobkowicz Chateau at Roudnice; another, Ottaviano Broggio, was in the service of the Jesuits at Litomerice; the Canevalle family catered for the needs of wealthy provincial bourgeois; finally, Cristiano Luna, who before becoming an independent architect was an assistant to the Czech architect Jan Santini Aichel. Thus the röles were reversed; a truly remarkable and significant achievement of the indigenous architecture.

Jan Santini Aichel certainly was an outstanding personality and an architect of rare gifts. Born in 1667 into a family of Italian descent, he first followed his father's trade and became a stone mason. When serving his apprenticeship in Italy he discovered his true vocation and became an architect. Undeniable as is Guarini's influence upon him, his original talent developed and matured only at home. At that time, the beginning of the eighteenth century, the building activities of the religious orders were at their peak. Jan Santini Aichel played an important part in these activities by planning and constructing churches in Panenske Brezany, near Prague, and in Chlumec. These churches are examples of Guarini tendencies transplanted and adapted to Bohemian exigencies that the was called upon for restorations and reconstructions of Gothic churches, and there it was that his original gifts fully

developed into strange and even unique forms. At the beginning of the eighteenth century he anticipated the Romantic Gothic. His "Baroque Gothic" has, of course, nothing of the rigidness and austerity of "real" Gothic, it is as if he was splaying with Gothic forms on Baroque principles. Still, these forms he used skilfully in the facade and the dome of the (reconstructed) Monastery Church at Kladruby (Frontispiece), built between 1712 and 1926, and in his own creations and Zeliv and Sedlec. Except for the Franciscan Church at Vienna, J. Santini Aichel's work was restricted to his native country. It appears also that he was, at least in this respect, unique, and had no pupils or followers in Baroque Gothic. He died in 1723, when there were beside him several other able architects of Czech origin.

Frantisek Max. Kanka, Santini Aichel's contemporary, was also born into a builders' family. In his youth he seems to have visited Italy and France, where especially Mansart had a strong influence upon his work. Kanka's predilection for the French is to be seen also from the fact that his draughtsmen and assistants were mostly Frenchmen. But only one of them, François Ignace Pree, made a name for himself when he settled in Prague as an architect. Kanka, who is responsible for the rustic work basement of the Cernin Palace, had not the lucky venture of being entrusted with the erection of one of the huge aristocratic chateaux in the country, except for the chateaux La'ny near Prague (2), a rather French conception on a symmetrical ground plan. Still, the rather small tasks, such as the St. Clemens Church in Praque and several churches in Eastern Bohemia, were discharged by him with skill and even daring, for there seemed to be no

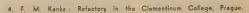


2. F. M. Kanka: Chateau Lá'ny, near Prague. (Summer Residence of the Presidents of the Czechoslovak Republic.)

 J. B. Fischer von Erlach: Library Hall in the Archbishop's Palace in Olomouc, 1711.

constructive obstacles in his way. The huge Library Hall in the Clementinum spans loftily over a considerable space as easily as if it was a modern concrete structure. The refectory in the same building (4) shows both the characteristic proportions and decoration which Kanka owes to his French schooling. Unlike Santini Aichel, Kanka had some pupils and followers, whose artistic contribution to Prague Baroque architecture could have been remarkable if used properly. Yet they were mostly entrusted only with reconstructions of Gothic churches, a task which they discharged with considerable skill and taste, as can be seen from Ferdinand Spacek's interior of the St. Mary Church in Prague-Strahov (5). At that time, in the second quarter of the century, the star of the greatest Czech Baroque architect, Kilian Ignac Dienzenhoffer, was already shining brightly.

Kilian Ignac Dienzenhoffer, whose name in the History of Architecture is almost identical with "Prague Baroque," came also from an old builder family. His father, Kristof Dienzenhoffer, seems to have been more of a contractor than an architect, in spite of his name being always mentioned in connection with the plans and reconstruction of the Bavarian monastery Waldsassen and the older part of the archbishop's residency in Wuerzburg, for which he was commissioned by Archbishop Count Schoenborn, a member of the wealthy Bohemian aristocracy. Kr. Dienzenhoffer (1655-1722) might have guided the first architectural steps of his son Kilian Ignac (1689-1751), but soon the son was to outgrow the rather narrow limits of the father's artistic gifts. Extensive travels in Italy and France gave the possibility of learning all about the new tendencies in architecture. Bernini and Guarini made the







5. Ferd. Spacek : Interior of St. Mary Church, Prague-Strahov.

6. K. I. Dienzenhoffer: "Villa Amerika," Prague.

deepest impression on young Dienzenhoffer in Italy, where he acquired his predilection for daring curves and lofty rooms. On the other hand Mansart's almost classical severity, especially in the conception of a plan, caused him to look for solutions which were in accordance with the principles of architectonic matters. These, namely Space, Form and Decoration, he handled with the ease of a virtuoso. Kil. Ignac Dienzenhoffer was by no means a fighter for principles, yet a personality who gave his hall-mark to a whole epoch. "To Kilian Ignac Dienzenhoffer appertains the culminations of the architectural development of Prague. His architectonic sense had a deep effect on his contemporaries, and his composed forms defined the specific style of Prague. Only his activities and his examples crowned the rebirth of mediaeval Prague into a Baroque City, into an artistic entity of a higher order, where all possibilities offered by the terrain and the old lay-out were used to their best advantage and artistically overcome." (Zd. Wirth in "Ceska Architektura," 1926.]

K. I. Dienzenhoffer based his constructions on symmetrical designs upon which he built mutually permeating spaces. This "spatial feeling" of the architect can be noticed on the facades, especially of his late works.

There the rich articulation is created by inflected walls, as if negative spaces would cut into positive.

Dienzenhoffer's first period, which ended about 1730, was characterised by the use of his Italian experiences. Guarini's influence is reflected in his churches of St. John of Nepomuk, St. Peter and Paul in Prague and in Carlsbad, as well as in his delightful cottage "Amerika" (6). There everything seems to be in motion as if created by a whirlwind. In contrast to this, quiet serenity

7. K. I. Dienzenhoffer: The architect's town residence, Prague.





8. K. I. Dienzenhoffer: St. Nicholas Church, Prague—Mala Strana. 9. A. Lurago: Part of the Kinsky Palace in Prague. (Left centre: Tyn Church.)

reigns in the second period, where the French influences, especially Mansart, made themselves felt. This can be seen best from Dienzenhoffer's town residency (7), with its calm and unexcited forms and noble proportions. Dienzenhoffer's work's crowned by the St. Nicholas Church on the Mala Strana in Prague, one of the most splendid examples of ecclesiastical architecture in Central Europe (8).

The task which faced the architect was difficult enough on account of the site alone. The church rises on an incline, a circumstance which gave the architect the key to a unique solution. A slender tower rises elegantly aloft from the lowest part of the site, and opposite this tower stands the mass of the fabric, the centre of gravity of which is a magnificently poised dame. The impression of the west facade is determined by the two horizontals of the pediment with the balcony above the lower row of windows, and of the timbered roof over which a lofty gable rises. The diagonal position of the portal columns, and the elliptical concave formation of the individual three portions of the facade introduce into the building the element of dignified movement. The unequal rhythm of the windows is caught up by the roof balustrade, the sculptures of which harmonise the whole. The interior presents a bright picture: gaily coloured pillars, in front of

which stand massive white sculpture, carry the broad span of the ceiling, the illusionistic paintings of which seem to carry the gaze into the depths of the blue sky.

Dienzenhoffer's name is connected with many architectural works throughout the country, but the authorship seems to me to be rather doubtful. Only a careful study of Diezenhoffer's individual style and its elements will reduce the number of works attributed to him to the proper works of the master.

Dienzenhoffer had several pupils and followers whose artistic ability was of different degree. Their works are mostly "good average," but without the touch of genius which was the master's own. Only one of Dienzenhoffer's pupils reached a truly high level. It was Anselm Lurago, who studied abroad and was to continue and to finish the late master's work. He was the architect of the Kinsky Palace in Prague (9), where he adopts, at least in the decoration, the new principles and forms of the Rococo.

A C K N O W L E D G M E N T S O F I L L U S T R A T I O N S
Frontispiece and Illustration No. 6 from "Monuments of Art in Czechoslovakia," a pre-war Government publication.
Illustrations 4. 5 and 8: Photos Central European Press.

Illustrations 1, 2, 3, 4 and 9: Photos V. Gotsche.

AERODROME AND SEAPLANE BASE

A PROJECT BY H. G. SUMMERLEY, M.I.A.

Ever since Wilbur Wright contrived to fly a few yards in 1903, experts have been improving and steadily developing the aerodynamic efficiency of the aeroplane. Owing to the demands of war this progress has been accelerated, particularly in the development of the transport plane. Examples of this progress can be noted from the fact that a 67-ton flying boat, capable of flying non-stop from America to Europe and back, is already operating on certain routes, and the Glenn Martin Company has prepared plans for a 120-ton flying boat, and even larger types are envisaged. It is also claimed that this 120-ton flying boat could make non-stop crossings from the United States to Europe overnight, carrying 102 passengers with 80 lbs. of luggage apiece, together with II tons of mail and freight, at a top speed of 250 m.p.h. and a cruising speed of 200 m.p.h. Britain has developed the Avro York, a forerunner of larger and faster transport planes, which even now-following the famous Lancaster bombersare capable of travelling 300 m.p.h. The latest revelations are the crabwise landing device and the development of the jet propelled fighter aircraft. Experts say this latter principle will probably be applied to transport planes after the war.

The possibilities of technical development are therefore immense, but while many scientific improvements remain on the secret list, we have to accept what information has been released by the authorities to form our views of the future world of air transport.

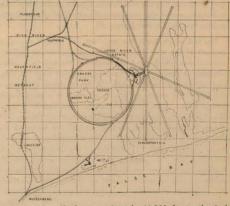
Meanwhile these developments must inevitably lead to a closer understanding between nations. International co-operation becomes an essential factor in a world which is becoming more air-minded, and which is understanding for the first time the potentialities of the freedom of the air as an instrument to goodwill among nations. The broad views of the Atlantic Charter will, it is hoped, increase the realisation that no country can survive without the co-operation of others, and the internationalisation of the air will give impetus to further aerodynamic science and progress.

South Africa will also be called upon to play her part in the international development of air transport, and in doing so will be required to possess airports capable of handling this air traffic. The actual situation of these will be dependent on a world-wide scheme, but wherever it may be, the architect and the engineer will be compelled to collaborate in projects for which there will be healthy international rivalry.

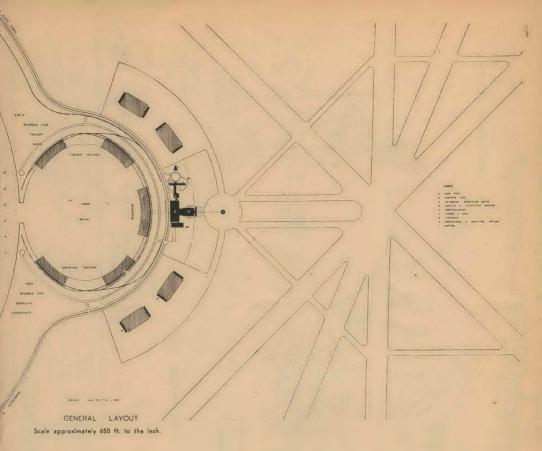
Certain airports will be required to accommodate both flying boats and aeroplanes. This combined seaplane base and aerodrome would probably form the focus of secondary communication in other parts of the country. It is the intention here to study such a possibility with special reference to the main airport buildings accommodating the general public. In order to do so it is necessary to presume that Cape Town should possess a combined arodrome and seaplane base.

In selecting a suitable site for this base the following facts must be remembered:—

 (a) Aeronautical considerations, flying approaches and road and rail facilities.



SITE PLAN. (Scale approximately 11,300 ft. to the inch.)



(b) Topography of the site :-

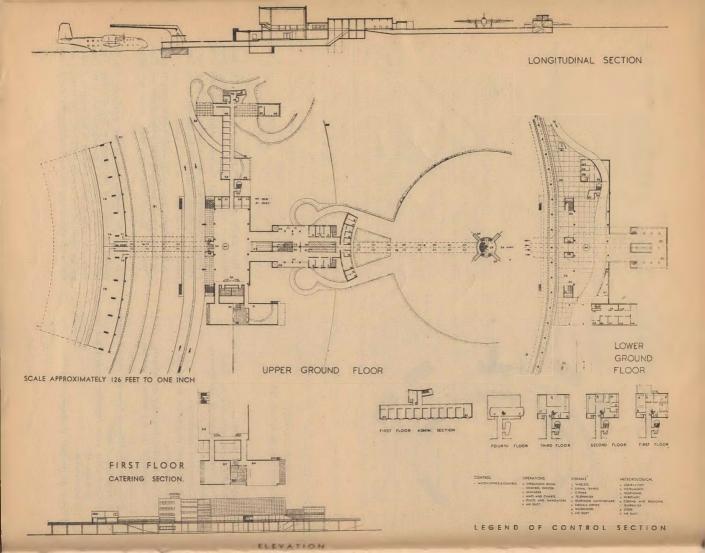
(i) Relation in regard to other air routes.

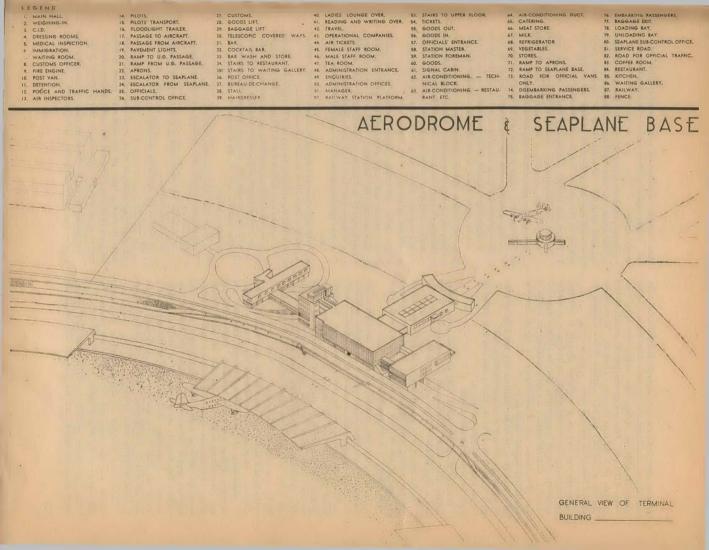
- (ii) The airport in relation to town planning.
- (iii) Areas required.
- (iv) Obstructions and contours.
- (v) Drainage and preparation of surfaces.
- (c) Meteorological :-
 - (i) Wind direction, frequency and intensity.
 - (ii) Frequency of fog and inclement weather.
- (d) Economics :-
 - (i) The site in relation to town and regional planning.
 - (ii) Acquisition of land.
 - (iii) Construction costs regarding runways and lagoons, drainage, etc.
 - (iv) Maintenance.
- (e) Future development of aircraft.

From the site plan it will be noticed that an area has been selected near the False Bay Coast, embodying the existing areas of Zeekoavlei and Rondevlei which would have to be dredged and enlarged to form a lagoon for flying boats, while the aerodrome itself would be laid out on the Cape Flats.

(This scheme, incidentally, would facilitate the drainage of low-lying areas belonging to the Municipality and Cape Divisional Council, and open these areas for further development.)

It is not the intention here to deal specifically with the detailed construction of the runways or their direction. They have been sited on available meteorological data of the Cape Town area. The principle involved in the layout is decided by the length of the runways (4,000 yds. 300 ft. wide) and that when approaching the main building, the aircraft must





draw up after landing at the passenger disembarkation point, and after loading continue in the same direction on a further length of 4,000 yd. runway, thus making the actual total length 8,000 yds. This arrangement permits aircraft to land and take off in the same direction without any risk of collision and also avoids long taxying operations before reaching the desired take off or terminal point.

The runways must be of sufficient strength to withstand the impact load of modern aircraft on landing, in all weather conditions. For this purpose they must be of some impervious material. Grassed runways are not considered economical in view of the heavy cost of maintenance. A typical specification for the runways would be:—

- (a) 8 in. x 24 in. of broken concrete slag and brick or alternately a 6 in. to 9 in. cement stabilised base.
- (b) 3 in. of 1½ in. to 2½ in. stone penetrated with asphalt at the rate of 1½ gals. per sq. yd.
- (c) 2 in. premix wearing course,

Drainage would be required along each side of the runway surface which would have a grade not exceeding 1 in 100 and a cross gradient not exceeding 1 in 60.

The lagoon, as previously stated, would be formed out of the two existing vleis, and in order to prevent excessive drainage or rise in water levels a separate canal system would connect it to the sea in False Bay.

Owing to the wind intensity and storms causing troubled waters at various times of the year in the lagoon itself, it is considered necessary for seaplanes to be protected within an inner basin as shown on the general layout plan. Seaplanes would be brought from the lagoon to the inner basin after landing, by tugs, unless in due course aeronautical science devises marine screws for this type of aircraft to enable them to manoeuvre in water under their own power. Once within this inner basin the plane is taken to its appointed berth.

This general layout plan indicates the main elements of the air base. Much depends on whether this is to be capable of undertaking all types of maintenance, servicing, and complete fuselage and engine overhauls. This decision can only be made by international, as well as South African policy, and therefore areas have been set aside for future workshops, slipways, engine test houses, main plane and fuselage depots, instrument repair and the host of subsections that form the integral part of an air depot. Maintenance and servicing would be done at the airport as a matter of normal routine, and therefore cantilevered canopies are provided for the purpose. Road and rail facilities are provided alongside these berths.

Cantilevered canopies are also provided for the freight section, and again road and rail facilities are provided for the expeditious handling of goods.

The main hangars are 280 feet by 150 feet, with opening doors along the length, and are provided with offices and

store rooms for air crews and aeroplane maintenance personnel. Ample room is given for expansion and manoeuvreability on the aprons.

Having considered briefly the site plan and general layout of the airport, the main buildings and approaches may be examined in detail. In order to do so, there are certain facts which must be remembered, as they have an important bearing on the design. They are as follows:—

- Present-day thought is convinced that it will be quite normal for 150-passenger aircraft to fly between continents, with the possibility of 400-passenger aircraft flying between the more densely populated continents.
- 2. The secondary routes in South Africa were using aircraft averaging 16-passenger carrying capacity before the war. It may confidently be expected that this will increase to a 30-passenger capacity in the immediate post-war period, with far more regular service than has existed in the past.
- Goods services, hitherto undeveloped in this country, are likely to come into operation. This traffic will probably increase beyond the bounds hitherto imagined, and will need a competent ground organisation with the equipment and facilities which go to make the establishment of efficient air bases.
- 4. The Union, not being a wealthy country, in comparison with others, must have an airport designed to produce economically the maximum efficiency, with complete avoidance of duplicating its administrative staff, servicing and many other items of ground organisation. This forms a very important factor in the design of the scheme shown here.
- Practically every commercial undertaking in air transport receives some form of Government subsidy.
- 6. While all the economic factors must be taken into account, it must be remembered that it is essential for this country to be linked in the international system with airports, which are well designed and appointed. This fact alone will tend to increase the personal intercommunication with other countries and the development of trade and commercial relations.
- In order that this base may work efficiently, the general requirements of the main building have been zoned as follows:—
 - (a) Those for the convenience of passengers and baggage.
 - (b) Administration.
 - (c) Offices for operating companies.
 - (d) Control.

Bearing these points in mind, it will be noticed that the approach road is taken off the main road known as Prince George's Drive and linked with the main buildings in such a manner as to form the cover to the railway station below.

The present railway electrification system is extended from a point near Southfield Station to the airport.

Embarking passengers and visitors pass through into the main hall from the road, or alternatively, if arriving by train, they approach the concourse by way of the staircases to the covered way. It is usual for passengers to be in possession of tickets, but if not, they are procurable at the ticket office, which stands freely in the main hall. Passengers take leave of friends in the concourse while they proceed to be "weighed in" with luggage, and then proceed to the aircraft embarking point by means of underground passages. If there is time to spare, they can rejoin the visitors and proceed to the waiting gallery or restaurants.

Disembarking passengers can also pass through underground passages, and both arrive at the Customs hall for the normal inspection. Immigration, Customs, Medical and C.I.D. departments are all arranged within the Customs and weighing in hall, so that the usual check and examinations may easily be undertaken by the officials.

The aeroplane embarking and disembarking point is arranged so that telescopic covered ways bring passengers under cover to the aeroplane entrance door. Four telescopic stays are allocated to arriving and departing aircraft. Experience may prove that this is not sufficient to cope with all the aircraft arrivals and departures. It then becomes necessary to provide two such points, one set aside entirely for embarking passengers and the other for disembarking passengers. These would obviously be situated each side of the present "cupola," allowing for sufficient space to enable aircraft to manoeuvre, and the underground passages would be altered accordingly. The existing "cupola" would then disappear.

Flying boats are brought under covered canopies, from whence gantries are connected to aircraft exit doors. Provision is made for the extension of these canopies should it be necessary to handle more air traffic.

It will thus be seen that the keynote of the plan is public and passenger control. They are not permitted to wander to all parts of the base, and definite set passages control their movements.

The method of embarkation of passengers to the aeroplane has been followed because it permits the aircraft to move into and off its position under its own power without causing dust and annoyance to other passengers through the slipstream. There is a tendency to use a similar method of embarkation for aeroplanes as shown for the flying boats and provide similar covered berths. In this case aircraft would be towed out to their point of departure on the runway. Likewise, incoming aircraft would be towed under this covered stage. It remains to be seen which is the better method; both have their advantages and disadvantages.

Baggage is brought to the weighing-in hall or taken from the Customs hall by means of lifts and brought to the point of departure by road, rail or air. Baggage to and from aeroplanes is brought to the Customs hall by means of baggage vans in the case of the aerodrome traffic, while baggage from flying boats proceeds by underground passages to lifts, thence to the respective departments.

That portion of the ground staff connected with the aeroplane and landing field is accommodated to the fore of the whole building. This arrangement provides the maximum supervision by the Air Inspection Department, police and traffic hands, ambulances, fire engines, Post Office van and floodlight trailer, all being readily available at any time or in case of emergency.

To return to the main hall, it will be noticed that the waiting space is provided in the form of a gallery approached from the centre of the concoursé opposite the ticket counter. The waiting gallery, as it might be called, overlooks the flying boat base, thus giving the public a pleasant aspect to pass the time while waiting for aircraft arrivals (which is a common occurrence). From the concourse access is obtained to the cocktail bar and public bar. By gaining one flight of stairs the public are led to the coffee room and restaurant above. The kitchen is provided between the refreshment room, while goods are delivered and stored for the catering section on the lower ground floor approached by a separate roadway. No large terraces adjoin the restaurants, as has been customary on the Continent prior to the war, as it is considered that the public will no longer gather at airports as a form of social entertainment. Lavatories are provided at this end of the main hall for convenience of the public.

At the opposite side of the main hall, provision is made for a small branch Post Office, bureau de change, book stall and hairdressing saloon. Above this is a ladies' lounge, and on the second floor is the reading and writing room, access being gained thereto by the staircase from the main hall.

The roof of this hall is supported by independent columns, light being gained from an unobstructed window over the waiting gallery. This arrangement provides a volume embracing the idea of space, and by the application of suitable colour to the columns, walls and ceiling, the passengers are brought into harmony with the comfort, speed and luxuriousness of their mode of travel. The indicators showing arrival and departure tables, with clocks arranged on the international 24-hour day, as normally used by aviation, meterological reports, together with special notice boards, all form part of the interior fittings.

Thus far the convenience and control of passengers has been considered, but the control and administration of an air base is most important, and this should be carefully studied.

In most countries there is more than one company operating air lines, and this applies to Africa, although the South African Airways have the entire control in South Africa, and private companies are only allowed to operate with certain

restrictions. With the extension of the airways system and the internationalisation of the air, the Government will have to carefully consider a revision of its present policy, as other companies may be operating in the country. Provision is made in the accompanying scheme for offices to accommodate these companies on the upper ground floor, readily accessible to the public, yet arranged so that they are connected with the control and administration of the air base. A travel bureau is provided in conjunction with the operating companies in order that intending passengers may make enquiries about air travel, connections, conditions and other services which are ancillary to air transport.

The administration of the airport is provided with offices which will correlate the numerous departments and sections of the airport, forwarding the documents, etc., to Head Office, Cape Town. The manager's office is arranged so that a view is obtained over the whole of this building, as well sthe departure and arrival points of the aerodrome and flying boat stations. Separate access to this administrative section is obtained from the approach road to the main building.

The airport manager will not only be concerned with the administration, but the control of the airport is also his care. In times of emergency and for other reasons, it will be necessary for him to be in the closest touch with aircraft, and therefore provision is made for a separate office for him on the operations floor of the control section.

This section is situated in the centre of the whole building, as the various sections housed therein directly affect the other portions. Only officials, pilots, navigators and wireless operators have access to this portion of the airport. Access thereto is arranged by a lift and staircase articulated from the connecting link between the concourse and the control building.

On the first floor, the meteorological offices are accommodated. Provision is made for a large forecast room, in which all weather charts can be prepared and kept. This meteorological department would require to have up-to-date records of the weather in many parts of the world. Barometers, anemometers and other meteorological instruments are kept in the observatory, so that they can be read at the same time. Stores for balloons and records are also provided. The meteorological official's office faces the main aerodrome, so that he can detect changes of wind and general conditions at once. Thermometers and other instruments which must of necessity be outside are connected as far as possible by special recording apparatus to the observatory.

On the second floor the wireless section is provided with a long receiver room, in which several wireless sets could be placed. The signal traffic room is connected to this and the cypher office, so that incoming and outgoing messages can be handled efficiently. Overseas weather conditions would more than likely be received at a central station in the Union and transmitted to the meteorological stations by teleprinter, which is housed adjacent to the cypher office. On the same floor accommodation is provided for telephone exchange, chief signals official and a small workshop in which apparatus can be repaired and renewed.

On the third floor the operations are conducted in the operations room, which is under the supervision of an officer controlling all aircraft leaving and approaching the airport. He is assisted by a person logging all messages from aircraft, other airports, and meteorological reports which are received through the lower floors. This room of necessity is well equipped with maps on walls and information boards showing the position of aircraft, weather conditions, shipping, etc. A special room is set aside for pilots who wish to study maps, charts and plot courses to their destinations.

It will be noticed that the control room is situated on the roof so as to give observation over the whole aerodrome and lagoon. The design of the windows gives an unobstructed view upwards or downwards, and facilitates the use of visual signals to aircraft in flight. This room, together with the operations floor below, is the nerve centre of the airport. All instructions to aircraft and operational personnel are issued from here, so that telephones, public address systems and wireless are all connected with the control. A spiral staircase within the control building gives officials quick communications with one another when personal contact is necessary. To add to the efficiency confidential signals are sent to the various departments by the vacuum message system, thus avoiding the human element, which may lose signals and deliver confidential messages to wrong departments, etc. Other technical equipment for measures of control are provided, but for security reasons cannot be mentioned here.

Thus the complexity of technical and administrative sections has been linked to form one building providing for the efficiency and comfort of air transport. The flexibility of the plan enables further additions to be made as science advances the technique of aviation and aerodynamic progress.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT.

Air Transport and Civil Aviation Year Book. Civil Engineering.

SOCIOLOGY AND TOWN PLANNING

By L Silberman, B.A., B.Sc. (Econ.), F.S.S., G.M.I.Mech.E.

The more Town Planning moves into the centre of popular interest, the more will it be sociological. Having started its career modestly on transport problems, sewerage and sanitation, it now stands to National Planning as local government does to Parliament—the fountainhead of a selfdetermining community wishing to make a success of urban living. With the rapid extension of the boundaries of his art, the town planner turns to the sociologist for further information: to the sociologist who usually is not there. For although shoals of studies, pamphlets, monographs on partial problems and American textbooks on urban sociology have been pouring into the market, there is available no synoptic review which would trace out the points of intersection of Town Planning and Sociology, nor a listing of the chief sociological requirements which the town planner must include in his plan.

THE CONTENT OF TOWN PLANNING

1. Town Planning Schools.

One reason for the absence of demarcation can be found in the youth of Town Planning as a technical subject and the puzzling conflict of recommendations. The fronts are not clearly drawn and the assumptions far from expliciti. Born to eradicate evils springing from one-sided developments, the various schools seem themselves to bear the vestiges of an unassimilated shock situation such as first jarred on the sensibilities of the head of a particular school. It would appear that English town planners at present are agreed upon this minimum programms.

- (1) That Town Planning is desirable.
- (2) That it includes as its general object all efforts to secure the proper sanitary conditions, amenities and convenience of the city.
- [3] That greater powers of control over private rights in the use of land and erection of buildings must be assumed by public authorities.
- (4) That industry be decentralised and residential areas be relatively isolated from large-scale industry, and through traffic be segregated from local traffic.

- (5) That a town needs a green belt and open space of at least seven acres per 1,000 inhabitants.
- (6) That fertile land be reserved for agriculture.
- (7) That rural amenities be safeguarded.

A not too impressive list! Thomas Adams, at one stage of his comprehensive "Recent Advances in Town Planning" (1932), rightly likens his subject to the person about whom Walter Pater said he reminded of "a steam engine stuck in the mud," and added to this: "But he is so enthusiastic." The mud which Mr. Adams has in mind, however, is primarily "composed of complicated administrative machinery, inertia of local officials, and resistance of vested interests in property," it is not the mud which one town planner slings at another. In the babel of schools, not only are all the important issues unresolved, but a method by which they might be settled does not seem to emerge from the debate. Semanticists may even wonder whether the disputants are really quarrelling about the same things. Most contentious of subjects are the following:

- The machinery of planning, land ownership, decisions on architectural design.
- (2) Town size and population density.
- (3) The location of industry.
- (4) Town and country trends.
- (5) The planning of new cities: satellite towns, lineal or centrical towns.
- (6) The replanning of existing cities.
- (7) The elements making up a city.

A cleavage reminiscent of the mechanist-vitalist controversy in biology seems to set the town planners' teeth on edge: community versus "radiant city" planning, house versus flat, slum rebuilding versus housing estate, precinct versus street, popular architecture versus functionalist—and always there appears among the partisans the same philosophical and temperamental differences: some incline towards geometrical solutions, others reveal an organismic outlook, and there are, as always, the typical figures of the idealist, the sentimentalist and the "realist." Tentatively we might separate the protagonists into the three modes with sub-groups:

CONSTRUCTIVIST :

- Chief problem: planning in the transport age; chief exponent: Le Corbusier; chief emphasis: redesigning of urban centre: temper: Cubist.
- II. Chief problem: Our architectural design; chief exponent: Sir Edwin Lutyens; chief emphasis: "the city beautiful"; temper: beaux-arts Renaissance.
- III. Chief problem: artificiality of town existence; chief exponent: Frank Lloyd Wright; chief emphasis: "the soil"; temper: Confucian.

FAUVIST:

- Chief problem: suburban expansion; chief exponent: Sir Ebenezer Howard; chief emphasis: garden space and privacy; temper: my home is my castle.
- Chief problem: "Coketown"; chief exponent: Lewis Mumford; chief emphasis: health; temper: Scandinavian folkism.

EMPIRIO-CRITICAL:

- Chief problem: slums; chief exponent: Sir Ernest Simon; chief emphasis: housing; temper: Manchesterism of the public utility age.
- II. Chief problem: post-war reconstruction; chief exponent: Prof. Patrick Abercrombie; chief emphasis: amenities and community planning; temper: J. B. Priestley's version of the English genius.

CONTENT OF TOWN PLANNING SOCIOLOGY.

The mocking gleam in the sociologist's eye, irresistible since Veblen, hopes to deflate the fustian debate to manageable proportions. Recalling all planners to a study of the "is" before they propound their "oughts," hopes to establish unity in the scientific movement. Thus sociology brings to the discussion a body of verified social facts, research techniques and more doubtful social theories. It propagates the belief in the ultimate victory of inductive procedure over our present perplexities and the beneficient results of a frank recognition of opinion as ideologies when nothing more they

The sociologist finds himself with regard to Town Planning in a position very similar to that which faced Dean Roscoe Pound 30 years ago in his survey of jurisprudence. Pound discovered a plethora of schools each stressing a particular normative aspect of law making, teleologically orientated and stale with taxonomy, all evidently oblivious of the royal road to success in the advancement of human knowledge, viz., causative exploration of objective conditions. One is tempted to match some of his remarks in that distant field, claiming no

direct relation to physical planning, with our case study in order to bring out what is common to, what is the essence of all sociological contributions. He found all jurisprudence wanting in a deference to the supremacy of the socio-economic situation, the social setting which governs all our activities. He advocated a style of enquiry which would "take more account, and more intelligent account, of the social facts upon which law must proceed and to which it is to be applied." In his articles in the Harvard Law Review (1911-12) he mapped out a sociological jurisprudence, which "would study the actual social effects of legal institutions and the means of making legal rules more effective . . . a study not merely of how doctrines have evolved and developed considered solely as jural material, but of what social effects the doctrines of the law have produced and how they have produced them." He wanted principles tempered by nominalism: the recognition of "the importance of reasonable and just solutions of individual causes, too often sacrificed in the immediate past to the attempt to bring about an impossible degree of certainty." In short, he commends the sociological approach so that the purposes of law would be more effectively, more rationally, and more vigorously, served. Similarly, Town Planning has to incorporate social information and the sociological approach if it wants to make decisive headway.

Sociology, at its present stage of development, has to offer the town planner a number of social facts culled from different planes of social integration and the relevant research techniques which have been employed in their verification.

The pieces of information can be classified to concern:

- 1. The nature of the chief institutions of our society. Instance the work of the Beards on American civilisation, and of the Webbs on the Soviet Union.
- 2. The quality of urban living compared with rural society. Thompson, Park, Anderson, Lindeman and Muntz have surveyed the field of urban sociology and urbanisation, while organisations like the National Resources Planning Board have analysed the working of cities. The Chicago and Indian (ecological) school has related the statistical evidence of urban social disorganisation to environmental conditions.
- 3. The attitudes of urban inhabitants and their physical living conditions: Numerous social surveys from Charles Booth's "Life and Labour of the People of London" to the Lynds's "Middletown," studies of Mass Observation, enquiries into life on housing estates and slums could be cited. Special classes of urban inhabitants such as the newly-urbanised, the detribalised, the homeless, the gangs, the juvenile delinquent, the old and the young, the salariat have been especially carefully investigated.
- 4. The working of urban institutions and amenities, their influence on mores, the advantage taken of them. The kind of questions which can be asked with reference to them have been usefully compiled by J. C. Colcord in "Your Community."

The weakness of much of this work lies in its tawdry pedestrianism. Rarely is the work carried to the planning level, hardly ever to the designing stage. A great task lies before the planner to go through the monographs and meet the evils and inadequacies they portray with a preventive policy. To achieve this the town planner must complete his education: he must become deeply aware of the social function of Town Planning.

IMPORTANCE OF TOWN PLANNING TO THE STANDARD OF LIFE.

Town Planning lies within the orbit of that type of "New Dealism" which can command the approval of both the conservative and the radical. To the conservative the removal of unnecessary frictions and waste factors promises the maintenance and rejuvenation of the system, to the radical is held out an opportunity, inasmuch as scientific planning and the exposure of ills will themselves educate the population to desire, and be able to manage, greater reforms. "New Dealism" implies that in objective, Town Planning should make for welfare of the individuals, in scope, it should be limited to strategic issues, in method, it would work in with our democratic machinery and indeed extend it.

Town planning affects social well-being:

- (a) Because it influences the cost of living. (Had Iscor Works been planned with regard to the prevailing winds, the laundry bill of Pretoria inhabitants would be smaller. Productivity of Johannesburg office workers is lessened because they cannot rest in shady parks during their lunch hours.)
- (b) Because it influences the plane of living. (Long and strenuous journeys home in congested streets and vehicles reduce leisure hours and increase fatigue. Lack of land control raises the cost of amenities and often makes their provision prohibitive.)
- (c) Because it influences the manner of living. (Sprawling suburbs make it more difficult to reach the countryside or the cultural centre of the town. Great cities exercise too great an attraction on the surrounding country, which is denuded of its most talented members.)
- (d) Because it influences the style of life. (A city which dwarfs its inhabitants into anonymity, which lacks community development, internal articulation and design, a focus and civic beauty depresses the mental climate, whatever the excellence of its material services.)
- (e) Because it influences the social process. (Haussmann boulevards make insurrections more difficult, and the garden city may convert the class-conscious proletarian into a home-loving "little man.")

TOWN PLANNING AS WELFARE PLANNING.

But to state that Town Planning conditions the standard of living is to demand that it improves it: clearly Town Planning is the executive of welfare planning.

Welfare is the end product of the constructive activities of individuals working through their social institutions to the common enrichment of life. These institutions must be provided on a scale and in a variety which will satisfy the just requirements of all strata of society and incorporate basic standards on the assumption that only if everyone is contented can a really mature culture grow, so that the town planner must plan around the following integrative institutions which we annotate Baedeker—like with some of the more outstanding issues:

- (a) Work: The condition sine qua non of human life and man's opportunity to realise himself. The attractiveness of the work place affects the work and the worker. Its relation to other functions of life, the trend of men to organise as producers, the psychology of economic and occupational classes and their status, function, usefulness to wealth and the future of civilised living must be thought out by the town planner. Proper location (decentralisation) and diversification and abolition of nuisances (smoke, dirt, noise, smells) can make or mar life in the town.
- (b) Housing: The house provides shelter and comfort; it gives man the scope to build up a small universe of his own creation, with his own values, a family circle and friends. The relation of the different elements of a house to one another; of the purposes each element has to serve according to the family type; the time spent in, the use made of the home; the provision of gardens; the relation of the home to the neighbourhood; the density and grouping of houses; equipment and built-in furniture, architectural appearance and communal services for each house complex, are to be determined according to cost, tradition and expressed wishes; attitude to the family as an institution; and technological trends. Housing must be laid out always with reference to places of work, recreation, distribution.
- (c) Health: Health is more than the absence of disease. It includes mental health and creativeness, preventive and nutritional services, hygiene, birth control clinics, night sanatoria, etc., sunlight (height zoning), air (density and use zoning), access to the countryside (limitation of size and spread of town), green belt and open space are vital factors of a healthful environment. We separate out personal and family hygiene, occupation hygiene and control of foodstuffs, housing, water, public baths, etc. (public hygiene).
- (d) Recreation: After work hours we have to "recreate," assemble new strength for the next working day and realise all those interests which are necessarily starved at the work site. Recreation must combine rest with culture. Provision must exist firstly for open spaces—parks, playing fields, sports

grounds, school grounds, private space (gardens and squares), swimming baths; and secondly for built-up places of entertainment like communal centres, theatres, museums, dance halls, a zoo, rest places, places for clubs, societies, metal, wood, clay work shops, libraries, skating rinks, rooms for exhibition, special attractions. Emphasis should be on active recreation.

(e) Education: To educate is to develop all potentialities of the individual not merely to convey a body of facts and techniques. The school and town must be brought into contact with one another, the acquisition of knowledge should draw on practical acquaintanceship with the realities of the town. Location and design of the school should facilitate many-sided contacts and the firm inculcation of social values. A logical chain should lead from the nursery school to the adult education centre. Vocational guidance, technical, academic and experimental institutions must also be integrated into the scheme. Schools should be near to or in parks and no more than a short walking distance from the home.

(f) Curative Services:

- Medical services—hospitals, general clinics, special institutions, nursing, ambulance services.
- (ii) Public assistance—administration of social security and relief schemes, labour exchanges, agencies for dependent children, the aged, the transient and homeless, the physically and mentally handicapped, with their special institutions and social workers.
- Miscellaneous provisions in case of breakdown of constructive services: such as prisons, asyloms, cemeteries.
- (g) Administration: To be deeply concerned about the management of the society is an honourable duty of the democratic citizen and the governmental services should be shoused as to facilitate easy access, publicity of government, and the subjection of the executive and administration to popular control.
- (h) Circulation of Goods and People: Shops, markets (including street markets), hotels, restaurants and coffee houses are essential and are also places of much public enjoyment. Transport arrangements should avoid congestion, accidents and street level railway lines inside the town, speed-up and segregate through traffic, assist the pedestrian with wide pavements and the motorist with car parks.
- (i) Monumental Centres: Symbolisation of the ethos of a time and town, commemoration of historic events, cathedrals, grand places, exhibitions, special experimental centres, research centres, Press and broadcast houses, airports, all the dramatic aspects summarising the 20th century and our tradition should be suitably underlined, expressed and publicly comprehended. Churches and other institutions for the spiritual interpretation of life must be provided.

PRESENT OBJECTIVES.

Let us make explicit what objectives pervade all social planning. All social institutions must incorporate certain basic standards, conceived first as national minima but aiming at national optima, and embrace certain desiderata which we summarise as follows:

(a) Basic Standards:

- Spatial standards (for overcrowding, allowances for family growth, density, open space requirements, distance from work and amenities).
- Health standards (quality of housing provision, smoke and noise abatement, amenities provided, health services, sanitation, distance into the country).
- (iii) Service standards (for quantity and type of housing, recreation, production to be provided, with allowances for growth of each neighbourhood).

(b) Maximalisation of Wealth:

- (i) Reduction of the cost of production.
- (ii) Efficiency of all services.
- (iii) Diversification of economic opportunities so as to allow for full utilisation of human resources and intelligence.
- (iv) Protection of assets, such as agriculturally good land.
- (v) Aids to population growth.

(c) Promotion of Social Equality:

- Reduction of economic inequality and social distance.
- (ii) Provision of services in such a form and so located that large numbers of people (also the indifferent) will be encouraged to make use of them.
- (d) Planning in Neighbourhoods, Communities and Regions:
 - (i) Positive evaluation of traditional neighbourhood consciousness and homogeneity, which is a matter of slow growth and difficult rearing, and respect for spontaneous adjustment patterns which generally utilise the environment more wisely than the paper solutions of the theoretical man.
 - (ii) All-round planning bringing backward areas into line with progressive ones.
 - (iii) Individuation and sociation as complementary and dialectical aspects of personality should be equally stimulated. If old institutions such as the family are loosening, then the individual needs reintegration in a wider but still personal grouping such as the neighbourhood.

- (e) Planning for Freedom, Spontaneity and Sublimity:
 - (i) Order, fitfulness, poise, variety, beauty, dignity in design have a "function" which is to-day of equal, if not of superior, importance as the economic requirements of the individual or the group. Their careful analysis and embodiment in the urban fabric is essential for creative living.
 - (ii) Combination of elements making for activisation of the individual as well as for his leisurely repose and otium, for passionate adventure and inner growth in a freedom born out of the thorough understanding (but not pardoning) of the necessity is the ultimate problem facing town planning.
 - (iii) All planning must enhance the spirit of scientific research and experimentation, open-mindedness, philosophical contemplation, if it does not wish to turn totalitarian. The answer to these questions must be in the affirmative:
 - (1) Does what is proposed supply the necessary initiative?
 - (2) Does it preserve and widen democracy?
 - (3) Is it backed by persuasion rather than by force?
 - (4) Is the consumer the chief ultimate beneficiary of the system?

OVER AND ABOVE ECONOMICS.

The last point of our programme, "Planning for Freedom, Spontaneity and Sublimity," brings us to the difficult problem of social theory and culture planning, i.e., to the esthetic of our movement.

The last century has been one of great liberation—many oppressive institutions have fallen, great advances have been made in science and social experimentation, in freedom of movement and openings for advancement, in the lengthening of life and the conquest of pain, in the vast multiplication of inventions and opportunities for sensory gratification. At the same time the security of the traditional, conservative, rural, corporate life of propriety and service has been undermined. As long as enterprising individuals felt that competitiveness, individuation, diversification and conspicuous expenditure increased, on balance, the pleasure of living this development

could be positively interpreted. But the dialectics of our society were such as to increase inequality—individual, class, and national, conflict, standardisation, commercialisation and regimentation until a point was reached where the individual, oppressed by dangers and fears with which he was unable to cope, haunted by a feeling of purposelessness, loneliness and disequilibrium with all the vital forces, was left the prey of any fashion, craze or demagog.

If Town Planning is to blaze a trail for general social reconstruction, and sociology to act as its guide, then it must be concerned with the crisis of our civilisation and work out its schemes in the light of such awareness. It must accept welfare as its central theme and at the same time transcend it. For welfare lacking mystique and an appeal to youth will be a poor thing quite unable to sustain the enthusiasm of the masses once the war tragedy and the present nostalgia for a nonchalant and aimless industry in peace and sunshine is a matter of the past.

Sociology has its own dialectics, while it can point out the critical nature of our present set-up, it can enhance the power the bad reality has over us. By exposing the town planner's "ideologies" the sociologist is inclined to overlook the ennobling effects of Town Planning "utopias." Loss of the holy fire and a slackening of personal will is frequently the result of social consciousness. The sociologically orientated town planner may become over-impressed with the invincible superiority of existing social mechanism, and lead him to inhibit his protests, which, turning against himself, land him in a chasm of despair of making any suggestion at all which is both practical and progressive. The very lugubriousness of so many past Town Planning proposals testify to a feeling of deep-seated discontent with the social categories through which we have to work. They also confustedly reflect that city planning is part and parcel of social planning. an effort to find a new synthesis between social disclipline and private, hedonic consumption. Sociological Town Planning must keep these grand objectives alive, must seek a creative unity of solidarity and individualistic mobility, compactness and openness, order and flexibility, differentiation and homogeneity, privacy and social intercourse, a blending which will fully utilise our technological advances by evolving a culture worthy of them.

THE ARCHITECTS' BENEVOLENT FUND

"I shall pass through this world but once. Any good, therefore, that I can do, or any kindness that I can shew to any fellow creature, let me do it now. Let me not defer or neglect it, for I shall not pass this way again."

This quotation comes to our mind when contemplating the dire straits into which the Benevolent Fund threatens to fall unless its claims upon the profession as a whole are more generously acknowledged. We know the inroads that taxation, patriotic and other funds are making into the pockets of our members; but, surely no cause should be closer to the heart of every brother architect than that which relieves and assists the indigent dependents of deceased members of our Society. To maintain the all too meagre benevolence that the Trustees dispense, year after year we have to rely upon the generosity of just a few of our members known for their humanitarian instincts. The time has come however, in fact it is long overdue, when we must earnestly ask the general body of our members to enlist as regular annual subscribers to the Benevolent Fund. Consider, we shall not pass this way again, so don't let us defer or neglect any kindness that we can show to our fellow creatures living in a state of want. In the times through which we are passing it would be manifestly inappropriate to ask any member to commit himself to a large regular contribution but most earnestly do we plead that one and all should respond to this appeal no matter how small the individual donation may be. Members have the assurance that all claims upon the Fund are thoroughly investigated and that no grants are made unless completely justified. Kindly draw your cheque in favour of the Hon. Treasurer, Architects' Benevolent Fund.

D. M. BURTON, R. HOWDEN.

Trustees.

THE NATIONAL HOUSING AND PLANNING COMMISSION

The publication at the end of July of the personnel appointed to the new National Housing and Planning Commission gave rise to considerable comment in the profession. The general feeling prevailed that the Institute of South African Architects had been overlooked, and it was held that since the profession could make a considerable contribution towards clarifying an approach to housing in the Union, it was not in the national interest that such a state of affairs should be permitted to continue. Accordingly, a meeting of the Central Council Executive Committee took place on Wednesday, August 2nd, to consider the situation that had arisen.

Considerable debate took place at this meeting, and the feelings of members concerning the composition and functioning of the Commission were thoroughly ventilated. It was generally agreed that since the Commission would primarily inaugurate policies which when translated in terms of building would in many cases profoundly affect the aspect of urban areas throughout the country, the nature of these policies was of vital interest to the profession, who should therefore have a voice in their formation. As matters stood the Institute was unable to exert any influence in the direction of improving the new urban environment that would inevitably arise. It was also felt that the Commission should draw on the Architectural and Quantity Surveying professions in addition to maintaining close contact with the Building Industry when framing the policies which were to guide re-housing. The present composition of the Commission did not appear such as would impart the hoped for drive in this sphere.

In the light of the above the Executive finally resolved as a first measure to send a letter to the Minister of Welfare and Demobilisation expressing the Institute's disappointment in that the profession had been ignored, but it also resolved as a second measure to examine critically the problem before the Commission in order that the letter could be followed up by concrete proposals showing how the profession could assist in the onerous national task of re-housing a large proportion of our population.

As indicated in the Press, the appointments to the Commission, with the exception of the Chairman and Deputy Building Controller, extend for a period of one year. For the moment, therefore, the Institute's approach will possibly not be able to bear fruit. In order, however, to gain some immediate representation, the Executive further decided to press for the inclusion of an architectural representative on the Advisory Board to the Minister.

Membership of the new Commission is as follows: Chairman, Major W. Brinton, ex-Mayor of Cape Town; Vice-Chairman, Colonel Dr. E. J. Hamlin, Director of Housing, of Johannesburg; Captain S. H. Kemp, identified with the Trade Union povement; Mr. M. G. Nicolson, exown Clerk of Pretoria; Hon. Secretary f the United Municipal Executive; Ir. G. O. Owen, Secretary of the ssociation of Divisional Councils of ne Cape; Mr. G. R. Savage," Legal apresentative: Brigadier Sir Edward hornton,* Medical Representative: Ar. E. L. Ellenberger, of Bloemfonhin; Colonel J. G. H. Holdgate, eputy Controller of Building; Mr. F. du Tait, Secretary for Commerce and Industries.

*Members of the old Central Housing Board,

TOWN PLANNING ASSOCIATION (TRANSVAAL)

This association has been reconstituted, it being felt that such an association, which was originally constituted in 1919 and supported by many Municipalities in the Transvaal, and which was responsible for the introduction of the Transvaal Town Planning Ordinance of 1931, could again be of considerable assistance to Government and Local Authorities in advising them on the broad aspects of post-war reconstruction problems.

It has been decided, further, that the Association should change its title and widen its scope to include such national problems as town and country planning in all its aspects.

Many professional and public bodies are keenly interested in such subjects, but feel that there is no organised national body to which they can appeal for advice.

An inaugural general meeting of the Association will be held at Kelvin House, Marshall Street, Johannesburg, on Wednesday, September 6th, at 4 p.m., when the President, Professor G. E. Pearse, will give an address. All those interested are invited to attend.

Subscriptions for membership of the Association are as follows:-

Ordinary Members _____ 10 6 per annum

Corporate Bodies or Associations £3 3 0 per annum

Life Members : Ordinary Members may become Life Members on payment of the sum of £10 10 0.

Applications for membership should be made to the Honorary Secretary, Mr. Gordon Chalmers, c/o University of the Witwatersrand, Milner Park, Johannesburg.

The main objects of the Association are as follows :-

To advance the study of town and country planning, civic design, housing and kindred subjects, and of the arts and sciences as applied to those subjects.

To promote the artistic and scientific development of urban and rural areas.

To hold conferences and meetings for the discussion and exchange of views on matters relating to town and country planning, civic design and housing, the reading of papers and the delivery of lectures, and to hold congresses or exhibitions for the exposition of any matters relating to town and country planning or any allied subject.

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