Planning History

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Notes for Contributors
The prime aim of Planning History is to increase an awareness of developments and ideas in planning history in all parts of the world. In pursuit of this aim, contributions are invited from members and non-members alike for any section of the bulletin. Articles should normally not exceed 2500 words, and may well reflect work in progress. Photographs and other illustrations may be included. Contributions submitted on a disc, with accompanying hard copy, are to be encouraged; please contact the editor for format details.

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Editorial

If the focus of planning history has sometimes been directed too much on the British tradition, this issue is welcome evidence of a more international approach. Planning has evolved in a variety of national and cultural settings, and there is a wealth of experience to share. As if to illustrate the point, the articles in this issue are drawn from the varied perspectives of scholars in Norway, France and Australia.

Halina Dunin-Woyseth (Oslo School of Architecture) compares the development of planning in Britain, Germany and Norway, showing that locality and the unique characteristics of place are attracting renewed attention following a long phase of submergence in the face of generalising influences. In turn, Daníle Voldman (Institut d'histoire du temps présent, Paris) offers an account of a more specific process, that of urban reconstruction in France after World War II, though questions are raised about processes that are no less applicable to those that occurred in neighbouring European countries. Finally, Lionel Orchard (Department of History, University of Adelaide) brings planning history to the relatively recent period of the early 1970s, through the example of the urban policies of the Whitlam Administration.

A sharing of experience and different cultural perspectives such as the above is essential to a deeper understanding of those processes which have accounted for the development of planning systems, and of variations in systems adopted in different countries. Each contribution provides another building block that can be used to construct more generalised models of comparative explanation.

But such generalised models are difficult to construct. We are accumulating the building blocks, but how should they be arranged? What general explanations can we offer, for instance, for the introduction of a planning system at a particular time, for the extent to which it might have developed features unlike those of any other system, and for the ways in which ideas and experience are exchanged between countries?

There is no easy way forward, but the role of international conferences is an obvious source of progress. Last year’s international conference in Tokyo raised interesting conceptual questions to do with the exchange of ideas and the particular characteristics of the Asian experience. The forthcoming conference at Bourneville has a challenging role in carrying forward the debate, the building blocks in this case being the evidence of the garden city tradition, an international topic if ever there were.

Dennis Hardy
Notices

SIXTH EUROPEAN SYMPOSIUM OF HISTORIC TOWNS

This international conference is being hosted by Cambridge City Council under the auspices of the Council of Europe’s Standing Conference of Local and Regional Authorities of Europe. The event is being organised in collaboration with Europa Nostra, the English Historic Towns Forum and the Local Government International Bureau in the United Kingdom.

For further information, please contact:
Conference Contact, 42 Devonshire Road, Cambridge CB1 2BL, England. Telephone (UK) 0223-323437. Fax (UK) 0223-460396. Telex 81304.

WILLIAM MORRIS SOCIETY

News from Nowhere Centenary

Next year marks the centenary of the publication of William Morris’s utopian romance, portraying London ‘after the revolution’. The William Morris Society, an organisation with 1700 members, is planning conferences in London and Oxford to mark the event. Details of these and of other activities of the Society may be obtained from Hans Brill, William Morris Society, Kelmscott House, 26 Upper Mall, Hammersmith, London W6 9TA, England.

AUSTRALIAN PLANNING HISTORY

“...in reference to notes about planning history activities in Australia (Vol.11, No. 1, 1989) the correspondent persists with an outdated myth. William Light did not design the Adelaide city plan (or “plan-form”, whatever that means). He was hired in 1836; the plan was prepared in London in 1835 under the supervision of George Strickland Kingston. Minutes and diaries confirm this and the new evidence is contained in the book, Donald Leslie Johnson and Donald Langmead, The Adelaide City Plan, Wakefield Press, Adelaide, 1986. Sadly, there are a few in Adelaide’s social and bureaucratic establishments unwilling to accept the obviousness of the evidence. Observers outside Adelaide seem to be more objective.

Also, re. p.32, Walter Burley Griffin designed the Canberra plan, not “Griggen.” Further, not all planning historians in Australia were invited to join that “small band”, the A.P.H.G; wonder why?”

The above note is from Donald Leslie Johnson, Box 75, Kangarilla, South Australia, 5157.

GRADUATE STUDIES IN THE HISTORY AND THEORY OF ART AND ARCHITECTURE, STATE UNIVERSITY OF NEW YORK AT BINGHAMTON, USA

The graduate program offers opportunities for advanced studies and research in the history and theory of art and architecture, with a particular commitment to new theoretical and methodological approaches. Supported by university strengths in history, sociology, anthropology, and critical theory, it aims to develop scholars, teachers, museum curators, and practitioners in the planning professions, capable of interpreting the role of art and architecture within cultural production in the broadest sense.

Because of its links with other interdisciplinary research centers and graduate programs within the university, the program in the history and theory of art and architecture offers a unique opportunity to graduate students wishing to undertake innovative studies of a cross-disciplinary nature. It places emphasis on the development of critical, theoretical, and historical perspectives in the study of the visual arts, photography, architecture, planning, and the wider built environment, and of the social and political contexts in which they may be embedded at a local, national, and global level.

As the program stresses the development of analytical and conceptual skills over a broad range of specialized fields, it provides opportunities for students to work towards careers in research, education, museum and gallery practice, publishing and editorial work, cultural policy, or urban design, planning, and conservation at local, national, and international levels.

Applications are invited from students in a variety of disciplines, especially in the fine arts, humanities, and social sciences. The department welcomes inquiries from all regions of the world as well as the United States and encourages applications from minorities and under-represented groups.

Application forms for admission to the Graduate School may be obtained from the Graduate Admissions Office, State University of New York at Binghamton, Binghamton, New York 13901, USA.

EUROPA NOSTRA AWARDS 1989

Applications are invited for the 1989 Awards for the protection of Europe’s Heritage. About thirty-five awards are made annually by Europa Nostra for projects which make a distinguished contribution to the conservation and enhancement of Europe’s architectural and natural heritage. All the awards are accompanied by a wall plaque and a certificate, and the most outstanding entries are presented with a silver medal.

Entries should be received no later than 20th October, 1989 by: Europa Nostra Awards, 9 Buckingham Gate, London SW1E 6LJ, England.

SELECTION OF EUROPA NOSTRA 1988 AWARD WINNERS

1. THESSALONIKI, GREECE - for the restoration of the 16th century White Tower to house an art and history exhibition.

2. UTRECHT, THE NETHERLANDS - for the restoration of five churches dating from the 11th to the 17th centuries for religious and cultural uses.

3. HERTFORDSHIRE, ENGLAND - for the rescue from demolition and rebuilding of Titchfield Stanor, dating from the late 15th century.

4. GLASGOW, SCOTLAND - for the regeneration of the Merchant City through an ongoing programme of city centre housing.
Can we learn from the past?  

The idea of this paper was to study the development of urban built form during the last hundred years, and to look at it through two relationships: urban built form as a result of planning legislation and, at the same time, a result of influences, created by dialectics between national, local, and international processes.

The built form of the town has been a physical expression of the total situation of people who have lived in towns at any time in history. Both the unique, monumental, expressed in wood, brick and stone, and the ‘rest’, an anonymous substance and background for the ‘unique’, have been formed by a social consensus, written and unwritten laws and rules (Dunin-Woyseth, 1987:25). These laws, urban legislation, were first building codes and in our modern time, also planning laws.

Urban legislation expressed tradition: the local, the national, it ‘ratified’ the established practice and habits. It was also an attempt to improve the existing situation in the town. But, above all, it aspired to promote ideals and values of its epoch: social, political and artistic (Dunin-Woyseth 1986:4). Urban legislation has been a necessary link between ideals and realization of them in urban built form. It has been a tool for implementation of the ideals.

During the last hundred years, the urban physical environment, urban built form, has changed dramatically. Looking back, one can indicate periods of "good urban form", and those which are regarded as "bad".

What is "good urban form"? A comprehensive literature has been dedicated to this subject (Lynch, 1981:359-372). Still, no single definition can be introduced, a definition valid as an archetype. In attempting to describe physical environments analytically, one misses the concrete environmental character, that is, the very quality which is the object of man’s identification (Norberg-Schulz, 1980:5). It is rather by looking at urban physical environments as "places" of distinct, individual character, and thus to draw near their substance and nature, that "the spirit of places", genius loci, can be found.

The assumption could be made that good urban form, as a source of man’s identification, potentially giving him a sense of existential foothold, should be an "evergreen" of planning objectives. Good planning legislation, being a tool for implementation of planning objectives, should also promote good urban form; good form meaning a form of distinct, individual character; good legislation meaning a good tool for enhancement of genius loci of urban "places", the physical environment.

Does the term “international” mean in this context “negative” or at least “neutral”, whilst “local” is synonymous to quality?

The level of public services was not even elementary, with insufficient water supplies and lacking waste disposal. Neither medical treatment nor public health controls protected the town dwellers (Harper, 1985:XX). Pollution of water supplies caused cholera epidemics in 1832, 1849 and 1869 (Cherry, 1972:37). The epidemics concerned the whole society, even its most privileged members. In order to improve the situation some steps had to be taken.

A long political struggle brought results, a series of Acts: the Public Health Act of 1848, which set up a Central Board of Health and enabled the establishment of Local Boards of Health; the Nuisance Removal Acts of 1855 and the Sanitary Act of 1866 (Gaskell, 1983:VII-IX), (Benevolo, 1973:103). From the 1860s on, most stress was put on control of building standards, which was regarded as a tool for the prevention of dangerous diseases (Sutcliffe, 1981:51).

The Public Health Act of 1875 enabled a reform of local government in England and Wales: the country was divided into urban and rural districts, supervised by a central government department, the Local Government Board. The Board published a model set of bye-laws which the local authorities began to adopt for the construction of new housing from the 1875s onwards (Harper, 1985:XXI). Bye-law housing has been a well-known feature of many British towns, as most urban building was governed by regulations which in fact were very similar from town to town.

"Public Health and Bye-law legislation resulted, with all the rigid, unimaginative inadequacies of regulation...though affording mitigation of unhealthy conditions (it) retained the monotony and dreariness that commonly attaches to mechanized building rigidity, fixed by rule, and from which the exercise of artistry and imagination is excluded" (Horrocks, 1955:65).

In British society began a debate on how man’s well-being was affected and even determined by the physical environment and its qualities (Cherry, 1972:114:5).

This debate went on at the same time, when the trends of decentralization of urban population became heard of more and more. This intellectual development coincided with the technological development of transportation systems (Lichtenberg, 1986:293). Slowly, the attention of society shifted from the clearance of slums in the central areas of towns to the newly-created, green suburbs. An ideal, a pattern to follow, was the example of two villages, built by factory owners: Port Sunlight (1888) and Bournville (1894) (Galton, 1950:72).

All these factors were bringing about a search for a new city-wide approach to urban problems. A new strategy would aid in the solution of such problems as overcrowded, unhealthy and expensive housing in the town centres, shortage of new housing for working people, the lack of public open space in working-class areas, depressing ugliness of the environment shaped by the bye-laws.

There emerged two alternative strategies: the garden city idea and the idea of town-extension planning.

Garden City’s father, Ebenezer Howard (1850-1928) proposed a general planned movement of people and industry away from the deteriorated city. In his book of 1898: Tomorrow A Peaceful
Path to Real Reform, this idea was presented in an almost practical way. In a restricted competition, the winners, architects Raymond Unwin and Barry Parker, produced a plan for Letchworth, the first garden city, which was to become a model to follow in Britain.

The plan was an example of comprehensive urban planning, containing distinct industrial and commercial areas, a network of communications, a civic centre, a green belt, a park system, and housing areas with fixed densities. The housing followed a new code of building regulations, different to building bye-laws. The authors introduced a low net density in new residential areas of about twelve houses to the acre, whilst the net density according to bye-laws was usually 40-50 houses to the acre (Sutcliffe, 1981:67).

Unwin and Parker made a revolutionary impact on quality thinking in planning. "Their design... changed traditional relationships of dwelling and environment...They democratized the stylistic achievement of their time, making great advances in the planning of the smallest dwelling...and in aesthetic landscaping and grouping of dwellings" (Day, 1981:156-7).

The other strategy was town-extension planning on the lines similar to the German planning system, which was supposed to replace the British tradition of piecemeal planning actions. From 1906 onwards, extension planning, now called town planning, began to be a leading strategy in the struggle for improvement of the urban environment.

Germany

The urban development pattern of Germany was different to that of Britain and in a way similar to other countries of Continental Europe. Until the middle of the nineteenth century, fortifications restrained the outward growth. Then their role faded, they were removed, but a new restriction replaced them, the factory belt. Thus, the outer districts of towns did not attract the middle classes who continued to live in the central areas, whilst the lower middle classes and working people moved to the suburbs. But this ' Exodus' was too weak to change the pattern of vertical development, established in the first half of the nineteenth century.

Industry was often localized in large towns, where both land and house rents were already high (Sutcliffe, 1981:51). In the older districts, many houses of the pre-industrial period were turned into smaller, cheaper apartments. The new residential districts were built up by multi-family buildings.

Urban revolution caused new problems and intensified the old ones. Some of the problems were:

- Not unlike those of Britain: swamped drainage, exhausted water supplies, pollution of air and water (Kabel, 1949:56).
- The developing transport technologies, railways and canals, pushed and destroyed parts of central areas; roads became congested; low-income housing overcrowded.

What tools were available for managing the situation in the German towns?

Urban authorities could use the legal instruments for the development deriving from the Middle Ages and evolved during absolutism (Arntz, 1953:208-9). In Prussia they were codified by the General Territorial Code (Allgemeine Land-Recht) in 1794 (Kabel, 1949:53). Giving to all citizens the right to own land, it also defined the powers of the local administrative organs of the State (the Polizei). One of them was the power to establish the boundaries of areas of land to be reserved for use as new public thoroughfares (Fluchtwiesen) in and around the towns. Thus, the tools were ready to be applied, when the rapid urban growth demanded new initiatives.

The year 1875 is an important moment for German legislation, as it is for the British. The Law on Street Lines (Fluchtwiesen-Gesetz) made the municipalities responsible for drawing up extension plans (Croon, 1983:72). The compulsory purchase of land resulting from plans for new streets was another resolution of the law. The cost of building, draining and lighting of the new streets was transferred onto the owners of the frontage sites. Although greatly relieved of the costs for carrying out town extensions, municipalities were not empowered to interfere with the healthy standards of the new residential blocks.

The period after 1875 is that of consolidation of the new municipal powers (Sutcliffe, 1981:91). Extension planning became an everyday municipal activity in Prussia.

From 1890 onwards, the housing question came into focus in a new way. It was regarded in the broader context of the social question (Gallion, 1950:101-2). The quality of the physical environment of urban surroundings had been looked at as an important factor influencing people's well-being, even as its conditio sine qua non (Kabel, 1949:155).

Among other important personalities of this phase, one has to be emphasized, a new quality approach to planning found a theoretical basis in a little book: City Planning According to Artistic Principles (1889), written by an Austrian architect and planner, Camillo Sitte. His source of inspiration was the town of the Middle Ages, with its variety of forms, the picturesque, "irrational." He abstracted from the layout of the towns a series of principles which was a guide for a "genius-loci-planning." (Cherry, 1972:29). The message of the book made a strong impact not only in all the German speaking countries, but also in Britain and Scandinavia (Jensen, 1980:33).

Many reform associations began to propagate stepped, or differential, building regulations (Staflfelbauordnungen). The principle was that full height and high quality housing should be allowed in central areas of towns, where land values were high (Sutcliffe, 1981:43). In outer areas only a less intensive, or medium and lower densities should be permitted. Narrower streets around smaller houses could be planned on the cheaper land.

In 1891, Germany's first comprehensive set of differential building regulations was passed, dividing Frankfurt into an inner and an outer building zone (Kabel, 1949:147). The new Frankfurt regulations had a revolutionary influence on the development of German urban planning. By the early 1900s, the majority of larger towns had introduced differential building regulations. But soon it became obvious that the new tool needed a more scientific approach, when applied to preparation of development plans. Now it was only a step to the comprehensive planning of whole towns.

In 1900, the general urban development law (Allgemeine Baugesetz) was passed by the Saxony parliament (Kabel, 1949:86). Now it was the responsibility of urban authorities to prepare general plans for both new and established districts. The example of Saxony was followed by other states, and in 1906 by the conservative Prussia. Thus, early in the 1900s, town planning had become a recognized municipal activity.

Norway

In Norway urban development and urban planning is especially influenced by the geographical, topographical and climatic character of the country (Lemberg, 1981:37). More than 70% of the land area is covered with mountains, ice, snow and lakes. Almost 25% is covered with forest and only about 3% is arable land (Housing in the North Countries, 1960:85). The length of the country is over 1750 km, almost equal to the distance between Oslo and Rome. About 30% of the territory lies north of the Arctic Circle. Long and deep fjords cut into the land. In the area of 324,000 sq.km live about 4 million people. Great distances and topography make communications both difficult and expensive.

These factors have always deeply influenced settlement in the country. Being a big country with a low population, Norway followed a different pattern of urbanization to that of other industrialized countries. Urban settlements concentrated mainly in a few larger urban areas: Oslo, Bergen, Trondheim and Stavanger, and towns along the coast and in the valleys.

Industrialization in Norway began around 1850; after 1910 industry had become the main trade in the Norwegian economy. Population densities increased in the existing towns at the end of the old century and the first years of the new one (Jensen, 1980:46).

Urban legislation, i.e. urban regulations, have a long tradition in the country. The first regulations originate in the twelfth century (Hagerup, 1979:2). They concerned urban building at reduction of fire risk. No actual building legislation, valid for all the country, was passed before 1845, at which time building and regulation commissions were established in all towns. Their duty was to provide land for extensions of
The Jaw expressed at the same time the functional stores, except in commercial districts of larger town. Building should not be higher than three people and buildings in the outer areas of the town for recreation, and apply limited densities of people and buildings in the outer areas of the town. Buildings should not be higher than three stories, except in commercial districts of larger towns.

The law expressed at the same time the functional approach to planning. It reflected the development since 1896: increase of densities in towns, provision of more and more technical infrastructure, the arrival of private motorization, and a request for stronger public intervention. Planning should contain more sectors than street regulation. New terms appeared: curved street, villa colonies, separation of functions, differentiation of traffic streets. The law was a breakthrough for modern planning in Norway.

What is specific in the law is its consideration and respect for the local character of the physical environment, its genius loci. In the period when a functionally planned town, a town of functionally designed architecture, was a beautiful town; when the leading concept was the arranging functionalism, the Norwegian legislation reflected in the law of 1924 the independent approach, integrating international planning ideals, but retaining particular urban form ideals, focused on environmental identity.

Based on this law many plans were prepared. The best known, even internationally, were the works of Professor Sverre Pedersen (1882-1957). "His planning was based upon his eye for a city's particular features of nature and the determined usage of topography and terrain. His forms have impressions of dominant axial patterns stressing natural viewpoints" (Jensen, 1980:XXII).

Period of "Cosmopolitan Planning"

At the beginning of the twentieth century, in Europe and other industrialized countries, comprehensive planning systems became a fact. Social and political ideals evolved in different countries and were diffused all over the world. They were integrated into planning practice by new regulations. But, generally, the national planning systems were still strongly coloured by national planning techniques and bound by the local urban tradition.

A wave of changes began already before World War I. In Continental Europe, for instance, the process started by improvements to the existing principles of urban form through a reduction of densities of building sites, by the introduction of lower building heights and by keeping courtyards unbuilt.

The new, revolutionary direction in town planning was a result of many factors and new ideas, created by great personalities, architects, engineers and planners, or groups of them (Giedion, 1936:272-8). For the development of urban form, these fifty years meant a break from the continuity of local and historical traditions. The functional ideas erased the substance and nature of urban "places", their genius loci. Urban form became "cosmopolitan": towns resembled each other on all continents.

As in the previous periods, also in the course of these fifty years, the prevailing planning ideology was followed by the legislation. As the former ideas were those resulting from functions, urban form was getting more and more "standardized", according to the "standardization of functions" (Zoning and Floor Area Ratios, two-dimensional land-use planning, the tools of implementation of the ideals, thus "forming" the town).

Form became a by-product of the planning process.

These fifty years could be called the "cosmopolitan planning" period, when the whole triad: ideals, tools and urban form, became uniform all over the world and towns lost their local flavour. The Table on Page 10 (overleaf) attempts to give a short review of urban development during the period of the "cosmopolitan planning" and the beginning of the next one.

Again towards a "Genius-Loci Planning" period?

Looking at the Table for the period 1968-1988, it can be noted that at the end of the 1960s and the beginning of the 1970s a general critique arose against the way of shaping the built environment, against a universal plannerlessness.

New ideologies appeared, including a return to primary values, qualitative instead of quantitative development, new design, and preservation. The catchwords were the local, the uniqueness of "places", their genius loci. The status of the relation: the local/the international is in 1988 probably like this:...
OUTLINE OF URBAN DEVELOPMENT 1918-1988

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Functionalism, Le Corbusier.</td>
<td>No new basic ideologies (unrealized ideal concepts as Archigram, J. Friedman ...)</td>
<td>Postmodern architecture. Postmodern urban design. Urban renewal.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Separation of land use into zones.</td>
<td>Zoning as basic principle in planning.</td>
<td>Qualitative instead of quantitative development.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zoning. Floor area ratio as modern tool for land use planning. Compulsory building line loses its meaning as a tool for forming the urban built environment. Now it keeps the traffic apart from the built area.</td>
<td>Zoning. Floor area ratio. Planning becomes in an increasing extent two-dimensional land use planning.</td>
<td>Protected zones. Core zone planning. Design-planning. Preservation of monuments, distinctive quality of places, townscape conservation; all of them as new forms of planning.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

RESULT/BUILT FORM

Result: Urban Built Form

Initially focused on street axes, so more and more turning away from the street. First attempts at differentiation of height between floors.

Open, often irregular arrangements of buildings of different heights. The street becomes a purely traffic axis. Division between pedestrian and vehicles.

Urban renewal/townscape conservation.

Planning by small steps. Small "self-reliant" building groups, enclaves, instead of general overall plans. More consideration to urban open space. More renovation activities.

OUTLINE OF PLANNING

The example of San Francisco illustrates how the "quality of place" happened to be one of the main objectives of the planning policy of the city. The legislation, using such tools as the General Plan, and, especially, the Urban Design Plan of 1971, has promoted a "good city form."

The Urban Design Plan was an expression of the general consensus of the people of San Francisco, that something should be done for the protection of the acknowledged high environmental qualities of the town. The Plan, being a part of the General Plan, deals with the problems of both conservation and development. It recognizes physical qualities of San Francisco and gives guidance for protection and enhancement of them. It also proposes how to improve parts of the town which are not satisfactory. "The Plan is a definition of quality, a definition based upon human needs" (San Francisco Master Plan, 7.2).

The following issues were dealt with in the Plan: City Pattern, Conservation, Major New Development and Neighbourhood Environment. In each case, the following subjects had been taken up: essential human needs; fundamental principles, with graphic illustrations among parts of the environments, such as open spaces, buildings, hills and streets; a series of policies necessary to achieve or approach the overall objective, based on the acknowledgements of needs and principles, and which is supposed to be a continuing guide and directive for public and private decisions (San Francisco Master Plan, 7.2).

In the professional circles of architects, urban designers and planners, an important event took place: the San Francisco Downtown Plan of 1985, "guided" by the Urban Design Plan, won an award from the periodical Progressive Architecture (1/86). The members of the jury emphasized the approach of the planners who had taken the starting point in the "soul of the city", its genius loci.

Much in this document grows out of an understanding of particular conditions that one finds in San Francisco. The uniqueness of it is a strength; usually you pick up an urban plan and it could be "beauty of physical environment is, after all, synonymous with its uniqueness, singleness. Where should one search for a creative basis, a foothold when shaping urban environments?"

It should be regarded as positive, that this general objective is shared internationally, and still there is no belief that there are "universal" ways to achieve the goals. They should be searched for in the local context of "places", thus reconciling the positive of the international influences, general urban policies, but at the same time seeking for artistic inspiration in genius loci of the local environment. What should be the role of urban legislation? It should create a framework for the promotion of quality thinking, of good solutions to existing and future urban problems.

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Urban Reconstruction in France after World War II

Danièle Voldman
Institut d'histoire du temps présent, CNRS, Paris, France

After the First World War, the devastation of the towns was not one of the French Government’s main concerns; they regarded it as a financial matter. The “reconstruction of devastated areas” was not a question of urbanism, less still of architecture.

After the Second World War, however, the situation was a very different one. In 1945, people were in a position to compare the two post-war situations, and found that the destruction was far more extensive in 1945 than it had been in 1918.

In the Autumn of 1918, all the damage was concentrated near the battle fields, i.e. the Northern and Eastern provinces; only fifteen, of the 75 administrative regions, or “departments”, had been damaged, rural areas more so than urban ones. In comparison with World War II, there had been relatively little harm done to towns.

But in June 1945 the official evaluation of damage listed about 100,000 buildings as destroyed beyond repair, and 2,000,000 as partly destroyed. 2,000 towns were bomed and devastated in 74 “departments”, 7,500 bridges, 15,000 miles of railway track, numerous roads and railway stations (including 115 main stations) were not in working order. Harbours on the Atlantic were so badly wrecked that ships could not berth along the broken piers. All the bridges across the Seine between Paris and the sea were demolished. A full day was needed to travel by train from Paris to Strasbourg. Many thousands of people were homeless, living in shacks and military barracks.

Therefore, after the defeat of the Nazis, reconstruction did become a major issue. In November 1944, when Paris was already liberated, but not the whole of the rest of the country, a Ministry of Reconstruction and Urban Affairs (the Ministère de la Reconstruction et de l’Urbanisme, or MRU) was created by a decree.

The creation of this Ministry, which had extensive authority to conduct an unprecedented operation, was in a way the real beginning of the Reconstruction of Urban France. For this Ministry shared the Government’s determination to devote itself to the problem of reconstruction on both the conceptual and the practical level.

And here the history of town planning became a part of the history of France in the way that a similar effort in the first time France had a Ministry in charge of urbanism. For, although in the beginning of the century some bills had been passed to aid planning the development of towns and suburbs, never before had any Ministry controlled all the urban planning issues of the nation. And this process was now taking place as part of the general reorganisation of post-Vichy France.

Urban Continuity in a Changing Political Situation

When he restored democracy, General de Gaulle decided to maintain those of the Vichy Government departments which worked efficiently; the Vichy town planning staff was among them. Indeed, as early as Autumn 1940, the Vichy Government had set up agencies to coordinate the clearing of rubble and establish a consistent policy of rural and urban development. These agencies, the Commissariat Technique à la Reconstruction Immobiliere (CTRI) and the urban services of the Délégation Générale à l’Équipement national (DGÉN), centralized all the issues connected with Reconstruction. They were conceived with a view to the future, and consisted of two aspects. The practical aspect involved organizing emergency measures. Destroyed towns and villages received Government aid as early as Summer 1940, but especially from the Autumn. Newly-appointed prefects watched over the removal of the debris, supervised the choice of building firms and public works that had won the contracts, and took charge of the victims. For example, temporary bridges restored the traffic between the two banks of the Loire river, beds were built for the homeless at Amiens, the piers were repaired at Dunkirk, and so on. In spite of the constraints of the occupation, much work was done by these agencies during the war years.

This was known to officials of Free France. They knew that the CTRI and the urban services of the DGÉN had been satisfactory and quite efficient. Furthermore, General de Gaulle knew that the ideas of the Vichy town planners were very close to those of the town planners of Algiers. He did not want for a lack of personnel and preferred retaining a well-organised staff. Dissensions in the CTRI were very few. Almost the entire team remained. The MRU archives show that the Administrative and Technical Board members of the CTRI had identical functions from the 1930s to the 1950s. Except André Muffang, who had been the chief of the Vichy CTRI, directors, such as André Prothin and Yves Salaün, kept their jobs. André Prothin, for example, became the dynamic head of the town planning staff which later, in 1963,
was to become the DATAR. He was also to be the first director of the agency which, in 1958, or-
zanized the building of the new La Défense area near Paris. This had begun his career in urban planning in 1937 with the International Exhibi-
tion in Paris, which glorified modern techniques in transport and the happiness of man-
kind. There he met many people such as Pierre Gobel and André Thibaut with whom he later worked for years.

The historical analysis of the MRU gives us an overall view of Government intervention in town planning. It provided an opportunity of studying the impact of these policies on urban structures and landscapes. Moreover, it induces us to ask several questions. Why is the extent of government power? What are its limits? What are the relations between the Town Councils and the national Government? How were the decisions made? How should we study a phenomenon such as rebuilding, which extends over such a long period of time? It is fortunate for scholars that the CBTI was created in October 1940 and the MRU in November 1944, with practically identical attributions and teams. It makes the questions easier to answer, by comparing a dictatorial with a democratic rebuilding need a lot of time. Some decisions taken by the Vichy Town Planners only made their impact ten years later.

So, in this field, continuity between the war and the post-war period is more important than political change. We have to bear in mind the duration of the architects' projects, the delays on building sites, the need to see trees grow in a new area ... Moreover, obvious obstacles had delayed or prevented the implementation of the main decisions made between 1940 and 1945. Neither at peace nor at war, France might be attacked any time in a military operation. Towns rebuilt in 1941 or 1942 could be destroyed again during the summer of 1944 or after. (This happened in Normandy and in the Eastern areas as far as the German border). Moreover, the Germans did not allow building work in France except for military purposes. This is why an analysis of the practical realities of building and rebuilding becomes confused when we consider:

1. Theories. From the 1920s to the 1950s, various theories were expounded, both in speeches and in writing by different groups which, however, continued to co-exist throughout the period. 1

2. Laws and legal provision. The most important legal provisions of this period were laid down in 1943. Entitled the "Town Planning Code", this set of laws provided for town planning as an obli-
gation for all towns, extended "building per-
mits", and introduced the compulsory presence of an architect on all building sites. The 1943 regulations represented an effort of synthesis, rationalization and harmonization of previous con-
cepts. They were to become a real legacy for the post-war period.

3. The reconstructors themselves. As we have
seen, the "decision makers" who had helped to elaborate and put into practice the Ministry's pol-
cy, the people who designed projects and worked on the big building sites, were the same during the war and after.5

In twentieth-century wars, towns and cities were at stake. A vital part of strategy, they became tar-
gets, and held an important place in the concep-
tion of strategic bombing between 1941 and 1945. "In the twentieth century, cities perse were, as a social and economic category, became vulnerable to de-
struction in war."6 They constituted residential
quarters, areas of production, centers of decision,
possible places of resistance ... For some, they
ought to be destroyed, for others, they ought to be protected. And in the towns and cities, during the war, it became a challenge for life to continue despite the bombs ... They formed not only a physical, but even a psychological, proof of the war. This, rather than the question of safety, was another reason why the Vichy Government, as soon as it was formed, wanted to begin to rebuild. Marethal Pétais and his staff wanted the new towns to have a different spirit than the designed towns in a well-governed country, far from fashionable suburbs and industrial modern-
ization. As we know, the grandfather-type speeches had been made in 1930s and 7. Not all the new projects were dream cities, far removed from modern industrial development. Different though the situation might be in 1945, the pur-
pose was in many respects the same. A rapidly re-
built France was a challenge for the new
Government; not only on account of the popula-
tion, but also on account of the major rebuilding sites. But they really were few in number. The others were conservative, and had no great interest in thinking about town planning.

We can illustrate this by comparing two recon-
struction projects carried out respectively in Gien and in Royan, each considered to be a model of its kind. Gien was a reaction to the loss of old conserva-
tion lines, and restored much as it had been before being bombed. Royan is held out as an example of a modernistic reconstruction. The two towns were of similar size, with a population of about 10,000, but while Gien, which had a bridge over the Loire river, was damaged mostly during the fighting of the 1940s, Royan was almost wholly demobilized by the British and American air-raids in

1944. The two towns, both destroyed, soon be-
came the symbols of two ways of rebuilding. Gien was restored to its pink brick and medieval fa-
gades; Royan, on the contrary, was rebuilt on functionalist principles.

When we carefully compare the two projects, we find that the differences are not so great as we might have expected. In both cases the same ef-
fort had been made to face the physical, widen streets, space out buildings. In both cases, priority had been given to tidying up and putting in order houses, buildings, streets and neighbour-
hoods. The activity at the Beaux-Arts School had al-
ways taught.

In fact, the conceptions of the new designs were very similar: a prudent, non-revolutionary mod-
erntism. Gien might look like an old-fashioned town, yet it had been restored with a real concern for town planning. And Royan, despite its avant-
garde buildings, had a very moderate new plan. So it mattered little that the final aspect of the two towns was very different: neither the recon-
structors, nor the officials, nor the French people were ready to accept any real change in their towns.11 Even though some of the reconstructors and inhabitants of Royan were proud of their new town, old-fashioned towns which had simpl
been restored as an academic exercise were generally avoided.

There was in fact a real mental resistance against change in urban matters. The victims wanted to recover the same place, with identical curtains or stained glass windows. I believe this would not be
exaggerating to say that the French people were unaware of urban issues. They did not accept de-
lays in rebuilding. For this, politicians and offi-
cials bore some responsibility. The closeness of elections, the need for rapid results, were often in
contradiction with town planning schedules. Rather than keep victims waiting for new plans, govern-
ments gave them temporary shelter, and hastily made buildings.

Reconstruction: what is at stake?

The reconstructors were faced with three ques-
tions:

1. Who should take the initiative and responsi-
bility of rebuilding, i.e. who would have the con-
trol of projects and findings;

2. How were they to decide between the need for urban modernization, involving radical changes, and the general desire for identical reconstruc-
tion?

3. What kind of patterns should have been fol-
lowed or rejected for these new tasks?

The new Government's answer to the first ques-
tion was clear: the establishment of the MRU proved the State's desire for reconstruction. But, in spite of the number of governments all the
aspects, and in spite of the Government's inten-
tion of supervising development plans and reconstruction sites, vast areas eluded them. Particularly the housing problem, crucial at this time, was left almost entirely to private enterprise. In fact, most of the reconstruction sites were out of Government hands. It could be said that the State was a rebuild, but not a builder. It destroyed slums, but was unable to set up a State housing department until 1953. It wanted to encourage the building industry but, through its rental laws, extended rights to those who refused to make this an important item in family budgets. In fact, by trying to combine urbanism with construction, French town planners failed in both; for the hasty construction of housing near industrial areas is not town planning.

And this is the answer to the second question. Rebuilding is not building. The reconstructors' first thought was for the victims; therefore they opted for the temporary solution. They immediately repaired and fitted out shelter for the most wretched. For rethinking a new urban organization, redrawing and remodelling parcels of land, would take time, and the victims would not, and indeed could not wait.

Reconstructing, if it was to be done in accordance with the wishes of numerous town dwellers, would mean encouraging people to want to live in detached houses, refusing apartment buildings, forgetting the increasing number of private cars and ignoring a future already beginning to be outlined in American cities. Some French town planners had crossed the Atlantic and were aware of this, without always fully realizing all the implications.

Building, on the other hand, would mean waiting; waiting for the end of austerity and the general shortage of materials and machines; waiting for the surveyors to finish redrawing the town plans, using property registers that were sometimes dozens of years old. Occasionally, especially in Normandy, archives had burnt and there was a total absence of both buildings and documents. And it would mean waiting for government approval of reconstruction plans and of damages to be paid.

Building would mean following civil service theorists, for whom finding a place to live was becoming a function to be developed like a machine.

In short, the choice was whether to build or to rebuild, new or later, office building or housing developments, monuments or factories, planned or unplanned towns.

To build or to rebuild, it was also a question of patterns. But the way of fascination was really strange: English and American realitities, as Scandinavian ones, were well known and appreciated. But, in spite of analysis, reading and studying, and travels, French planners did not seem to have taken care of them. Maybe the French reconstruction was done without patterns?

First of all, choices were made under the pressure of events, and often in connection with election dates. The winter of 1953-54 was a good example. It was so cold that a protest movement arose among the homeless. This campaign, under the leadership of Abbé Pierre, caused considerable repercussions in the press, especially after a child was found dead in an unheated house. From then on, and not only on account of this campaign, of course, greater impetus was given to construction.

The assessment of reconstruction in France after the Second World War shows to what extent economic factors, the extensive destruction, the indifferent legacy of the inter-war years, hampered the reconstructors.

It also shows the gap between theorists' dreams and everyday requirements. And it suggests a people more interested in political organization than in its environment.

Notes
1. A version of this paper was presented in a seminar of the Center for European Studies (Harvard University) in February 1988. As a general presentation of my thesis in progress, it goes over some published articles which will be indicated in the following footnotes.
2. This topic is treated in more detail in "Reconstructors' tales; an example of the use of oral sources in the history of reconstruction after the second world war," in Reconstructions in Europe, Jeffrey Dieleendorf, editor, London: Macmillan Press, 1988.
3. The sources for the history of that topic are very abundant. The MRU papers are numerous and rather well kept. Those Boards are an example of this.
Social Democratic Reform and Australia's Cities: The Whitlam Legacy

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In many of the capitalist democracies, the 1960s and 1970s were a time when urban and other social problems were widely discussed. The role of central government in helping to resolve them was widely appreciated. But almost as soon as central government was brought to bear on these problems, a backlash against 'big government' emerged which sought to curtail many of the new initiatives. Many argued that these programs represented an over-extension of government. This backlash came about partly in response to the 'socialists' who emerged in the Western democracies in the early 1970s. Since then, corporatism with its emphasis of economic policy, in particular. urban policy, has emerged as a program that is based on collective neo-conservatism. Nevertheless, the political strength and reformist credentials of corporatism are somewhat uncertain while conservative approaches continue to have power in some of the Western democracies.

The Australian experience reflects the pattern. Urban and other social problems were prominent on the national agenda through the late 1960s and early 1970s. The Labor Government of Gough Whitlam, as deputy leader then leader of the Australian Labor Party (ALP), was instrumental in raising the national consciousness of urban issues. In particular, Urban research flourished, particularly through the Australian National University's Urban Research Unit and the Australian Institute of Urban Studies, both established in the first half of the 1960s. One of the most important books on Australian society since World War 2 focussed on Australia's urban problems - Hugh Stretton's The Cities, first published in 1972. The Whitlam Government gained office in 1972 partly on the basis of its urban promises. Many of the hopes held about the Whitlam victory centered on the implementation of those promises. A new Department of Urban and Regional Development (DURD) was established for this purpose. Whitlam's Minister of Urban Affairs, Tom Uren, has described DURD as the 'brightest administrative star in the firmament of our Government'.

Others held more critical and detached views. Certainly DURD's activities were controversial. The Fraser Government, elected in 1975 after the Whitlam Government was dismissed, sought to curtail the power of central government in Australian society on the basis of the Treasury and a neo-conservative ideology. One of Fraser's first acts was to abolish DURD and wind down many of the policies and programs sponsored by it.

Ever since 1975, those engaged in urban studies and urban policy in Australia have been on the defensive. Public consciousness of urban problems has waned. Public confidence in the capacity of government to cope with complex social problems, of which urban problems are some of the most urgent, has declined. With some important exceptions, the Australian debate about urban issues has become sterile. It reflects either a fairly uncritical defence of the hopes and initiatives of the late 1960s and early 1970s, a critical dismissal of them drawing upon the conservative critique of central government already referred to, or neo-marxist despair about the limits and biases of government intervention in democratic capitalist society. Australia has been on the defensive.

Urban problems - Hugh Stretton's Studies, both established in the mid 1960s. Urban problems have some difficulty in defining a role for urban policy in the changed context.

As a result of all of these factors, the Hawke Labor Government elected in 1983 has shown no interest in urban problems, preferring instead to concentrate on income redistribution and the structural change of the Australian economy. Meanwhile, the new right gains strength in Australian politics. Some argue that the Hawke Labor Government facilitated through some of the economic policy changes made by the Hawke Government, particularly the deregulation of the Australian financial system. The latter is having a dramatic impact on the quality of urban life in Australia, in particular, making it much more difficult to provide adequate and affordable housing, public transportation, and public infrastructure. Future urban reform through central government must necessarily focus on these problems. But for such reform to gain new political relevance, an understanding of the legacy of the Whitlam urban and regional reforms highlighting their strengths and weaknesses is needed. This essay summarises research undertaken to this end.

The Whitlam Doctrine

Whitlam's program of reform had two essential cornerstones. One concerned philosophical ends, the other the means of implementation. The philosophy centered on what Whitlam calls 'the doctrine of positive equality'. This had the goal of greater equality in the provision of community services. Whitlam argued that these services had a great bearing on the standard of living.

The main vehicle of implementation was a new 'cooperative federalism'. This was built upon the idea that tied grants under section 96 of the Constitution became the vehicle for reform. This approach would mean that the central government in Australia's social and urban problems and the constitutional and political limits to reform in the Australian federal system. It provided one means by which the dominance of states' rights in that system could be challenged. In the eyes of many, the states were an obstacle to reform. A commitment to participatory regionalism also informed Whitlam's ideas about 'cooperative federalism'.

Whitlam's advocacy of a federal role in urban and regional policy reflected many of these themes. At the general level, he argued that the provision of social and physical services had an important locational and urban dimension which necessitated a federal role in urban affairs. A number of specific issues needed to be addressed. These included the social consequences of urban sprawl, in particular the social and physical services of Sydney and Melbourne, metropolitan dominance and the problems of population concentration in the big cities, the domination of central business districts on national and regional grounds, the imbalance in power and resources between the three levels of government, in particular, the relative underdevelopment of the role of local government in Australian federalism.

For Whitlam, the main political and institutional sources of these problems were inaction on the part of the federal government and lack of coordination on the part of the governments. He was particularly critical of existing approaches to urban decision-making at the state level. The state bureaucracies were organised so that the various agencies simply provided the service or good for which they were established without any regard for overall social and urban consequences. Short term functional and instrumental goals dominated longer term urban planning.

Whitlam saw a federal role in urban renewal, land development and decentralisation programs. A commitment to eliminating the sewerage backlog in the big cities was added later. He proposed the establishment of a federal department of urban affairs drawing explicitly upon the precedent of the United States Federal Department of Housing and Urban Development. One of the main functions of the new department would be to look at the overall coherence of public spending on urban development by the state governments. The development of integrated and coordinated budgeting at the state level would be encouraged.

Whitlam appointed Tom Uren shadow Minister for Urban Affairs in 1969. He agreed with the Whitlam analysis and advocacy of a federal role in decentralisation, land development and urban planning although he was more committed to the idea of regional, participatory government.

The Legacy

DURD's mandate was to address the federal neglect of urban and regional problems and to implement the urban programs outlined by Whitlam. Reflecting his general analysis, DURD conceived its overall mission to reform the traditional role of federal government to take account of its urban consequences, in particular to establish structures for coordination, and to push for the reform of urban planning at the state level.

DURD bureaucrats went about their task with zeal. By the end of its short life, the department was undertaking research and giving complex advice on economic, housing, industry and industrial policy and had developed a capacity in urban resource planning. Work on a 'national urban strategy' had been considered, but the federal government was proceeding. In undertaking this policy work, DURD issued a strong challenge to traditional power bases in the federal bureaucracy, particularly in urban and regional planning agencies in the state bureaucracies. DURD also implemented many programs. There were important connections between DURD's policy work and its sponsorship of programs. Many of the latter were conceived and implemented with strategic aims in mind.

Much of DURD's work addressed important needs quickly and effectively, and helped change urban thought and planning in Australia. Local government was given access to federal finance through changes to the operation of the Grants Commission, provisions which are still operative. The federal government is yet to achieve recognition in the Australian constitution, the changes sponsored by the Whitlam Government have enabled it to be a more effective partner in the Australian federal system and to provide a greater range of services to its constituents. An area improvement program was established. While being small in terms of spending, the program provided a wide variety of services and resources in the deprived western suburbs of Sydney and Melbourne in particular. Just as significantly, the reform programs implemented this program has provided a political vehicle to
maintaining the reforming impetus and to provide the means for effective coordination on a range of issues where there was none before. This has been very important in deprived outer suburbs.

Among the aims of DURD’s urban strategy were to slow down the growth of central business districts, to limit the freeways upon which they depended, to encourage the development of centres in outer suburban areas, and to ensure the preservation of old inner city housing for low income people. It took a number of actions to help these aims. It was centrally involved in developing the idea that the rehabilitation of inner city housing was more efficient and equitable than demolition and redevelopment. In Sydney it showed this by demonstration and to preserve inner city housing in public hands for low income tenants, areas of old, run-down housing were bought in Glebe and Woolloomooloo in Sydney and Emerald Hill in Melbourne. The Glebe and Woolloomooloo purchases also helped some of DURD’s other aims. Glebe stood in the path of a proposed freeway which focussed on Sydney’s CBD. Woolloomooloo was subject to office development plans which were being blocked by a variety of means the Slade, the Whiteman TAFE and the Whitlam Government. DURD made a commitment to eliminate this backlog by 1978. While problems of inter- and intragovernmental coordination meant that this aim was not met, over $330 million was spent on the national sewerage backlog program over the period 1973 to 1977. This was by far the biggest item on DURD’s budget. By the mid 1980s, Sydney’s sewerage backlog had been reduced to some 40,000 homes and Melbourne’s to 24,000 homes. The allocation made by the Whitlam Government played a major role in that reduction.

Probably the least successful of DURD programs were its most ambitious - the land commission and regional growth centre programs. Both operated on the same basic principles. Public corporations would purchase broaderacre land and to develop and market it. Loan funds would be used on the grounds that this would not unduly influence land values to the corporations vis-a-vis private developers. The growth centre development corporations would also have the role to facilitate and plan for the balanced development the regional centre. Both programs faced the problem of political opposition at the state level.

Four agencies were established through the land commission program. Only one reflected the DURD model of setting up new institutions for acquisition and development envisaged by DURD. The NSW urban land council was upgraded to land commission status by the Wran Labor Government which gained office in NSW in 1976. But its level of operation was still small due to lack of adequate funds. While each of the agencies established in Sydney, Melbourne and Perth still acquire and develop land, their overall impact on the land market in those cities is small and reflects rather than countersacts activities in the private market. In this sense, they were ‘unfair trials’ of the program.

The SALC was the only ‘fair trial’ of the land commission program. Established in 1973, it quickly acquired a large broaderacre land bank on the fringes of Adelaide and set about a program of development aimed at capturing a large portion of the infrastructure market. Unfortunately, there was little policy or protection from private land developers who resented SALC’s competition especially in the depressed market. Both factors coalesced to produce a crisis for SALC in the late 1970s. SALC was highly geared - it was funded with loan money without any equity capital - its debt on its balance sheet mounted when levels of development activity and low demand for its product exacerbated this problem. For some private development interests, SALC provided a good example of inadequacies and limits of public enterprise.

SALC’s crisis was highlighted during a state election campaign which saw the conservatives gain power. They immediately took away SALC’s powers of land acquisition and development and took up negotiations with the Fraser Government over SALC’s debt. Ever since 1980, there has been no effective public presence in Adelaide land market. A reasonable stock of developed allotments ensured that this was not a problem in the early 1980s, but a surge in demand in the mid 1980s forced them to sell over a two year period. Some stability has returned in the late 1980s but another surge in demand could see land prices again rise regionally.

It is ironical that in the state where the land commission reform offered least resistance and where it was established most completely on the DURD model, it has been least successful and has put the cause of reform in the land markets most severely. One of the main reasons for this relates to the fact that land commissions were to compete with the private sector on basically the same market. SALC was funded with loan money without any equity capital. The general lesson of SALC’s failure is that public agencies which seek to reform private markets should not emulate private sector principles too closely.

There is an added irony in the South Australian history of the land commission program. The program was conceived in response to the perceived failure of public agencies in Australia, particularly in Sydney and Melbourne. They were seen as conservative and inadequate. This reasoning ignored the much more radical and progressive example of the South Australian Housing Trust (SAHT). The SAHT is probably the most important Australian example of the potential and virtue of arms length public enterprise in the area of urban development. As land banker, land developer and house builder using a changing mixture of grant and cheap loan money, the SAHT particularly over the twenty years from 1950 to 1970, provided cheap housing for both rental and sale and exercised a restraining influence on the overall land and housing market in Adelaide.

Reform through central government must necessarily depend on local contingencies but this must be done sensitively and with an eye to local differences and complexities, particularly where new institutions are to be expected to fulfil functions which in some cases are already being undertaken successfully by existing agencies.

Four regional growth centres were established - Albury/Wodonga on the border between New South Wales and Victoria, Bathurst/Orange in New South Wales, Macarthur on the fringes of Sydney, and Monarto in South Australia. All involved large scale land acquisition and sophisticated planning for their future development.

Albury/Wodonga is located on the River Murray on the major inland transport route between Sydney and Melbourne. It is the most successful growth centre even though it is something of an ‘embattled survivor’. Its mandate and operating arrangements have been subject to many changes and it was never the NSW Builders Labourers Federation’s famous ‘Green Ban’.

The development of suburban centres in Sydney and Melbourne were encouraged by DURD’s sponsorship of office development. Decisions were taken to establish the Major Commonwealth offices at Parramatta in Sydney’s western suburbs and in Ringwood in Melbourne. In the dying days of the Whitlam Government, DURD was centrally involved in a model of office development in the outer suburbs of Sydney and Melbourne and in some of the regional cities designed. Private developers would build offices in the knowledge of guaranteed rental by the federal government. The plan met bureaucratic resistance and did not survive the change of government. DURD also sought to influence investment in transport so that it meshed more closely with its views about good urban policy.

Ideas about decentralisation of work within cities and the inner city housing developed within DURD and the actions taken to those ends have had an important influence over the past fifteen years. Inner city housing rehabilitation is the most obvious, while the virtues of inner city living inform the ubiquitous defence of urban consolidation in Australia’s cities. However, these programmes are not new. Nevertheless, office development within the central business districts of Australia’s cities has boomed during the 1980s - another result of the deregulation of the Australian financial system and the
developed. In any case, events conspired to undermine the project before much headway was made. The projected decline in South Australia's population growth undermined the need for the new town while many questioned it as an appropriate site and location for a new city. The site was finally abandoned in a rainshadow area in the already dry state of South Australia. When the Conservatives gained state office in 1980 they abandoned the project. Federal loans were repaid and most of the required land sold back to rural uses, much of it to the original owners.

The growth centre program has been the subject of much debate, much of it concern to dismiss and ridicule its aims. Certainly mistakes were made. The financial arrangements through which the program presented problems for all growth centres in the same way as they did for some of the land commissions. Bathurst/Orange should never have achieved growth centre status while it may have been better to develop a satellite new town on the southern fringes of Adelaide in place of Monarto. But the continued rapid growth of Sydney and Melbourne highlights the need for alternative centres of urban growth on Australia's eastern seaboard. The Albury/Wodonga experience suggests that more sensitive public planning can successfully cater for this growth if new regional centres are chosen in the appropriate location.

DURD has also left a legacy at more general levels through its impact on both state and federal policy making. As noted earlier, Whitlam was very critical of urban decision-making at the state level. By seeing the providers of urban services as excessively bureaucratic and uncoordinated, and urban planning agencies as basically ineffective, DURD took up this critique. It sought to implement new, more sophisticated approaches to urban planning and to implement more sophisticated mechanisms to coordinate those agencies and departments providing urban services. It encouraged these new approaches to urban planning and to implement more sophisticated mechanisms to coordinate those agencies and departments providing urban services. It encouraged these new approaches to urban planning and to implement these new approaches to urban planning and to implement more sophisticated mechanisms to coordinate those agencies and departments providing urban services. 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11. John Mant’s role in developing these ideas was central. Mant’s papers from the period 1976 to 1980, written when he was head of the Department of Housing, Urban and Regional Affairs have been assembled in an unpublished collection ‘Government and Planning in South Australia’. For accessible summaries of Mant’s views about urban planning see his contribution to Ryan, ibid and J. Mant, ‘Good versus bad - plans and pragmatism’, Royal Australian Planning Institute Journal, 18, 2 (1980), pp. 44-47.


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Reports

Joint PHG/AESOP Planning History Panel at Dortmund History Congress

David Massey
Department of Civic Design, University of Liverpool

While the Third Planning History Group International Conference was taking place in Tokyo in November 1988, a smaller, less formal gathering of planning historians assembled in Dortmund. The occasion was the Second Congress of the Association of European Schools of Planning (AESOP) held in association with the twentieth anniversary of Dortmund University’s Department of Spatial Planning. As part of the Congress programme the Planning History Group joined with AESOP to organise a Panel session on planning history. The meeting also served as an opportunity to introduce the PHG to a number of new members.

The Panel, which was convened by Professor Luigi Mazza (Politecnico di Torino), held its meeting on the morning of Friday 11 November in very much of a round-table format, with two papers being presented. The first paper, by David Massey (Liverpool University), explored the development of a ‘first’ generation of regional planning in England in the period from 1909 to 1939, setting this in a more general context of the emergence of regional planning efforts in the same time in the United States and Germany and touching in particular on the place of the ‘metropolitan’ level plans in England for Greater London, Manchester and District and the West Midlands in the 1920s and 1930s.

In the course of the discussion Luigi Mazza expressed some reservation about the concept of a ‘generation’ of regional plans with all that implied for a sense of continuity which was more apparent than real. Clift Hague (Heriot-Watt University) drew attention to the lack of regional planning efforts in the rural parts of England and Wales and to the different circumstances in Scotland until the mid-1940s series of postwar reconstruction regional plans for the Clyde Valley, East Central Scotland, the Borders (a pioneering rural resource regional plan) and the Tay Valley.

Planning for postwar reconstruction in Germany with special reference to the Ruhr area and to Dortmund was considered by Dr Ursula von Petz (Dortmund University) in the second paper presented to the panel. Dr von Petz pointed out how the general context for postwar reconstruction in Germany was set in large measure by the different policies and decisions of the administering Allied powers. General preparatory planning studies and policies (including town planning standards) had been initiated in the early 1940s by the Nazi government under the supervision of Albert Speer.

The Ruhr region with its concentration of coal, steel and armaments industries was physically devastated at the end of the war. Any efforts to anticipate economic restructuring were resisted by the Ruhr Siedlungsverband, but some of the wartime proposals for physical change were implemented once the immediate housing shortage had begun to be tackled with Marshall Plan/ European Recovery Programme funds. In Dortmund an even longer continuity of planning personnel and policies was experienced when the chief town planner from 1925-37 (Wilhelm Delits) held office again from 1945-55 and promoted essentially prewar policies of rebuilding of the historic core of the city as a central business district (i.e. rather than as an area of mixed residential and commercial uses).

The discussion on this paper concentrated on the immediate circumstances of reconstruction in Dortmund and on the efforts of members of the Panel to relate these efforts to their knowledge of those of other cities elsewhere in Europe. It was concluded that the whole subject of postwar reconstruction both in its preparation and execution deserved wider and more systematic study.

It is hoped that the Planning History Group and AESOP will organise a further joint Panel meeting at the Third AESOP Congress in Tours to be held from 17-18 November 1989. Details of the Congress are available from: Congress Organiser. Thrid AESOP Congress, CESRA, University of Tours, 37200 Tours, France.
Sources

John Johnson
Collection of Printed Ephemera, Bodleian Library, Oxford

Dennis Hardy
Middlesex Polytechnic

Various publications on late nineteenth and early twentieth-century planning history contain a tantalising acknowledgement to the John Johnson Collection of Printed Ephemera - tantalising because these references are invariably to the kind of research 'suggest' that cannot be found in more conventional collections. So who was John Johnson, and how might a trip to the Bodleian Library assist researchers?

Born in 1882, the son of a country parson, John de Monins Johnson spent his student days at Oxford, prior to a spell as an administrator in the Egyptian Civil Service, followed by an early career as a papyrologist. Retrospectively, he looked back on this latter endeavour as the source of inspiration for a lifetime of collecting ephemeral printing, likening the care taken to sort through the 'rubbish' of yesterday's civilisations in search of documentary fragments with the similar care that might be taken to discover hidden facets of the English past.

When, at the time of the First World War, Johnson joined Oxford University Press, he took the opportunity to pursue what became a lifelong preoccupation. "I set to work, timidly at first, but soon with more confidence, on what appeared to be the miscellany of the world, to show what was really the order and development of it. Trivial things like the development of advertisements on our hoardings, the many-sided interests of postage stamps, the development of the journals, all the ephemera of our lives, were brought into the compass of illustration..." Elsewhere, he described the purpose of his mission more succinctly: "the waste, the ephemera, of today are the evidential data of tomorrow..."

For a quarter of a century Johnson gathered together an enormous collection of "everything that would ordinarily go into the waste paper basket after use, everything printed which is not actually a book." Although it proved not to be a rigid line, the outbreak of the Second World War was taken as a stopping-point for fresh acquisitions, so that when Johnson retired in 1946 he spent the remaining ten years of his life sorting through existing material. In 1968 the collection was transferred to the Bodleian, where it is now available for use.

In its very nature, it is not easy to say with certainty whether a research visit would be directly productive or not, though undoubtedly a visit would be full of interest. There is a chance factor at play, and although it is conceivable that there may be nothing of immediate use the probability is that something unexpected will be found which will well be unobtainable elsewhere.

As an indication of the scale of the collection, the catalogue lists no less than 577 main headings. Of these, the following might be of particular interest to planning historians - Agriculture; Allotments and Smallholdings; Civic Co-operation; Housing and Town Planning; and Seaside, Lakes and Spas. The Housing and Town Planning heading is an obvious one to pursue, and this itself consists of eleven box files, with the following entries:

BOX 1: THE HOUSING PROBLEM
Slums, etc
Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor
Eighty Club
Financial Reform Association
Howard Association
London Reform Union
Mansion House
Metropolitan Association for Improving the Dwellings of the Industrious Classes
National Housing Reform Council
St Pancras House Improvement Society Ltd

BOX 2: THE HOUSING PROBLEM
Society for Bettering the Condition and Increasing the Comforts of the Poor
Tenants' Better Housing and Protection League
Workmen's National Housing Council
George Peabody and other philanthropists
Misc. societies etc.
Outer London

BOX 3: THE HOUSING PROBLEM
Hertfordshire
Lancashire
Leeds
Liverpool
Northampton
Special Housing Problems of the Countryside
Designs for Rural Housing
Misc.

BOX 4: GARDEN CITIES
Information Sheets, Prospectuses, Estate Plans, etc.
Tracts, speeches, papers, journals, etc.
Publicity
Correspondence
Extracts from newspapers and journals

BOX 5: THE POLITICAL VIEW
Fabianism
Labour party and socialism
Liberal Acts of Parliament, etc.
British Freedom Association
Bruderhof
Co-operative brotherhood
Cosme
Doukhobori
Free Communist and Co-operative Colony
Long Eaton Co-operative
Ruskin Commonwealth
Miscellaneous Utopian Settlements
Miscellaneous papers on the idea of Utopian Settlement

BOX 6: UTOPIAN AND COMMUNIST SETTLEMENTS AND EXPERIMENTS ETC
Branding
Cosme
Doukhobori
Free Communist and Co-operative Colony
Long Eaton Co-operative
Ruskin Commonwealth
Miscellaneous Utopian Settlements
Miscellaneous papers on the idea of Utopian Settlement

BOX 7: PLANNING
General Films, Exhibitions, etc.
Industrial planning
Planning, post-war, Ministry of Reconstruction
Planning, post-war, Design for Britain series

BOX 8: PLANNING
Oxford
Building Centre, Housing Centre
Building plans
Building specifications
Housing and building societies
Auctions
Rents
Taxations and rates
First numbers
Book prospectuses and book jackets

BOX 9: OPEN SPACES, AMENITIES ETC
Gardens, parks and recreation grounds
Footpaths and commons
SCAPA
Anti-smoke
Anti-noise
Misc.

BOX 10: PRESERVATION
General Oxford

BOX 11: MISCELLANEOUS PAMPHLETS AND BOOKS

For further details of the collection and arrangements to inspect it, the librarian to contact is Ms Julie Ann Wilson, Bodleian Library, Oxford (tel. 0865-277047).

In gathering this information, I am grateful to Julie Ann Wilson, and quotes in the above are extracted from - Michael Turner (1971) The John Johnson Collection: Catalogue of an Exhibition, Bodleian Library, Oxford.
Planning History Practice

Planning History: How Relevant is it to Planning Policy and Practice?

Alan Hutchings
South Australian State Planning Appeal Tribunal

In 1977, I advised the Bulletin (PHB Vol 9, No 1) about initiatives in South Australia by the then Minister for Environment and Planning to introduce planning policies that recognized the significance of particular localities in terms of the State's planning history.

Some progress has been made since then. The latest version of the plan for Adelaide's C.B.D. aims for built-form strictly aligned to the grid, squares, and parkland frontages so that Colonel Light's famous 1836 Plan is fully expressed in the third dimension. A major study, steered by a resident's group (somewhat in the manner of that for Hampstead Garden Suburb in the 1970s) is now underway for Colonel Light Gardens. This Garden Suburb, increasingly recognized internationally as perhaps one of the gems of the garden variety and landscape, the location and quality of its grounds for the day to day management of the State's development.

It seems to me that if the tremendous growth and interest in planning history since 1975 is to be sustained or even maintained at the present level, the Group must make a conscious effort to involve the wider professional and administrative community. After all, we would not want the irony of a future historian studying the rise and fall of "planning history"!

Biographical note
Alan Hutchings, until recently, was Executive Planner of the South Australian Planning Commission. He is now a Commissioner of the State Planning Appeal Tribunal. He continues to convene the Australian Planning History Group.

Networks

UNESCO Study: Prospectus: Cultural Identity in International Urban Programs

Robert Freestone
Associate Editor

Context
The United Nations has declared the period 1988 to 1997 to be the World Decade for Cultural Development. The first objective is to acknowledge the cultural dimension of development. This UNESCO-endorsed study falls within the ambit of that objective, namely to affirm and enrich cultural identities, to broaden participation in culture and to promote international cultural cooperation. It has the additional major social objective of upgrading the quality of the living environment of under-privileged groups within cities.

Topic
It is proposed to investigate the relationship between the cultural traditions (past), identity (present) and aspirations (future) of individual communities and the development of their urban environments. The purpose is to improve the methodology adopted by various nations in formulating, designing and implementing their urban conservation and development programs in the face of rapid technological change towards such concepts as the information city. The methodology will encompass cultural and environmental guidelines to facilitate progressive change without cultural or environmental distortion. The project will function as a first international overview of the issues linking the concept of cultural identity with that of urban development. It will seek to interpret and to assess different levels of cultural expression in the urban environment of three disparate countries. It is hoped that the understanding of each will be deepened by exposure to the experience of the others.

Outline
The project is being jointly undertaken by the Universities of Delhi, Sydney and Buenos Aires and will terminate with the production of a major report later this year. Each of the three countries selected - India, Argentina and Australia - whilst disparate in culture and population size, has in common a concern, as a democratic economy, for viable independence and for the visibility of its independent identity within the present highly competitive and hence somewhat hostile world economy. The study will briefly compare the recent socio-economic history of the three countries and will then consider the cultural identities which they have created or are contemplating through both conscious and unconscious policies for the urban environment.

This examination is being carried out at three levels:

A. World Heritage Site
As places imbued with respect for traditional values and nominated to UNESCO for their cultural significance.

B. Symbolic Project
Government-sponsored and designed to present a strong national image to the outside world and a focus for citizens.

C. Urban Rehabilitation Area
Whose historic fabric has evolved in response to social and economic forces in the past and is now threatened by ongoing change.

The intention is to consider, within the changing technological and economic world order which we now face, the issues of cultural development in the urban environment through the eyes of urban policy-makers, urban designers and national analysts in each selected country.

An international workshop was held at the Australian National University in April 1989. Speakers included Isabel McBye (ANU), Moonis Raza (India), Odilia Suarez (Argentina), Sue Hollist (NSW Department of Planning), and Wolf Toetler (UNESCO).

Further enquiries to Professor Serge Domicelj; Faculty of Architecture, University of Sydney, NSW, 2006, Australia.
Publications

Abstracts


The essays are grouped around five broad themes, namely an historical introduction, an exploration of the issue of equity and social area differentiation, deployment of alternative perspectives on urban form and development, migrant groups, and finally a critical scrutiny of the options presented by urban planning. Together, they provide a national perspective on a country in which more than 70 per cent of the population lives in cities of over 100,000 population.


This richly illustrated volume explores the development of New York City in the nineteenth century from a city of 25,000 to a metropolis of over five million inhabitants. Special attention is placed on the city's spatial development with particular emphasis on the location and distribution of the city's various social and ethnic groups. Indeed, the author argues that immigration was the most important factor influencing the shape of the city.


By the mid-1970s, there was a growing sense that cities were in trouble, and that their functions were changing. European countries began to develop their own national urban policies to tackle the increasing problems. Experience has indicated that urban and economic change are inextricably interdependent. By identifying the relevant current economic developments, valuable insights can be obtained into current and future urban trends.


This is a study of human behaviour, either in the mass as waste-makers or polluters, or as individuals initiating, modifying, or resisting changes in environmental policy. Waste creates problems of public health. So the main theme of this book is an exploration of the origins and development of public health policy in Sydney during the nineteenth century, and its evolution into an explicit environmental policy during the 1960s and 1970s (from the author's preface). Opening with a review of the 'British origins' of local sanitation reform, this is a valuable study and especially timely in view of the current environmental and political crisis surrounding the dumping of metropolitan waste off Sydney's beaches. There are many useful statistical tables and maps. And who could resist such arresting chapter headings as 'Excreta in the Suburbs 1875-1916?' Enquiries to Department of Economic History, ANU, PO Box 4, Canberra, ACT, 2601, Australia.


It has been said that Americans are benevolently ignorant about Canada, while Canadians are malvolently well informed about the United States. It takes a Briton, in the form of Barry Cullingworth, to be insightful about both, or indeed any country in which he resides for very long.

Generations of British students have been grateful for his massive scholarship in the Official Histories, his reviews of housing and urban policy, and his regular magisterial overview, currently the 8th edition of Town and Country Planning in Britain. An appointment at Toronto some years ago brought him to confront the Canadian planning scene, in typical style he chose to write about it, comprehensively. The result is a text which seeks to answer the question 'what is urban and regional planning in Canada, and how does it work?'. Seventy five years ago Thomas Adams gave Canada its first furling steps along the planning road. Cullingworth describes the system which has evolved (largely post 1945), drawing the distinctions between American and Canadian practices and philosophies.


Analyses the urban political process and the concepts of development under three headings, namely, ideology (the communication of meaning), institutionalisation (the patterns of domination) and strategic action (the interests and passions of planning). A case study of this three-dimensional approach is made of the urban political process in Oxford, England, between 1960 and 1985.


A tale of extravagant visions, of grand ambitions and, frequently appallingly failed, this is a history of the ideas, events and personalities that shaped the cities of the world during the 20th century. Planners have become the handmaidens of business, architects the designers of spectacles; both have retreated from any active interest in real, social achievement.


Provides a worldwide analysis of dockland revitalisation, examining the processes of change, how planners and urban managers have responded to the challenge presented, and what the impact of changes in docklands has been on inner-city problems. Under the headings of framework of analysis, policy and practice and strategic planning issues, contributions are drawn from Europe, North America and Asia.

Peter Hall. London 2000. The present volume examines what went wrong with the dream of the 1960s. The need for a strategic plan is perhaps even greater. The author systematically surveys the major planning problems of the most prosperous region of Britain, and in particular the problems of congestion and overheating in some parts, coupled with economic collapse and deprivation in others. He concludes with a vision of what the region, with proper strategic guidance, could become in the early part of the next century.


This little monograph is concerned with attempts to establish a major Commonwealth role in urban and regional planning in Australia in the 1940s. It documents and attempts to account for the significant gap between the early post-war forward by the Commonwealth Housing Commission and 'the more circumscribed follow-up efforts' by the Department of Post-War Reconstruction. The author in his abstract suggests that his work 'presents a microcosm of many of the same issues and conflicts' that surrounded the Department of Urban and Regional Development (DURD) experiment in the early 1970s. Enquiries to Urban Research Unit, RSSS, Australian National University, PO Box 4, Canberra, ACT, 2601, Australia.

Having reviewed the fortunes of the region in boom and slump, the author looks in turn at the formulations, character and significance of central and local government policies, and those of the National Coal Board and British Steel Corporation, during the period since the second world war, concluding with a discussion of the need for greater understanding of regional change and the limits to solving regional problems.


As a prerequisite to establishing an appropriate base for the application of financial, social cost benefit and community impact analyses, background information is provided on management and planning for conservation in the urban system in general and the special place accorded to the cultural built heritage, namely those buildings and objects chosen by society for particular protection.


A collection of 22 essays exploring aspects of the development of Australia’s national capital from the early twentieth century to the present. To some extent an epitaphic collection - in view of the recent abolition of the National Capital Development Commission (the city’s planning, development and construction agency since 1957), the establishment of a new National Capital Planning Authority, and the introduction of self government to the Australian Capital Territory in March 1989. Enquiries to Publications & Video Sales, NCPA, PO Box 373, Canberra, ACT, 2601, Australia.


A descriptive-factual biography of John Jaco Crew Bradfield (1867-1943), a distinguished engineer prominent in the early town planning movement in New South Wales. Bradfield is best associated with the building of the Sydney Harbour Bridge (opened 1932) and improvements and extensions to Sydney’s central city rail system. These two projects naturally dominate the book, but it also records his other many activities, including involvement in the NSW Town Planning Association, the Sydney Regional Plan Convention in the 1920s, and his visionary schemes for inland development in the 1940s.


An issue of this admirably illustrated journal devoted primarily to grand-scale urban planning and reconstruction, and featuring work by such architects as Joan Busquets, Roberto Collina and Uberto Sola. Of particular interest to an international audience is a lengthy feature on the contribution made by Sir Leslie Martin. Besides an interview in which Martin reflects on the origins and development of the modern English town, there are analyses of his writings and his work on projects for Whitehall and Glasgow.


Charts the growth of cities that accompanied the industrial revolution and rise of capitalism, and highlights the power of capital in shaping cities according to profit rather than to people. Urban buildings and public services represented disproportionately the preferences of architects, planners and administrators. In Part II, the author outlines the way forward for greater citizen participation in planning and running cities, joining writers from Aristotle to Tawney and Arendt in treating people as essentially political beings, whose individual fulfilment lies in the pursuit of broader social goals. The volume concludes by extending the principle of grassroots democracy to the workplace.

Acknowledgements to John Sheail, Gordon Cherry, Rob Freestone and John Gold for providing these abstracts.

Catalogues

The Factory in a Garden

Headings include Urbanism and Planning before 1945, Wartime Planning and Reconstruction in the 1940s; Garden Cities, Utopian Settlements, New Towns, etc.; and Mass Housing, Slums, etc. 411 titles. Inc’hs Books, Catalogue 45 - available from 3, St. Paul’s Square, York Y02 4BD, England.

Catalogue 46

Headings include Architecture, Landscape, Interior Design, Design History and Shopping, 441 titles. Available from Inc’h’s Books, 3, St Paul’s Square, York, Y02 4BD, England.

World Microfilms

Masters of Architecture: slide collections on the work of great architects, including a recent set on Le Corbusier.

Royal Institute of British Architects: The Drawings Collection. Microfilms of the Drawings Collection prepared in conjunction with the RIBA.


Bibliography

Lawrence Trelveryan Weaver (with a contribution by Patrick Nuttgens)

Lawrence Weaver, 1876-1930: An annotated bibliography.


Lawrence Weaver was one of the foremost writers on British architecture and allied arts of his time. As Architectural Editor of Country Life before the Great War he popularised the works of Lutyens, Jekyll and Lorrimer and wrote extensively about the new English country houses, whose design and landscaping were then passing through their last Golden Age. Weaver was an admirably clear writer and his industry was remarkable. As well as his country house books and monographs, he wrote major studies on modern cottage design, memorials, exhibition layout, architectural details and other related topics.

This first bibliography of Weaver provides full details of his many books, in their various editions, and catalogues all his known articles - for Country Life, Architectural Review and other journals. The list runs into many hundreds. The author’s unravelling of Weaver’s many Country Life contributions is especially useful: this journal is an outstanding source for the architecture of the period, but one from which information can be difficult to access.

This publication has been compiled by Weaver’s grandson, who has also included a short life of him. In addition, Dr Patrick Nuttgens contributes an essay, “Lawrence Weaver: Architectural Writer”.

The bibliography will prove invaluable to all those interested in early twentieth century design subjects. Weaver witnessed and documented a whole era of British domestic architecture and its social background.

EXHIBITIONS AND THE ARTS OF DISPLAY

Lawrence Trelveryan Weaver (with a contribution by Patrick Nuttgens)

Bibliography

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Planning History Group

Treasurer’s Report for 1987

1. In comparison with 1986 the Group’s Subscription income was marginally down in 1987. This reflects a reduced number of Overseas subscriptions. Receipts from the circulation of publishers’ leaflets and bank interest were both higher, although less was received from the sale of back issues of the Bulletin. The increase in bank interest resulted from both the higher balances held during the year and the transfer of our funds into a higher interest bearing deposit account during the year. An account was opened with the Cheltenham and Gloucester Building Society during the year.

2. On the expenditure side the year was exceptional in that delays in printing and invoicing for Vol IX of the Bulletin have meant that only minimum costs have actually been incurred in 1987. There is thus a rather large excess of receipts over payments to be carried forward to 1988.

3. There were no movements on the Seminar Accounts during the year other than the addition of interest to the Seminar Fund, the bulk of which is now held in the higher interest deposit account mentioned above.

4. The Group begins 1988 with a slightly lower General Fund balance (£3166.86 over against £3223.26) than for the start of 1987. This is because considerable expenditure for Vol IX of the Bulletin is anticipated for 1988, and £2125.00 has been set aside as a Bulletin Reserve Fund. If the Fund is exhausted by these payments 1987 will have been an expensive one for the Group.

5. Looking ahead it is hoped that 1988 Income will be maintained at about the same level as previous years and that the production costs of Vol X of the Bulletin will be held at a generally lower level.

6. I am very grateful to Mr E. Elms for agreeing to act as the Group’s Honorary Auditor and for having checked these accounts for 1987.

David Massey
University of Liverpool

Planning History Group Accounts for 1987

Balance Sheet as at 31 December 1987

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Receipts and Payments for the Year Ended 31 December 1987

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AUDIT REPORT

Audited and found correct

E.G. Elms: 27 March 1989
The Planning History Group, inaugurated in 1974, is an international body. Its members, drawn from many disciplines, have a working interest in history, planning and the environment.

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Membership
Membership of the group is open to all who have an interest in planning history. The annual subscription is £30 (currency equivalents available on request).

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Professor Gordon Cherry is Joint Editor with Professor Anthony Sutcliffe of an international journal concerned with history, planning and the environment: Planning Perspectives. There is a link between Planning History and Planning Perspectives and members of the Planning History Group are able to subscribe to the latter journal at very favourable discount rates.