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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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The editorial for this issue was written on a train, travelling from Glasgow to London, a diagonal route across Britain that takes nearly six hours. It is an evocative journey for a planning historian, offering a cross section through time as well as place. Late-eighteenth century industrial landscapes rest alongside post-modern fantasies, towns change places with country, in a kaleidoscope of changing images.

Glasgow Central is where it all starts, the nineteenth-century structure of the refurbished station veneered with modern heritage architecture. The technology of modern transport is new, of course, and the station works hard to live up to the highly-publicised image of its rejuvenated city. Full of paradoxes but it all seems to work, and as the train crosses the Clyde one is confronted with ample evidence of the rebirth of this former centre of manufacturing. Further out, though, the drab housing estates - a product of earlier ideals of suburban living, thwarted by the reality of mean municipal budgets - serve as a reminder that the rebirth of a city has to extend well beyond its centre.

Vacant industrial sites and the outline of the doomed Ravenscraig steel works spell out the present fate of the industrial towns to the south of Glasgow, once centres of coal-mining, ironworks and engineering. Food for thought here, but the scenery has soon changed to that of the magnificent Southern Uplands, an unbroken race through the hills until the train stops briefly at Lockerbie, a quiet town no longer in the glare of publicity.

Then across the border, and through some delightful stations, their red stone and decorative ironwork set against a backdrop of the Pennines to the east and Lake District to the west. Carlisle, Lancaster and Preston mark out the route, followed by a stop at Wigan, its name immortalised by George Orwell and synonymous with the idea of a northern industrial town. Still one can see a few remaining red-brick mills, their tall chimney stacks no longer smoking; the coal mines have gone, and playing fields have replaced former workings. Wigan Pier (where coal was once tipped into canal barges) is now a heritage centre. Even nearby Crewe boasts a heritage attraction in a converted signal box, strategically placed near one of the great junctions of the railway age.

From Lancashire and Cheshire, the train races south-eastwards, a route that surprises visitors for the sheer extent of open countryside. There are glimpses of motorways and cooling towers, but it is the sight of canals and church towers that sets the scene in this stretch of middle England. Perhaps, though, this is all illusion, for soon one is in Milton Keynes, as symbolic of the new Britain as Wigan of the old. A city built for the motor age, for the consumer with more time for leisure than for work, with nothing old about it except enduring new town ideals. Low-flying commercial buildings in primary colours, and award-winning housing schemes typify what is on view.

The rest of the journey is brief. The rings which Abercrombie drew in his wartime Greater London Plan still provide a means to find one's way through the landscape of the Home Counties and into the metropolis. Through the neat countryside and prosperous towns of the Outer Country Ring and the Green Belt (the latter too narrow to be meaningful, but still effective in defining the physical edge of the capital as Abercrombie would have wished), across London's suburbs (most of them dating from the 1930s and now in the throes of renewal and intensification), and so to the inner city and Euston Station. London continues to prosper - if measured in terms of central area redevelopment - but some of the high costs of this are immediately apparent; Glasgow, one wonders, might be more effectively pointing the way to the future.

Dennis Hardy
INTERNATIONAL SYMPOSIUM ON CAMILLO SITTE: DEPARTMENT OF HISTORY OF ARCHITECTURE, INSTITUTO UNIVERSITARIO DI ARCHITETTURA, VENICE, 7-10 NOVEMBER 1990

A three day international symposium has been organised to mark the centenary of the publication of Camillo Sitte’s Der Städtebau nach seines Künstlerischen Grundsätzen. The symposium entitled “Sitte e i suoi interpreti” (Sitte and his interpreters) will focus on the influence the work of Sitte had all over Europe and the United States and on its various interpretations. The aim is to provide a forum for a comparative presentation of the impact of the Sittescque model in Europe and to highlight the discourse on the birth of modern town planning.

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INTRODUCTION

When in 1906 Margarethe Krupp the widow of one of the greatest industrialists in Germany in this period, signed the deed of foundation for a “workers’ colony” on the outskirts of the industrial city of Essen, it was intended to improve the living conditions of the people.

The colony, which according to the intentions of the founder was built under the aesthetic rules of the recently established German Garden City Movement, has become very famous because of the layout of its plan, the picturesque site on the slope of a wooded hill, the smart design of the houses together with its peaceful atmosphere. This “garden city” acted for a long time as a model village also for the construction of colonies all over the Ruhr area.

The case study is the city of Essen in the Ruhr Area. Essen is one of those cities in Germany which experienced in the course of the 19th century a fundamental change from a sleepy agrarian town with an episcopal see and about 5000 inhabitants around 1820, to a coke-town with a population of more than 100,000 people around 1900. Two branches dominated the growth of the city of Essen: north to the “medieval” town coal mining increasing spread over the area, whereas in the west of the town a cast steel factory started to expand.

Established in 1812, the factory of Friedrich Krupp began to grow on the basis of special production methods in steel casting and the corresponding development of special products, with about 1000 labourers in 1857 (1851 only 750) and about 12,000 in 1873. It particularly profited from the French-German War of 1870/71 and the preceding production boom in the armament sector. In 1873 the growth period everywhere came to an end just as it did for Krupp also and the depression lasted then for twelve years, before growth soared again. From 1885 onwards the Krupp factory prospered anew and this second boom lasted till the First World War. This is the period when the Krupp enterprise definitely becomes an international power on the world market.

The city of Essen was widely dominated by the Krupp factories: Krupp is Essen and - in the first instance - the city of Essen is synonymous with Krupp. That is certainly true for the 19th century. Towards the turn of the century nevertheless this interdependence between city and Krupp slowly started to change because the city gradually evolved from a purely industrial town, a coke-town, into a modern city and - in my opinion - the
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Articles

Planning and construction of Margarethenhöhe represents one element in this transformation process.

A new policy in city development

Towards the end of the 19th century the role of the municipal administration was clearly shifting from a restricted attitude in more or less controlling public money and privileges, to a type of public enterprise which has to be based on efficient management. Whereas it still was - up to the mid-80s - the municipal aim to spend as little money as possible, it then became necessary for the city to invest in the construction of infrastructure and to run the relevant enterprises on its own behalf.

In 1886 the municipal architect of Essen, Wiebe, writes in a memorandum about "The housing conditions of the poor at Essen" that there would have been no need to promote municipal housing programmes up to that time, "because the housing shortage is only a consequence of the flourishing of the industry and the arrival of the needed labour force, which means that it is the responsibility of the factory owners to provide good accommodation for the bulk of the manpower." (Quoted from Kösters 1981, 64). As such, Wiebe argues that the shortage in houses, the bad living conditions and the high rent prices were caused by the industry which then acted without responsibility, when it only concerned itself for profit and not for the relevant infrastructure, and he blamed the factory owners for leaving the problem to the cities. From Wiebe's point of view it was not so much a purely philanthropic attitude when Alfred Krupp built his own housing estates, the workers' colonies for "his" workers when the enterprise flourished: between 1863 and 1892, 6,800 flats as well as social infrastructure and social welfare.

But it was in the first instance during the long period between 1873 and 1885 that a new approach of public intervention in technical, social and economic fields was adopted by German cities and municipalities. This approach was based on the one hand on rapidly developing technical standards in infrastructure and on the other hand on the policy of (the German variant of) "municipal socialism" (Björk 1988).

To offer social services and to respond to the supply of public social infrastructure was a way to counter the negative effects of the economic crisis and the consequences of the rapid growth of the towns. At Essen public money was per capita invested as follows: 1849 - 3.86 Reichsmarks, in 1913 - 53.50 Reichsmarks (1,320 - 4,039).

With expanding administration and services, the municipalities became more and more active players in the formation of the local environment and in the life of the city. This happened certainly at Essen, when a new "Bürgermeister" took office in 1885.

Erich Zweigert followed this policy in the first years after taking up office and promoted the completion of the technical infrastructure such as energy supply, tramwaylines, public services, etc. But around the turn of the century on the basis of a new appreciation of the role of public administration at local level he heavily concentrated on the following crucial subjects:

- Firstly the support of tertiary activities in the industrial town and the conversion of the town centre into a "City". That does not mean only to attract new "headquarters" and institutions to the place and to favour building for public and private administration and commerce; it also means extending the city's cultural attractions. Zweigert did both and it was largely to his merit that the main management of the railway board as well as the central administrative seat of the coal board were to choose Essen for their location. At the same time Zweigert supported very much the building of a museum, an opera house, a public library, etc.

- Secondly, Zweigert focussed on making the municipal bureaucracy professional. Therefore, he engaged several qualified experts for the municipal administration (P. Brandl as legal adviser, O. Wiedfeld as head of the - reorganised - public record office, R. Schmitter as architect).

- Further, Zweigert supported very much the founding of intercommunal boards within the Ruhr Area to solve on a regional level problems such as fresh water supply and sewage. This resulted in the foundation of two relevant institutions in 1898 and 1904 - both with their administration located at Essen (Rohralsperrerverein and Emscherengenossenschaft).

Zweigert also approved the reorganisation of the municipal boundaries. The incorporation of neighbouring communities into Essen meant gaining more space and cheap land in, for example, the borough of Altenessen in 1901, and the borough of Rottenscheid in 1905.

Finally, he was very much engaged as mediator between employers and employees during the massive struggles after 1900. It can be suggested that he had obviously recognised that violent social conflicts would have, among other things, negative effects on the city's evolution towards a modern "metropolis".

The founding of Margarethenhöhe

Erich Zweigert died in 1906 at the age of 57 - but the new policy which he had consequently pursued since the late 90s was already successful. It fits very well into the context in this period. With Margarethe-Krupp, since 1902 widow of the late Friedrich Alfred Krupp, established the Margarethe-Krupp foundation on the occasion of the wedding of her daughter Bertha and Gustav von Bohlen und Halbach. This donation "should serve in the first instance in providing the poor ("minder-bemitteten Klassen") with housing... The foundation's capital constitutes 50 ha building land... The capital... is destined... for the construction of houses." (Essen, 1st December 1906).

The foundation was governed by a board of eleven, five of whom were members of the Krupp company, five of the municipality, and in the chair "Oberbürgermeister Helle", who succeeded Zweigert. The board had to take the further decisions about the Margarethenhöhe.

The building site, formerly agricultural land, lays across a valley on the top of a hill to the southwest of the city, about 3 km from the main station. The air at the site was clean, and the site safe from land subsidence caused by mining (because there is no coal under the surface). With considerable energy, Bürgermeister Zweigert had already in 1901 attempted to purchase the site. He wanted to acquire the land for the city to incorporate the neighbouring municipality of Rottenscheid on the one hand, and on the other to plan at the site a communal forest which the town according to Zweigert urgently needed as compensation for the heavily industrialised high density, 19th century quarter in the northern part of the city. But in this case Zweigert had no success. More successful, however, was the financial adviser and property administrator of Mrs Krupp, who was able to buy via middle men in 1903/04 an area of 250 ha of land in this area between Rottenscheid, Baldeney and Fulenau (01 ha of which were then contributed to the donation).

The financial adviser was a member of the Krupp management, but he was also a member of the city council. He certainly had known about Zweigert's intentions concerning the land and his unsuccessful efforts to acquire it.

With the donation of Margarethe Krupp, it seems to be her own decision, the Krupp company adopted a new approach in its housing policy. The paternalistic 19th century attitude towards the workers and their families had become less popular and so perfectly carried out by the factory owners, had become old fashioned. It now became more socially orientated.
The list of the first 359 tenants who in 1913 moved in at Margarethenhöhe proves this point: less than half the number of tenants (174) were "Krupp aner", employees of the Krupp company (workers, employees, pensioners); the other (188) were, aside from teachers (13), tradesmen (7) and "others" (39), employees of the municipality (55), the post office (24), the railway (20), the coal board (8 - it goes to Zweigert's credit to have these offices attracted to Essen), the police (11) and the court (11) (Kösters 1981, 110).

Margarethenhöhe - a garden city?

To say it in advance - Margarethenhöhe in Essen is certainly not a "classical" garden city in the sense of Ebenezer Howard, even if it is usually named as such. In the journal of the Garden Cities and Town Planning Association the title of an article in 1911 is named "The German Bournville" and this, I think, might fit very well. Peter Hall (1988) calls it a "garden village". The title of a commemorative publication on the occasion of the 50th anniversary of the foundation (Steinhauer, 1956) says "Gartenstadt Margarethenhöhe". "Garden City Margarethenhöhe", but the author characterises the estate as a satellite town, a town to sleep in, a town to live in ("Schlafstadt", "Wohnstadt") but also as a garden city. The publication on the occasion of the 75th anniversary of the foundation correctly speaks of a "garden suburb" (Kösters 1981).

Fig 3 Plan of the garden city (c1928)

Fig 4 Margarethenhöhe from a bird's eye view (c1928)

Fig 5 The fountain in the market place is dedicated to Margarete Krupp; inauguration 1912

Anyway, the label "garden city" is very popular and Margarethenhöhe also is said to be the first German garden city - or at least one of the first, and it certainly has some features of the German version of the English "model":

- It is rather big, as a separately planned estate, originally for 5000 inhabitants (the Krupp housing programme between 1864 and 1892/1914 totals 6800 units altogether), a figure which after the Second World War was augmented to 8-9000 people.

- The estate has its own infrastructure, supplying the inhabitants with basic needs such as a big store, several shops, a pharmacy, schools, play and sport grounds, and a police station (in the beginning). Two churches were planned but only built after World War II. The central square has an outstanding design as a city-market place - it is not a village design but it does have a village atmosphere. Rows of shops are located on the two long sides of a rectangle, and in between is the big store (Krupp'sche Konsumanstalt) on the top of the hill in a very representative "metropolitan" design, and opposite for the restaurant and hotel in a somewhat rural style. The design of the place is occasionally mentioned in the same context as the design of Riemerschmids central square for Hellerau near Dresden, the first garden city which was built by the German Garden City As-
1907. This new version of the law divides the city area as a whole into seven different building areas with different densities and design of the buildings. In contrast to the first version of the building regulation, higher densities were then permitted in the city centre. Thus the new law referred to the new development to create more office space in the city centre. At the same time its target was to avoid higher densities outside the city centre. Furthermore, it provided for the first time a different treatment between industrial and housing areas and proposed more or less the separation of functions. Finally, a hierarchy of streets was introduced. Some years later Schmidt transformed this concept into a scheme which he published in 1913 in his memorandum about a regional plan for the Ruhr Area.

The new building regulation of 1907 might very well be influenced by the new building regulation for Munich which was formulated by Theodor Fischer, when he was head of the new office for town extension at Munich and which was adopted in 1904 ("Staffelbauordnung"). Schmidt obviously was a passionate critic and innovator in the planning field, but this did not hinder the council from electing him as deputy in 1906. This nomination, by the way, took place during the same council session at which the donation of Margarethe Krupp was announced for the first time in public.

Schmidt then became a member of the board - or at least he usually was present at the board's annual meetings. The first meeting took place in July 1907. During this meeting Schmidt presented a first plan for the new estate, which was to be constructed outside the town on the hills. The agenda of the meeting says, under item 4: "Deputy Schmidt makes comments in general on the plan (Bebauungsplan) for the above defined area". The plan contained first data about the type of buildings, the standards of the houses, etc. The board members further discussed the method of approach to the site by a bridge which needed to be built across the valley. Finally, it was discussed how to find a qualified architect (see above). The agenda says, in item 5: "Only an outstanding personality with profound knowledge in matters of modern town planning may be considered".

Schmidt is also at the meeting of the board when two years later, in July 1909 Metzendorf presents the definitive plan for Margarethenhöhe (which later will be slightly altered). The plan shows besides the signature of Metzendorf also the signature of Schmidt (as head of the planning department and deputy for buildings matters).

To me there is no doubt, that Robert Schmidt participated in the implementation of an idea and the preparation of the relevant plan even if he might not have liked so much the architecture itself which fits into his vision about the development of a modern city in the Ruhr Area - and especially, of course, the city of Essen.

It seems that the garden city Margarethenhöhe represents the ideal example of a housing estate on the periphery of a modern city, surrounded by a green belt. It can be seen now in the context of the booming core of the city, which is going to become dominated by the middle class white collar employee and which banishes more and more the working class into the 19th century parts of the town, next to the mining pits and the steel works. It is a city model of the new century, in which the new housing estate as garden city, garden suburb or satellite town resulting from the separation of the functions within the city area becomes the place for neat and tidy middle class housing.

In Robert Schmidt's own words: "Essen ... lets emerge a new type of city. As each epoch created its own type, it seems to happen here that two originally very contrary types of town, the industrial town and the town for living have joined together in one. A start has been made. The work has to be continued with the tools of the administration, engineering and economy, with the support of common thinking of private people and the sympathy of the citizens. The city has to become interwoven with the countryside and vice versa to let develop a sound and pretty settlement structure, without "Mietskasernen" (blocks of renthouses) - a perfect (einwandfrei) organism of the modern metropolis" (Schmidt 1912, 42).

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Garden Suburb Planners 1900-1914: A New Middle Class Liberalism in Conflict with the Centrally Governed Town Planning Tradition in Finland

Laura Kolbe
University of Helsinki

In the Finnish town planning tradition the role of central government has been dominant. Until 1869 Sweden and Finland formed a single kingdom, for several hundreds of years (from the 13th century).

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The 1809 Swedish wave of national renaissance and the 1869 Unification of Sweden and Finland formed a single kingdom, for several hundreds of years (from the 13th century).

In the Finnish town planning tradition the role of central government has been dominant. Until 1869 Sweden and Finland formed a single kingdom, for several hundreds of years (from the 13th century).

The "great-power" period for Sweden-Finland (1617/1721) was a time of formation for the Finnish nation.

The urban planning tradition. The development of the nation’s urban traditions was affected by political (a non-war time), economic (mercantile), administrative (towns became centers of local administration) and architectonic factors. At this time came the final breakdown of the Renaissance urban ideal and of the grid pattern. The characteristic features of town planning were now those of rectangular or square town plots drawn up in advance, plans that took very little account of the local topography, and the fact that the town was cut off both functionally and architecturally from the surrounding countryside.

In 1906-1908 a private group of leading bankers, architects, engineers and intellectuals in Helsinki established several garden suburb companies (AB Gronkulla, AB Brändö Villastad, AB Boxbacka, AB Parkstad Vanda, AB M G Stenius). Almost immediately, these companies purchased cheaper land on a northern or western railway or on the archipelago on the eastern side of the Helsinki city line. The aim of these companies was to create outside the existing capital high-standard residential areas with low-density housing, an intimate and modest scale of planning, and to guarantee to the inhabitants a cheap and modern transport system. A common feature was that the members of these companies belonged to the circle of a new and expansive liberal-minded middle-class.

The suburban planning indicates some novelties in the motives of city planners. This anti-urban planning reflects a new historical situation and new socio-political motives which were foreign to the planners of Helsinki of older times. What was the situation in Finland at the beginning of this century, and how was it to be seen in planning terms? This paper examines how the values of the middle class town planning at the beginning of the 20th century differed from their predecessors.

"Bloody years" of 1905-06 - reactions of the middle class

It is interesting to note that the private garden suburb companies were established at a time when the urbanisation and industrialisation of Helsinki reached its peak, at the beginning of the 20th century. In comparison with other European countries, liberal planning was low. In 1900 most Finnish people (73%) earned their living in agriculture. However, Finnish reactions to urbanisation and industrialisation were different from those of the beginning of the 20th century. The reasons for this are to be found at the political level. There were no real city people’s parties in Finland. The Agrarian Union (est. 1906) which concentrated in creating and preserving rural culture brought out the negative effects of urbanisation. The opinion that the rural was the strongest root of life for Finnish society was widely shared.

This was very clearly to be seen during the political crisis in Finland in 1905-06. At this time the sudden and violent increase of working class discontent in Finland resulted in a general strike, many demonstrations and riots. For the first time in Finnish history social tension came to a climax, when the red guard and the white civil guard met in street fights. Ten people were killed in Helsinki. The emergence of socialism and various forms of "collectivism" were new elements in the public consciousness. The old idea of the “true and loyal Finnish peasants”, which was created by the bourgeoisie, found its weakness in the middle of the 19th century, was now shown to have been superseded by urban, independent and revolutionary workers. In Finland, due to her political rich and poor, gentlemen and workers, was now a reality in Finland.

In Finland, as well as in other industrialised European countries, there were strong reactions within the upper classes of the society. One of the consequences was the increasing activities of the urban middle class reform movement. It was sustained mainly by a moral impetus and it did not seek a political revolution, but tried to solve the problems of society in an evolutionary process. The main aim was to create individual and social wellbeing and thus to increase national wealth and power. This early-twentieth-century "nationalism" in Finland may also be seen as a political reaction against the efforts of the Russian Czars to unite the Grand Duchy of Finland more effectively with the Russian Empire.

The urban reforming circles in Finland, whose importance in the social debate grew stronger after 1905, belonged to the new liberal middle class. In the general reform debate it was generally believed that social and political revolution would improve the conditions of the new classes in society. In addition to the earlier reform efforts (such as the temperance movement, women’s rights movement and youth movement) the issue of housing and planning was raised as an equally important matter.
BRÄNDO VILLASTAD
BRÄNDON HUVILAKAUPUNKI

Å blandt ortnamnerna å hamn- Sträva och blandt enligt efter-
omständen namnet på villa och torn ning av ämbetsman.
Mellan de och staden sedan kommunalhistorien följer makt.
Att ställa heliga torn samt ortnamn, även att med en orten och tornställning, utom att bygga m.
i följd mellan de och staden laget i enkelt 13-15 minuter
knuffare upptäckte om komplex att, c. d. 13

R.-E. Brändo Villastads Kontor
DK 2003
Kontorsred. K. 19-20, 2-4, 6-6

O.-Y. Brändön Huvilakaupungin Konttorista
DK 2003
Kontorsred. A 19-20, 19-20, 19-20

Detta konstruktioner sedda. Skapade norn namnet mäst-
gränd samt namnet blandt omkretsen kortare på en
dispositionen i staden. Sedan började dessa samma
mellan villorna och tornet denna ortnamn, samt
Månadernas och tornmanna sedan 13-15 minuter.
Lokala bestienda komplex komplex och nu

F. Larssons Litografiska Tryckeri, Stockholm 1903.
English manner, as the planners explicitly pointed out.

Suburban living at the beginning of the 20th century was positively desired for the opportunities it offered for physical separation from the lower classes and the dirt, noise, disease and crime which accompanied living in town centres. This was a new attitude. The separation of residence and work place was a fact at the turn of the century, which was not the case ten years earlier. One of the first private attempts to build a "villa colony in German style" was carried out in Helsinki by architect K.A. Wrede in 1890. The aim, which was not realised, was to create a residential villa area in a decentralised urban area. The social differentiation of the town was in this case still traditional: the well-to-do citizens lived in the respectable core of the town, while workers had their homes in overcrowded working class areas at the periphery.

However, in the new situation at the beginning of the 20th century, it was the revolution in land communications (especially the electric tram of 1900) and the lack of building-sites for low-density housing, that fundamentally changed the pattern of the geographical prerequisites in regard to planning in Helsinki. By the turn of the century a shift of attention was occurring in reforming planning circles, for the creation of attractive and freely expanding suburbs on peripheral land, outside the capital. Tekielen, the leading building journal in Finland, could with enthusiasm express already in 1896: "The people are longing for peace and silence, which Helsinki normally cannot provide, who want to live in an individual, beautiful and comfortable environment, have only one possibility. They have to join together in order to purchase - not a house - but a large area in the countryside. There they should establish garden suburbs of various sizes and suburbs as well as build an electric tram connection to the capital. It will be easy to find land for the garden suburb. We should develop important ideas so that they can be fully realised."

When, between 1900 and 1906, the echoes of foreign examples were heard in Finland, the garden city idea became well known among young, leading, liberal-minded Finnish architects and builders. In the planning of residential regions the new planners adopted the view that environmental factors should be used to produce a declining quality of human stock from generation to generation. It no longer seemed enough to reform and rehouse the population as whole to have been transformed to new areas.

The result of this principle was the movement of better-off residents to the anti-urban peripheral area of the capital. By leaving the old city, the new middle class builders manifested a total separation from the old town and its way of living, its administration and municipal control as well as the building regulations. This created a new opportunity for the suburbanites to participate in the building of their environment. The main aim was to improve the lifestyle of individuals and empowering such families, with political community activities and patriotism at the local level.

The issue of municipal ownership and its role in building and planning was a very topical one among Finnish architects for the first twenty years of this century. The different viewpoints are to be seen in the planning of the new garden suburbs. A major subject in this discussion of plans was public versus private initiative. Limited liability companies, such as the garden suburb companies, were based on business principles. The capital stock was shared by private entrepreneurs who also jointly participated in the management of suburban planning. In this respect the suburban middle-class builders identified themselves with the English liberal tradition and laissez-faire policies: private enterprises could create more efficiently and get better results than those of the traditional municipal building bureaucracy of Helsinki.

Patrimonial and non-authoritarian values of the new planning generation

The new trends in Finnish planning became apparent in the early years of this century. The ideological basis for this was the planning which was imported. The vision of compact low-rise townscapes in green surroundings was taken from the modern English, German and Swedish garden city and garden suburb examples. Interest in old urban culture and city construction was therefore lively also in Finland. Inspiration for planning was found in Camillo Sitte's book from 1889, "Der Städtebau nach seinen Künstlerischen Grundsatze". Sitte had a remarkable influence at the end of the 19th century in all Scandinavian countries. The young Finnish architect, Lars Sonck, introduced Sitte's thoughts in Finland in 1889. Sonck was to become Finland's leading exponent of the new urban planning. Sonck's main contribution to the planning of the new garden suburbs of Helsinki was his programme of the "modern European style" of living.

Together with the change in planning attitudes there was an increasing national interest in rural Finland, its old townscapes and its traditional building tradition and in the whole pre-urban landscape. This was clearly to be seen in Sonck's interests, in his planning and the design of suburban plans. Sonck insisted that the "mechanical authoritarian town planning of the 19th century had managed to produce only barracks". Sonck, instead, wanted to draw attention to the old urban, 18th century milieu and to aesthetic values in pre-

urban city planning. Informality, organic growth, picturesque landscapes and poetic, natural urban scenery were held to be more adequate, and social and cultural facilities were most likely to generate the harmonious society of which Sonck dreamed. Old Porvoo, on the other hand, became at that time the leading residential ideal of the architects. Porvoo was one of the few Finnish medieval towns, with a narrow area and a well-developed network and artistic townscapes, which has grown without the interference of the central government.

In Finland the garden city planners followed British urban traditions, where every family had its own house and garden, as opposed to the continental and traditional Helsinki model where most urban families lived in flats. This British anti-authoritarian pragmatism and bourgeois way of living was supposed to suit better the needs of the new middle class. In this sense, suburban planning had a hidden social message: the peaceful evolution of British society should be preferred to the violent continental - and Helsinki - urban tradition.

Non-political leisure activities in the suburbs with their parks, gardens, tennis and yachting clubs were a natural response to the changing economic structure of society. Equally important was the possibility of every suburban landowner to build a house or a villa to suit different needs and income levels. Individuality, privacy and domesticity were the key words in suburban living. This cult of privacy and family and social life became a middle class phenomenon, which clearly differed from the aristocratic and urban bourgeois way of living, as well as from the traditional urban public world of work and representation.

In suburban planning one of the main aims was to create a democratic and harmonious milieu. The suburban companies themselves did very little building. They made a general plan for the area owned by them, built streets and guaranteed transport services, and constructed sewage systems, etc. The enterprise was financed by selling building sites and by supplying the new land owners with building materials and labour. In this sense, one had to become a landowner if one wanted to build a suburban house; living in the suburbs had strong connections with patriotic and rural and therefore anti-urban values. In Finland, as well as in other Scandinavian countries, there was a lot of uncultivated land even very near the capital. Therefore, building outside Helsinki, in the rough sea or at some other idyllic natural scenery, linked the whole suburban movement to the romantic writers and artists' patriotic landscape ideal of the 1860s.

The other indicator of patriotism, the flagging, became more general in Finland through villa life. The flag was in Finland and in the Scandinavian countries a symbol for the regency, the army and in general the authorities. The waving of the flag and the flagging, which became a general phenomenon in suburban living, had an important role in emphasising national identity.

References

Risto Alapuro, Matti Alestalo, Riitta Jallinoja, Tapio Valkonen, Tom Sandlund: Suomalainen yhteiskunta (Finnish society) and art nouveau townscapes, which became a general phenomenon in suburban living, had an important role in emphasising national identity.


The Cheap Cottages Exhibition, held at Letchworth in Hertfordshire, during the summer of 1905 was staged at a crucial phase in the early history of the First Garden City Limited. The Company was formed on 1st September 1903 on the practical philanthropic principles of Ebenezer Howard as set out in his book Tomorrow: A Peaceful Path to Real Reform, published in 1898. The Company, having acquired the site at Letchworth, soon encountered practical obstacles to further growth and development. It lacked further capital and publicity if it was to achieve its objectives. The situation appeared to have been rescued by the timely intervention of Thomas Adams, the Company’s first Secretary and Manager, who secured the Director’s approval to invite J. St. Loe Strachey, Editor of The Spectator and proprietor of The County Gentleman, to hold the Cheap Cottages Exhibition at Letchworth in the Summer of 1905. Adams, however, did not escape the criticism of his contemporaries at First Garden City Limited; nor was the Exhibition entirely favourably received in the Press during the years 1905 to 1906. The building and architectural journals were particularly scathing in their criticism of the Exhibition. However, the Exhibition appeared to have received the support and encouragement of Garden City Association members, such as Edward Cadbury, in the same spirit of genuine and practical philanthropy which led to the foundation of the First Garden City at Letchworth. The Exhibition also provided a venue for promoting the Garden City Movement and Letchworth - the First Garden City - in particular.

Adams seized upon the publicity value of the proposed Cheap Cottages Exhibition which seemed to offer a unique opportunity to rescue the First Garden City Limited from the seemingly intractable position which it faced by the Autumn of 1904, just twelve months since the Company was formed to develop the Estate.

One interesting aspect of the Exhibition was the extent to which it attracted both praise and criticism in the Press for entertaining a scenario in which Letchworth might become a haven for second home owners wishing to escape from the pressures of urban living. In an article entitled “Bolt-Holes for Week-Enders”, The Daily Mail of 12th January 1905 urged upon its readership the advantages of a “Bolt-Hole” in the countryside in positively encouraging terms. It stated:

The agitation, however, in favour of cheaper cottages has secured the powerful advocacy of the medical profession, and under their guidance will acquire a wider scope. Urging the necessity of these retreats, or as he calls them “bolt-holes” a well-known physician said yesterday:

The man who will survive is the man who will learn quickly ... The atmosphere of a London home is so often the centre of bustle and stress that rest is impossible there. Hence the necessity of some ‘bolt-hole’ in the country where one can fly for rest, and hence, too, the fact that these retreats are started by men much earlier in life than before.

The article quoting the physician continued to describe the kind of cheap, pretty cottage in the countryside and, unashamedly, announced:

SIR William Grenham and others have espoused the cause of cheap workmen’s cottages; it is time that the movement be extended to other classes, and no better opportunity could be found than the Cheap Cottages Exhibition to be held from June to September on the Garden City Estate at Letchworth. These types of home-seekers who were searching for rural retreats at Letchworth, and clearly not agricultural labourers or other categories of manual workers, were attracted in great numbers to the Exhibition. The Cheap Cottages Exhibition - the Press would have it - became a centre for opportunities-seekers anxious to escape to their rural arca dia as the following press reports on the subject of week-enders shows.

A typical account which was critical of the Exhibition appeared in The Manchester Evening Chronicle of 25th July 1905 under the Title: “Dolls-House Cottages”. The London correspondent wrote as follows:

It seemed to me that the samples in this unique Exhibition, real full-sized houses everyone of them, were much more suited for week- enders who wish to live the simple life for a day or two than for the agricultural labourer, or the working man who is alleged to live in slums...

Let us go inside a few of the exhibits and view them as well as the crowd of well-dressed visitors will allow. The first specimen I viewed quite thoroughly, but when I reached the box-office bedroom it took me ten minutes to get out again because a flock of gushing ladies crowded the narrow stairs and purred “oh how sweetly pretty!” “what a darling wee, little place!” and “oh, how too, too, charming!”...

Later I inspected a suite of rooms adorned with an...
In a critical report of the Exhibition, The Epping Gazette of 16th September 1905 pointed out that the cottages were more suited to week-ends.

They were designed for gentlemen of means, seeking some dainty temporary abodes in the country or on the river, but as workmen’s dwellings they were – at least more of them were – quite impracticable. Moreover, quite seventy-five per cent of those examined must have been in direct conflict with the bye-laws of every urban council in the land...

...We went to praise and remained to criticise. Yet it is possible to be deceived by first impressions. We sincerely hope we were, but until it can be proved that cheap workmen’s dwellings can be built anywhere, not on philanthropic but on commercial lines, the Garden City must remain a City of Utopia.

The Reynolds Weekly Newspaper’ of 1st October 1905 stated:

The Exhibitors seem almost all to have had in view an attractive “week-end” cottage, rather than a cheap dwelling for a rural labourer. In most of the cottages the water was assumed to be delivered from water works pipes, a state of things which hardly ever exists in practice.

The extracts above clearly show that many observers did not consider that these cottages were suitable for use by agricultural labourers or other manual labourers in terms of their design. It appears strange that the promoters of the Exhibition did not consider to discourage the affluence sectors of society from seeking homes at Letchworth.

From the evidence presented in a more extensive Study - of which this article is an extract - it is difficult to see that the Cheap Cottages Exhibition achieved its ostensible claim of presenting an object-lesson in providing cheap cottages at economic rents to landlords and at affordable rents to agricultural workers and other categories of manual workers. The claim that such cottages could be built for £150, even allowing for the fact that architects’ fees and labours’ profit, and the transportation of building materials and some smaller sundry items were excluded from the exhibitors’ costs was far too spurious. On the contrary, rather than producing genuine alleviations of labourers’ cottages the style and type of dwellings built - which were considered to be little villas on mainly detached plots - had an appeal to higher social classes as the contemporary evidence of the Press above suggested.

However, on the positive site, the Exhibition provided an impetus to the flagging fortunes of First Garden City Limited at Letchworth, and was immensely successful in advertising the Garden City Ideal at the national level. Of equal importance was the extent to which the Exhibition drew attention to inflexible Building Bye-Laws in rural districts of England and Wales. In conclusion, the Cheap Cottages Exhibition played an important role in launching Letchworth and keeping it aloft during the early phase of the development of the First Garden City at Letchworth in the first decade of this century.

Notes
1. Edward Cadbury wrote to Thomas Adams in a letter dated 11th November 1904 in the most encouraging terms: "...I very much appreciate the time and thought you have put into this matter and in fact much appreciate the way in which you are carrying on the affairs of the Company as a whole, and hope you will have the sympathy and support of the Directors. With regard to the Exhibition of Cheap Houses I think this is an excellent idea and an opportunity that must on no account be lost." Source: First Garden City Heritage Museum Archives, Letchworth.


It is widely recognised that the leitmotiv of German postwar reconstruction planning was “die organisch gegliederte, aufgelockerte Stadt,” or “the organically articulated and dispersed city.” This meant that the necessary functions of a city – housing, work, commerce, culture, recreation, and so forth – should be physically separated from one another and located in logical, spatial relationships, and that the dense metropolitan should be broken up into smaller units where the desired articulated relationships could be maintained without overburdening human, natural, or financial resources. These ideas, of course, were not new to the post-war period: in various ways they had been advocated by planners throughout much of this century, and they had formed the critique of the overgrown, unplanned industrial metropolises. In any event, in postwar Germany this leitmotiv is most closely associated with a book published by Johannes Göderitz, Roland Rainer, and Hubert Hoffmann entitled Die gegliederte und aufgelockerte Stadt. Published in 1957, it was in fact written during the war, when its authors were employed by the German Academy for City. Reich and Regional Planning in Berlin, an organisation which after the war became the German Academy for City and Regional Planning. The ideas contained in this book, along with related essays by Rainer, are worth close examination because we can see here that the Garden City ideal was not simply a part of the thinking of these men but in fact central to it.

Although Göderitz, Rainer and Hoffmann developed their ideas during the war, they would stress that none of these men, by background or ideology, could be considered real spokesmen for particularly Nazi positions, because they felt they were simply architects and planners working to find technical, value-free solutions to obvious, real urban problems of long standing. Göderitz, for example, was unable to work as a planner during the Third Reich because he had earlier been associated with the progressive town planning of Ernst May, and he found unrewarding employment in the German Academy. After the war, Göderitz first worked for the British occupation forces preparing a draft of a reconstruction and building law (another project begun before the war and continued under the Nazis in the German Academy for City Planning) before becoming the chief planner for Braunschweig. He remained active in the German Academy for City Planning and was on the planning committee of the Deutscher Städteetag (the German Cities’ Association), an indication of his continuing influence in the postwar period. After the war, Hoffmann practiced architecture in Bonn, where he became a spokesman for the revival of modernism in planning and architecture, while Rainer moved to Vienna, where he became a highly influential architect and was for a brief time responsible for designing a new general plan for that city.

The “organically articulated and dispersed city”

The word to be stressed is organically, because it has a dual meaning. On one level it is used as the opposite of artificial. Organic cities would consist of cell-like units that develop in a healthy, natural fashion, and illustrative sketches of such cities rather resemble dividing cells. Urban functions are analogous to bodily functions; the transportation system is analogous to the circulation system of the blood, but beyond this, the organic city is one intrinsically linked to nature, able to “fulfill the biological needs of man.” The view from a balcony overlooking a green area lying far below, one formed and maintained by unknown persons, simply cannot be compared with direct contact with nature, which the ownership of the smallest house garden invites and indeed requires and which awakens the creative forces in people. Green belts or outlying parks are of course better than nothing, but they are artificial (künstlich) and entail high administrative costs and expensive and time-consuming travel to visit them. Göderitz, Rainer and Hoffmann acknowledged that the Garden City Movement earlier in the century offered a solution to these problems, but beyond this, in practice the garden settlements fell far short of the idea because they became mere “Schlafstädte,” bedroom communities without work places and cultural facilities.

What was needed was to design cities following the logical progression from elementary, biological needs. One should start with families bearing and raising children, and from there it is only possible to grow up with a garden; thus “the question of housing is a question of town planning and biology.” Houses with gardens, in other words, constitute the foundation upon which town planning and reconstruction planning should be
The entire design of the organically articulated and dispersed city, therefore, was derived from thinking about housing in gardens. Gödertiz, Rainer, and Hoffmann calculated that in a neighbourhood of 1000 dwellings (with four persons per dwelling) and a density of 30 dwellings per hectare net building land, all residents could reach communal facilities, auxiliary gardens, and the open landscape of the city. For the German city of the future, four such neighbourhoods together, with a density of 30 dwellings per hectare net building land, would result in a city cell about 2.4 km in circumference and still reachable on foot. Three such cells in an urban district with an average density of 60 dwellings per hectare would be up to 2.7 km long. By contrast, the principle of multifamily buildings would provide almost as ideal conditions for garden settlements. In a settlement with thirty dwellings a house for opening land, the gardens attached to or very nearly the nearby houses would range from 218 to 275 square meters. If it proved financially necessary to increase the density of a settlement up to 80 dwellings per hectare, one would have to build multifamily row houses up to five stories in height, and this would greatly reduce garden size. A development of this density would mean that, if it consisted of single family terrace houses, the gardens would be only five square meters in size, but five-storey, single-family terraced row houses would still allow for acceptable gardens up to 66 square meters per dwelling because less land would be covered by buildings. Apartment buildings with more than five stories, however, would only bring diminished returns. There would be no gains in free space for gardens and there would cost more to build. Still, lower densities would of course also have equally negative consequences; they would begin to approximate the much-despised "stiffy desert or steppe" of the metropolis of stone.

Free-standing single-family houses could, of course, be sited virtually anywhere on the building plot, but this is not the case with attached row or terraced houses especially when they rise above two stories. If living in nature meant living in gardens, it meant living with maximum exposure to sunlight, for which reasons great attention had to be paid to the shadows cast by large buildings, since shadows would be harmful to garden areas. Site planning thus required an accurate conception of the angles of sunlight at different times of year, and such calculations, particularly in the work of Rainer, led to the rather schematic, linear layout of proposed developments. Nevertheless, Göderitz, Rainer, and Hoffmann argued that the garden city settlement demonstrated that such residentialailand car parks that would be located in the open were capable of making do with "more or less identical, standardised small houses." Both in a book on housing published in 1933, and in his essay on the publication of 1957, the garden city of Vreewijk was held up as a model. In 1957, they also pointed to the new town of Harlow in England as a successful example.

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The Postwar Housing Crisis

The abstract planning models proposed by Göde-ritz, Rainer and Hoffmann and the more particular plans of Hildebrandt formed a broad current of thought that can be found in the cities and Länder of the western occupation zones and subsequently in the Federal Republic. In practice, however, these models proved difficult to realise. On the one hand, neither the citizenry nor the politicians were usually in a position to use these new concepts. In other words, planning crises usually occurred due to the urgency of the housing crisis itself. Where new housing was to be built? Planners and developers had to choose between building on new, sometimes improved land on the edges of the cities or on the sites of buildings within the cities demolished in the war. Since unused land did not have to be cleared of rubble, and since patterns of land use differed, a degree of simplification was possible. In the case of the ruins, it was easier to plan large-scale projects and begin construction in outlying areas, and the very absence of the well-planned city blocks meant that the locations more aesthetically attractive than the rubble-filled cities. These were ideal sites for the desired garden city environment, which planners used in planning urban housing. Inner cities were often impoverished by the destruction and the costs of rubble clearance and were thus unable to start new construction.3

Further, some inner-city areas were placed under a construction ban while new planning was carried out.

At the same time, there were also good arguments for rebuilding housing in the inner cities. In spite of the destruction, it was practical. Some of the damaged inner-city housing was in fact relatively modern in terms of siting and basic structure. Where the walls and foundations were usable, rebuilding could produce rather quickly a large number of housing units at relatively modest expense.32 Much of the urban utility system and the streets were either undamaged or easily repairable; this was also great an investment for an impoverished area.33 The reason was perhaps not in the favour of the construction of wholly new suburbs.

It was also argued that it was both costly and harmful to the cities to begin with housing construction in the suburbs. It was costly because cities had to pay for roads and other improvements for properties that were tax exempt if they were social housing. It was harmful because resources were diverted away from reconstruction in the inner city. Existing in abandoned damaged buildings or ugly open spaces were the rubble blocks that had been cleared away where no one could afford to build.34 Furthermore, a study trends would show that there was growing demand for small housing units for single persons, and such housing was better located within the city than the suburbs.35 Social housing firms, which had long invested in inner city housing, also argued that the inner cities could be made liveable. Indeed even under ideal conditions a majority of the population would rather live in the inner city or close to the inner city, than in distant suburbs.36 Finally, there were some who argued that inner city housing was necessary to restore the vitality that the city had had in centuries past. Middle class towns houses, presumably with middle classes, would stimulate a rejuvenation of civic spirit.37

Over the long term, of course, it was possible to build both new housing settlements in suburbs and new housing in the inner cities. Single-family, two-storey row houses were built on newly-improved land, while mostly multi-storey apartment blocks were erected in the city proper. With the exception of the 15-20 storey Grindelhö cher in Hamburg, begun by the Brittan in the occupation administration personnel in 1946 and then turned over for completion when it became clear that Hamburg was not going to become a major political and administrative center for Germany projects were usually three to six stories.38 Moreover, until 1954, the majority of the new housing units all over Germany were three-room apartments, a reflection of the strong demand from single persons, especially single women.39 Even the fifteen settlements sponsored by the Federal Ministry for Reconstruction as an example of a project in Bremen, were row houses on the edges of cities, were small dwellings, mostly with 40 to 50 square meters of total floor space.40

Living in Greenery: Postwar Building Exhibitions

The questions of the location of housing, ideal form, and means of construction all came together more visibly at the Constructa Building Exhibition in Hannover in 1951, which, like its predecessors in Weimar and under the Nazis, made the planning and construction of its central theme. This was not the first postwar building exhibition. In 1946, Hans Scharoun, Berlin's first postwar planner, staged for the rebuilding of the capital, and for the exhibition five models of prefabricated, standardised, single-family homes were displayed. These small homes were to be surrounded that would furnish vegetables and fruit.41 Because of the relative isolation of Berlin, the models did not receive much attention. Moreover,42 but he suggested the term "modernised housing."43 Constructa, however, drew the attention of planners, housing officials, architects, and construction firms from all over the Federal Republic. On regional and national planning, construction techniques and materials, and housing, but clearly housing was the primary focus. Planning exhibits discussed the location of housing, the technical exhibits presented means of furthering industrialised, standardised construction of housing; model houses and the representation projects were to show what could be done.44

Konstant Gutschow, who during the war had been the architect responsible for redesigning Hamburg as a representative Nazi city and had also been the effective leader of the reconstruction planning staff in Albert Speer's ministry after late 1943, designed demonstration housing projects that manifested an ideal of organic difficulties.45 The most interesting and memorable was an inner city project, the area around the reconstructed Kronsberg, where three to five-storey apartment blocks surrounded a group of two-storey row houses with small gardens. This was a model of low density, individual homes, designed to be harmonious with the air, and landscaping, and it is still much admired today. Seven kilometers out, at Am Müldefeld, there was a similar city project where, along with the exception of a two to three-storey row houses. Hildebrecht described the settlement's architectural form in terms of its "harmless", the designers sought a "clean and simple" building and had no ambitions for extravagance.46

Hildebrecht's choice of words is revealing, because they suggest both the modesty and the conciliatory nature of this most important exhibit since the end of the war. In the introductory statement for the exhibition catalog, Federal President Theodor Heuss indicated that he hoped the exhibition would help overcome "the gulf between the [engineers] and the 'artistic' [Künstlerisch]' that had caused so much trouble throughout the century. In fact the exhibition demonstrated that the technical and ideological backgrounds, planners and architects in West Germany could come together in a relatively value-free discussion of solutions to reconstruction and the housing problem.
If the demonstration housing projects at Constructa reflected prewar and wartime thinking about the importance of housing in greenery, a second great building exhibition, the Internationale Bauausstel lung Wiederaufbau Hansaviertel in Berlin (the Interbau) of 1957/58, suggested that modernist, high-rise housing should also enjoy a green setting. The Interbau was first proposed in 1951, and several years were devoted to site planning and organisation of the exhibition. In 1953, Berlin’s Bausenator Karl Mahler declared that the exhibition “should not be a building fair [presumably like Constructa] but rather a clear endorsement of the architecture of the Western world. It should demonstrate what we consider to be modern city planning and proper housing, in contrast to the false ostentation of the Stalinallei [in East Berlin].” The result was nearly fifty buildings, almost all social housing but also mostly from seven to eighteen stories high, built by some of the most important modernist architects from the Western countries. The housing ministry was critical of the size of the buildings, and Theodor Heuss felt there was too much devotion to pure form and the technical master modernist architects from the Western countries. The housing ministry was critical of the size of the buildings, and Theodor Heuss felt there was too much devotion to pure form and the technical master.
Research

City Plans and their Implementation in 19th Century Greece

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Why plans were made

The modern city, i.e. the city that emerged after the end of Ottoman rule (c. 1828), can be seen as the result of two generic processes: first, the general process of urbanisation, which was not matched by industrialisation till the early 20th century; and second, the steps that were taken to secure the development of urban centres along desirable lines, while the modern Greek state was forming itself.

The first is related to the establishment of new national frontiers, new economic, political and cultural links with foreign countries, and new patterns of economic activity throughout the country. The long-established local economies had to be abandoned to meet the demands of international trade. So the diversity of the means of production, end-products, and places gradually had to give way to a more homogenous and advanced market, in order to cope more effectively with competition on an international scale.

The second aspect is related to the emergence of a planning policy, which was intended to diminish the gap between Greek society and the advanced European countries. The need to address the numerous problems the country faced in the aftermath of the War of Independence resulted in an
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Research

Authoritative state structure, in which central decision making took the place of the formerly semi-autonomous local administration. Central administration was organised according to the mainstream of European tradition, whereas new legislative initiatives were meant to guide urban development along uniform lines. Soon after the modern Greek state was established, the Greek government had a number of plans drawn up by the allied foreign military missions, and later by Greek technicians trained either at European universities or at newly established academic institutions in Athens.

The towns which were planned

The preparation and approval of plans by the Ministry for the Interior, which was formed in 1833, continued throughout the 19th century, ceasing only in wartime. Urban plans were made for a great many towns, both large and small.

1. All towns of considerable economic importance, including ports, commercial centres for the agricultural hinterland, manufacturing and early industrial towns, important points on the road network, spas, and, finally, the seats of the newly formed municipalities (i.e. the administrative centres).

2. All major towns, ports etc of the new territories included Karditsa (1882), Volos and Larissa (1883), and Arta (1844).

3. Mining and other centres, when no nearby settlement provided housing for workers. Three of these plans facilitated the company of new towns. The first one was Lavrio (plans drawn up in 1867 and 1897) near the iron mines (the same mines that had operated in ancient Greece). Two others were established near the excavations for the Corinth Canal (1883-93) for the workers who were mainly foreigners - Italians, Armenians, and Montenegrins. The arrival of the railway led to the planning of a few small settlements, though it had no particular effect on them.

4. A number of plans were made for towns and villages which were destroyed by earthquakes in various parts of the country in 1858, 1861, 1867, 1886, 1894, and 1909. In these cases land was given free to the people to move away from the old settlements, and a plan was provided to serve as a framework for the new development. The new "urban" land was subdivided into individual lots and the owners received partial subsidisation to build their houses.

5. Several plans were made to facilitate the formation of new communities by Greeks who wanted to move from still uninhabited Greek territory, or where locals were looking for a better place to live. In some cases the endeavour was also connected with a desire to develop national consciousness and led to the foundation of new towns on the sites of famous towns of antiquity. Kruzen (1831), Sparta and Heretria (1834), and, of course, Athens (1835) are typical examples. Foreigners also showed considerable interest in creating colonies in Greece. Their proposals which were usually connected with programmes of industrial development, did not materialise, as neither side was prepared to accept the full implications of the schemes. So the only "colony" known up to now is New Heraklion, established in 1834 to house King Otto's Bavarian soldiers then in Athens. Land was given free to each of the 60 soldiers concerned, as well as materials to build their own houses.

To sum up, from 1828 to the start of the Balkan Wars in 1912, 174 new plans were approved for towns and cities on the mainland. This figure accounts for Greece's only towns with a population of over 20,000 (Athens and Piraeus not included), all 8 towns of 10,000-20,000 inhabitants, all 22 towns of 5,000-10,000 inhabitants, 110 towns and villages of 500-5,000 inhabitants (out of a total of 1049), and, finally, 32 of the numerous villages with fewer than 500 inhabitants (data taken from the population census of 1907).

The aims of the plans

City planning on such a scale put an end to what was regarded as haphazard development and addressed the problem of urban growth in an entirely new manner. Urban space was prepared, either in advance or on very small scale, and sometimes induce the appearance of an urban way of life, which became more complex and also to proclaim the existence of a central state and a society which had to be brought up to date by casting off its "oriental" image. Special legislation introduced the concept of urban reform, based on the principles of sanitation, regularity, geometry, and aesthetics.

The new morphology of the town was based on regularity, repetition, alignment, the accommodation of the traffic in accordance with functional principles to serve the town's sanitation; the basic allocation of urban land uses; the creation of large public spaces, buildings, squares, and communal facilities; and finally the enforcement of building regulations and controls. These models were inspired by the European romantic movement, particularly its mechanical aspect, and were brought to Greece by the foreign technicians and architects who worked in the country.

In practice these principles varied to a certain extent and in differing degrees, as reflected in the plans drawn up throughout the period. The reasons for this included the highly centralised planning and administrative machinery, the lack of specialised technical personnel, particularly following the departure of the foreign engineers and architects in 1842, the lack of lower technical staff at local administration level, the low standard of the majority of Greek technicians, and the military attitude which characterized training. The most important reasons, however, seem to have been the economic and social constraints imposed by the scanty finances available to the state and the citizens' reactions to the way the cost of urbanisation was distributed.

Two points should, perhaps, be emphasised here: first, Greek planning was mainly concerned with physical planning (in fact it continues to be so even now); second, the plans were supposed to be implemented, not by massive public investment, but by small private capital. As contractors' firms did not exist, the urban land was to be developed by the numerous small land buyers building their own houses. The urban land was uniformly divided into small plots in anticipation of subsequent development, which did not have to wait for the necessary infrastructure and communal facilities, as these sometimes took a long time to materialise. It was in this way that the urban design plans, ambitious or not, were carried out.

The planning models tended to be drawn up and elaborated upon in certain distinct periods. In the Capodistrian period (1828-32), the principles of European "art" urban were implemented in a spirit of pragmatism, which nonetheless embraced distinct morphological elements of late eighteenth-century classicism. In the early Othonian period (1833-42), the model was legislated for and designed in its most complete and idealised form, culminating in the revival of some of the ancient towns. After 1865, the model was presented rather more realistically, adapted and scaled down to Greek capabilities; while it was the last decade of the century which produced the most elementary and impoverished versions of the original model.

However, in the context of profound and all-embracing change, from 1828 onwards, new settlements were established and old ones restored, redesigned, and extended. From the ambitious early designs to the indifferent late gridiron plans, one can trace the dedication to a predominant principle, whether explicitly acknowledged or not. In the end, the Greek city acquired its modern urban identity and the planned town replaced the spontaneous historical settlement.

Acknowledgements:

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Transformations of Urban and Regional Space in Northern Greece before and after 1912

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The integration of Northern Greece into the Greek State in 1912, after five centuries of Ottoman rule, coincides with a complete and abrupt restructuring of its human potential and its geographical and productive structure. Cities and regions were affected by this process, which was a direct outcome of major geopolitical changes in the Balkan peninsula and planned state intervention. These transformations are of great importance not merely as a case for historical research, but also for their influence on the formation of modern development policies, especially since Greece has been admitted into the EEC and has also renewed its economic, political and cultural relations with the neighbouring Balkan countries.

The turning point for the development of Northern Greece was the ten years between 1912 and 1922, during which Greek sovereignty was solidly rooted and reinforced in the midst of crucial political events, such as the First and Second Balkan Wars, the national schism of 1915-1917, the First World War, the Asia Minor military campaign and disaster. The latter was responsible for the massive migration movement of Greek population formerly established in Asia Minor, who were purposely directed to Northern Greece, to replace the leaving Turks, according to the terms of the Population Exchange Agreement of 1922. Moreover from the turn of the century till 1922, all newly formed Balkan states acquired the approximate boundaries that they have today. And each one, in its own way, undertook projects in a spirit of reform, attempting to promote its social and economic development and reinforce its sovereignty against future claims. Thus the study of the development trends before and after those changes reveals the role, the limitations and the potential which Northern Greece had. At the same time it illustrates how geographical and social changes can be interrelated while occurring in an extremely condensed historical period.

These major transformations are analysed from two interlinked points of departure: a. The settlement structure and its association with regional space, and b. the internal structure and urban tissue (fabric) of settlements directly referring to urban space.

a) The settlement structure

The settlement structure of European Turkey up to 1870 was characterised by some large-for-the-time urban centres (50-100,000 people) with important commercial and manufacturing activities, open to international markets (Fig. 1a). Later on, European penetration, facilitated by Ottoman modernisation, affected the urban hierarchy: larger settlements, particularly those in the plains or by the coast, were favoured while towns of the interior were condemned to stagnation. Thessaloniki reclaimed itself as the 'gateway of the Balkan peninsula', as one of the most modernised cities of the capital region, including the northern part of Greece (Fig. 1b).

Empire in terms of production of goods, culture and political ideology. Other cities such as Vera, Naoussa, Serres and Cavala showed, to a lesser extent, similar dynamic trends (Fig. 1b).

New national frontiers after 1912 affected greatly the sphere of influence and economic relationships among cities (Fig. 2), some changing from intra-regional to international/interstate ones, others breaking down for long periods (important settlements such as Skopje, Monastir, Koritsa, Melniko remained outside the Greek territory). Furthermore, population exchanges and the influx of refugees invaded the larger cities offering an over-supply of cheap and skilful labour force and helping industrial and commercial capital with a quick recovery. At the same time, reforming attempts put forth in the previous years materialised, and new development processes were projected and carried out, such as improvement of plans, sanitation campaigns, construction of modern communications and transportation networks, and planning of all cities of over 3000 inhabitants. The planned geographical distribution of population generated conditions of a synchronic urbanisation and ruralisation, a unique phenomenon of the time, which transformed productive activities in rural as well as in urban areas (Fig. 1c, 1d, 3).
This planned ruralisation had immediate positive results in agricultural production and productivity but, in a contradictory way, it eliminated in the long term the industrial dynamism of Northern Greek cities, keeping the necessary labour force in the fields. Only after World War II and the Civil War did internal migration to cities create again an adequate reserve for industrialisation.

The process of national integration and organisation of the national market generated considerable social conflicts, which also acquired territorial dimension: the antithesis between the interests of 'Old Greece' (comprising the Southern provinces and the islands), and of the 'New Lands' soon became a clear political divide between a royalist majority in the south and a democratic one in the north.

b) The internal structure of cities.

Up to the end of the 19th c. Northern Greek settlements had developed as products of the 'longue durée', with an almost self-adjusting internal urban structure, i.e. with limited state or local intervention. The urban fabric illustrated a clear separation of neighbourhoods (the 'mahala'), with distinct cultural and ethnological characteristics. Ottoman modernisation and the 'westernisation' process had introduced some changes, such as new infrastructure, public buildings, factories etc. and also permitted the implementation of extension schemes. However, planning operations had not affected the medieval city structure, their objective being to adapt new functions in the existing urban fabric rather than to reorganise the city as a whole.

After 1912, the incorporation of the region into Greece and the rapid capitalisation of productive relations transformed substantially the internal urban structure. Greek administration placed a major emphasis on the planning and redesign of cities. With the help of the most up-to-date planning policies and tools imported from abroad, the government aimed at the 'homogenisation' of the polythetic city; the urban space was to be arranged in such a way that the existing spatial patterns of ethnic-religious groups would not be allowed to persist. Actually, planning techniques were a means to 'hellenize' the cities. Social and functional zoning was introduced, along with building regulations, while oriental features were eliminated under the pretext of, as well as through the need for, health and fire safety regulations, technological modernisation and the upkeeping of land values. In this way, a new urban morphology was imposed which broke with the variety of local architectural and cultural traditions and adopted a kind of international style, confusedly thought of as 'modern', 'eclectic' or 'neo-hellenic' (Fig. 4, 5).

Planning initiatives were always introduced by the central state while local authorities had limited if any opportunity to express opinions. The inefficiency of the state bureaucracy and the conscious attempt to 'de-orientalise' Northern Greek cities often destroyed their particular character, which consisted of a dense and irregular pedestrian network, of distinctive urban clusters, and introverted socio-spatial organisation of neighbourhoods towards collective spaces and religious buildings. Especially after 1922, under the pressure to accommodate the refugees, new plans took an ad hoc and poorly organised form. Moreover, the difficulties inherent in such a large scale programme, and the concurrence of very unfavourable historical events (continuous political crisis, economic crisis of the 1930s) did not allow the elaboration of more detailed procedures and left no room for variety and special requirements. The implementation of standardised and oversimplified plans appears to be at the origin of serious urban problems identifiable today.

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The Seaside Resort as an International Phenomenon: A Bibliographical Note

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The social history and to a lesser extent the architecture and development of the English seaside resort have become subjects of academic study in the late 1970s and 1980s, as part of the rising interest in the history of leisure. Although the English resorts were the precursor of European and American resorts of a similar nature, there has been little British interest in comparative studies of international resort architecture and development, and until recently little foreign interest in studies of foreign resorts. It is possible to cite only two papers on comparative resort development, Lewis’s 1980 review article (US/Britain) and Boll eye’s 1986 study largely concerned with the North Sea coast. This situation mirroring that to be found in both tourism research and leisure studies generally, as has been pointed out in 1989 articles by Towner in Planning History and Bailey in Leisure Studies.

As a first step towards the production of a wider view of international resort architecture and development, a literature search was therefore undertaken in order to establish a basis of work on foreign resorts. (This study was funded by a grant from the Twenty-Seven Foundation.) The resulting bibliography can be divided into five main groupings: general works covering the history of several resorts, resort histories, resort facilities, resort architecture and specific architects.

General and Specific Resort Histories

A good survey of the international development of resorts is contained in Howell’s The Seaside, while the English ‘invasion’ of Europe is dealt with by Pembble (The Mediterranean) and Pakenham (Dieppe). The general history of American and French resort development has been well known for some time, but newer sources include the exposition ‘Histoire d’Eau’ on the Belgian seaside held at Spa. Shanty town or plotteland development around some resorts is dealt with in Hardy and Ward’s Arcadia for All. After a period in which the only works on specific resorts concerned

References

9. Charles F. Funnel, By the Beautiful Sea, Knopf, 1975, on Atlantic City; Eds McCullough, Good old Coney Island, Charles Scribner’s Sons, 1957.
11. Most recently, Stanley and Bergette, ‘The restoration of specific resorts. The work of S.F. Pratt and Addison Mizner has also been described in detail.
12. European resorts have not benefited from widespread study of this type of work; only Stamp’s article on Le Coq-sur-Mer and Kain’s on Deauville and Trouville can be cited, although much more is available. For model development at European resorts, Santelli has written on the hotels built in North Africa in the 1920s by the Compagnie Générale Transatlantique, and Still Bay, a South African resort, was considered in a 1985 article by le Roux.

Conclusion

Although studies of individual and particularly American resorts are becoming more common, almost no consideration has yet been given in anything but general terms to the overall pattern of resort development, the variations and similarities of architectural style within and between resorts, or even the existence of common elements of resort architecture and planning which might give meaning to the umbrella term ‘seaside architecture’. It is hoped to continue the study in the near future, and perhaps this note may act as a stimulus to further work in this field.

References

8. Charles F. Funnel, By the Beautiful Sea, Knopf, 1975, on Atlantic City; Eds McCullough, Good old Coney Island, Charles Scribner’s Sons, 1957.
Landscaping Control
Warwick Mayne-Wilson
Brian Clouston & Partners, Landscape Architects & Urban Planners, Sydney

The objectives of my thesis were fourfold, namely to:

a) trace the emergence of planning controls in New South Wales over the design and landscaping of external spaces;

b) assess the relative roles of planners and landscape architects in the development and implementation of those controls;

c) assess the desirability and utility of previous and existing control over landscape design and works; and

d) propose both a schema for the development of townscape strategies and the structure of a ‘model’ landscape code to help implement the landscape component of those strategies.

In the first two chapters of the thesis I have examined the origins of attempts to improve the design of the urban environment (i.e. external to buildings). In New South Wales the public parks movement in the 1880s reflected the need to provide open spaces for city dwellers living in largely unplanned and congested cities. This was followed by advocates of the ‘garden city’ and ‘city beautifull’ modes of urban design, whose principles inspired and were espoused by founders of the town planning movement in New South Wales in the second decade of this century. Subsequent approaches to controlling the design of external spaces, precincts and townscape - such as through zoning, neighbourhood units, the ‘Radburn Principle’ and the ‘city functional’ approach were also examined. Earlier research by Dr Robert Freestone, E. Relph, and Paul Ashton and Kate Blackmore was particularly helpful in this regard.

All of these ‘movements’ or concepts had a seminal influence in shaping the approach to planning and controlling the landscape elements of urban design which began to occur in the late 1970s. Other elements were the emergence of the environment and conservation movements, McHarg’s ecological approach to landscape analysis and planning, and the development of landscape architecture and planning a decade earlier.

The thesis also traces the evolution of provisions in New South Wales legislation for controlling landscape matters and in the powers bestowed upon local councils for such purposes. It also describes the role of the State Department of Environment and Planning in fostering landscape planning. In addition, it traces the emergence of the teaching and practicing of the profession of landscape architecture in New South Wales.

The information and assessment gained as a result of the historical research was then applied to an examination of the utility of present controls and recommendations for the design of future controls.

A series of four articles based on these themes will appear in Landscape Australia, commencing in August 1990.

Reports
Europa Nostra Awards for 1989

An average of 35 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. The awards are commemorated by a wall plaque and a certificate, the Diploma of Merit. The most outstanding entries received the silver Medal of Honour. For last year, Europa Nostra announced the names of 42 diploma-winners, and 8 Medals of Honour.

The Medals of Honour were awarded for the following:

- restoration by the National Trust of a mediaeval packhorse route, Sty Head Footpath, in the Lake District (UK);
- creation of a regional park on the Cantabrian Coast (Spain);
- restoration of the Monastery of Santa Maria la Real de Oviedo, in Ce-Orzene (Spain);
- conservation of thirteen peasant houses, adjacent to a Greek Orthodox Serbian Church (Hungary);
- restoration by the Gelderland Castle Trust of six country houses (Netherlands);
- conversion of a former military building at Bilzen, Alden Biesen (Belgium);
- conversion of a 500 year old building in Diede- schieim (Federal Republic of Germany).

Of the 42 Diplomas, the highest number Europa Nostra has ever given, no fewer than 19 recognised the large and outstanding UK entry. The recipients included the National Trust for Scotland, for restoration of a country house, The House of Dun, near Montrose. At the other end of the scale of grandeur is the restoration of a little folly, the Chinese Summerhouse at Amesbury, Wiltshire. UK urban conservation was by no means overlooked either. The market place at Bolton, Lancashire, and Whiteleys of Baywater, London, provide what might be called distinguished historically-associated shopping. The continuing restoration of the Regency town of Cheltenham also gained the UK a diploma.

Germany’s diploma winners included a former judge’s house at Solingen and a tithe barn at Wellingen. To add to the contrast, a third diploma was awarded for canal lock restoration at Klein-Rödingsförde. Italy won recognition for restoration of the ancient Villa Campoforte at Ercolano, near Naples, and France for the village of Val Richard, Lizon, a former salt store at Avignon, and the Chateau de Bérouville.

Acknowledgement: A fuller report of the awards was first published in Europa Nostra Magazine, No.1, Spring 1990.
Networks

Landscape Research Group

Aims and Objectives

Background

The Landscape Research Group is a registered Charity and a Company limited by guarantee. It was founded in 1967 and now has more than 500 members, both individual and corporate, in Britain and throughout the world. When the Group was formed it was ahead of its time in anticipating concern for landscape. Now its interests are seen to be increasingly relevant.

Objectives

The Group’s main purpose is to advance education and research, encourage interests, and exchange information for the public benefit on the subject of landscape and related fields. It aims to do this by:

- the development and exchange of ideas about landscape in its widest sense;
- encouraging collaboration between disciplines and between researchers and practitioners;
- facilitating the exchange of information and ideas between those who may be separated by distance or organisation;
- initiating research and seeking out funds for research work;
- organising educational and promotional activities.

Main Activities

Publication of Landscape Research

The journal Landscape Research comes out three times a year and is the main means of communication between members of the group. It offers the opportunity for those involved in different fields of interest to publish their works, and reaches the libraries of many Universities, research organisations and public authorities as well as the desks of researchers, professionals and practitioners. Each issue contains a range of papers, correspondence and reviews.

A supplement to Landscape Research includes landscape news, a diary of events, conference reports, and sections on recently published articles, journals and books on subjects relating to landscape.

Conferences

LRG now organises two conferences each year, generally, one a single day seminar, the other a two or three day residential event. By means of these conferences LRG has played a leading role in bringing together artists, scientists, academics and practitioners.

The following are some of the conferences that have been held:

- Theatre and Landscape 1987
- Nature and Landscape: The Great Divide 1987
- Australian Landscapes 1987
- Nature, Landscape and the Community 1986
- Views about Views 1985
- Integrated Rural Development 1984
- Meanings and Values in Landscape 1984
- Landscape and Painting 1983
- Upland Landscapes 1983
- Politics and Landscape Protection 1982
- Inner City Parks 1982
- Literature and Landscape 1981
- Lowland Small Woods 1981
- English Landscape Parks 1980
- Countryside Heritage 1980
- The Northfield Report 1979
- Ecology and Urban Renewal 1979
- Landscape Under Pressure 1978
- Research Needs and Priorities 1977
- Aesthetics of Landscape 1976
- Recreation in Scotland 1975
- Nature in Cities 1974
- Urban Fringe Problems 1973
- Unproductive Land 1972
- Landscape Quality 1971
- National Classification 1970

Promotion of Research

LRG has been involved in the promotion and sponsorship of research in its almost completed Nature-Experience Research Programme. It is also undertaking a review of current research into the relationships between people, nature and landscapes by means of a ‘State of the Art’ Review, which aims to identify useful areas for future research.

Membership

Any person, group or institution supporting the aims of LRG, may become an individual or corporate member of the Group. All members receive free issues of Landscape Research and may be offered reduced rates for attendance at conferences and for purchase of LRG publications.

For further information or membership queries please contact the Secretary at the following address:

Mrs Carys Swanwick, Secretary LRG Ltd., Leuric, North Road, South Kilworth, Nr Lutterworth, Leicestershire LE17 6DU
Publications

Abstracts


This two-volume set provides a thought provoking and often disturbing view of the urban state of the world. The books' twenty-five contributors (including sociologists, geographers, planners, political scientists and historians) deal with a series of common issues regarding the economic role of the city, urban pathology, and its remedies. Volume 1 offers a comparative analysis of the world's cities and their numerous problems while Volume 2 contains individual case studies of ten cities, four from developed and six from developing countries.


Jocelyn Brown (1898-1971) married Alfred John Brown (1893-1976) in England in 1920. They lived at Welwyn Garden City for three years when Alfred was an assistant architect to Louis de Soissons. They returned to Sydney in 1930. Alfred established his reputation as a leading town planning advocate. Jocelyn, a skilled artist, developed her nascent interest in landscape architecture and became very active as practitioner and writer in the 1930s and 1940s. In 1952 she was elected the first Australian Fellow of the English Institute of Landscape Architects. This well-illustrated book describes her life and gently analyses her articles, gardens, and relationship to her contemporaries.


Published simultaneously in English, French, and German, this volume complements the exhibition of 250 original drawings and artifacts in Chicago, Paris, and Frankfurt. Both the exhibitions and the essays explore the international dimensions of Chicago architecture and especially its connection with Northern Europe. The volume also unravels the mysteries of the new metropolitan form which appeared between 1870 and 1920 when American cities underwent extraordinary expansion and reorganisation.


The Meiji restoration in Japan, in 1867, and the spirit of reform held by the enlightened dilettante of the time, opened the way to what has come to be known as 'the Modernisation of Japan'. This modernisation engulfed many aspects, ranging from the economy to the military. It is obvious that the greatest impact was created by industrialisation, and subsequent migration movements and demographic shifts in society generally, and in the structure of the labour force and the urban fabric in particular.

This study traces land readjustment, which is often called 'the Mother of Japanese Planning', from the last century, through the shocks of industrialisation, and the turmoil of disasters and wars, until the present period. It encompasses the infrastructural aims of the period of high economic growth and subsequent suburbanisation and concentration processes. The study also attempts to answer questions of transferability of planning tools to host societies, and related problems of legitimacy. The German origins of Japanese land readjustment offered a unique tool to study the requirements of legitimacy in the process of transferring urban planning concepts, tools and techniques, which could serve as an historical lesson for future attempts at aiming such operations. In another sense, this study attempts to trace English translations of titles of Acts and projects through the existing literature, and to present a unified set of those titles.

Bibliography

'British Architectural Biography' - Two Years On

The British Architectural Library project to compile a database of Victorian and Edwardian architects, 'British Architectural Biography 1834-1914', is now in its second year and contains over 5000 records.

The project, funded by the Getty Grant Program of the J. Paul Getty Trust, was set up two years ago and is due for completion in September 1991. At the time of writing, records exist for members elected as Fellows or Associates up to 1900, together with brief records for non-RIBA members.

The records created to date are mainly in skeletal form but are continually being expanded as more details are found. The aim is that each will include, as far as possible, details on: addresses, dates, education and training, professional career, bibliographical references and obituaries. The information is gleaned from RIBA Nomination Papers and supplemented by other material, notably 'Builder' and the 'RIBA Journal' as well as existing bibliographical files.

The project is compiled in a standardised format using the BAL's STATUS software and powerful search software enables a variety of complex searches to be performed. Plans are in hand to make the database available outside the BAL through the international database host DIALOG. In the meantime, written or telephone enquiries can be addressed to the Project Editor, Alison Felstead at the BAL, RIBA, 66 Portland Place, London W1N 4AD, England (Tel 071-580-5533, Ext 4320).
Planmng I

Planning Notice of the arrangements for the election of the Committee
Sheail choose not to stand again; G.E.
There were three retiring

The officers of the PHG will be elected/confirmed in office by the Executive over the summer months.

G.E Cherry, Chairman
24 July 1990
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Professor Gordon Cherry is Joint Editor with Professor Anthony Sadler 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.