The issue under consideration, on Australia, and this provided the stimulus with a greater degree of thematic unity than usual. It also illustrated the vitality of the Australian section of the PHS, a feature that is reinforced by the knowledge that they have just had their second Australian Planning History Conference. This issue also contains an article on, and from, South Africa. Here is evidence of another active group. As editor, I am aware of the efforts of members of the Editorial Board, like Robert Freestone and John Muller, who send me information and channel copy from their part of the world.

Having concentrated on one country in the last issue, this one ranges far and wide, with pieces on the United Kingdom, China, Latvia and South Africa. In doing so, it reflects the geographical spread of the PHS membership. The contributors to the Australian special issue largely adopted a biographical approach, the articles in this issue show a diversity of approach to planning history. Some, like Wallace van Zyl relate the past to the present in a direct way. Others follow more orthodox historical paths. Paul Taylor, for example, in his description of wartime housing programme in Britain, stresses the legislative pattern and the administrative processes. Zheng Bing, in his study of Shanghai, relates political events to the physical plans produced for the city. Others, like Irene Bakule in her piece on the garden suburb at Riga, emphasize the architectural style and the landscape. Peter Larkin and Gary Woodward remind us that the answers are not necessarily to be found in the archives, important though they may be. Only a few historians have used oral history techniques to enrich their work. Many of those who have tended to concentrate on the great and the powerful. Larkin reminds us that lower-middle ranking officials can provide useful leads. Systematic interviews could also be a useful means of providing a consumer’s view of planning history, especially when balanced against other sources. As long ago as 1914, Alison Rickett, in the Mirror, wrote: “study of Quarry Hill Estate in Leeds, showed the way.

Although a number of studies in English of Shanghai exist, Zheng Bing offers us an interesting interpretation of the period 1927-1949. In particular, he challenges the local orthodoxy about the Soviet influence on Chinese planning and stresses the impact of western ideas. He traces the way in which up-to-date ideas brought back from Europe and America were incorporated into the City Plan for Greater Shanghai. It is also interesting to compare, in Irene Bakule’s study, the impact of the Modern Movement on the design of the dwellings of the garden suburb at Riga in the early 1930s. Clearly modern western ideas about architecture and town planning were being transmitted around the world at this time, although these ideas were often modified when used elsewhere.

The background to a number of the studies in this issue is that of war, political turbulence. It is apparent in the essays by Bing, Bakule and van Zyl. It is central to Taylor’s piece. A number of researchers have looked at the estate built in Britain during the First World War, but little has been written about the housing policies of the 1930-1945 period. Taylor’s work could be usefully complemented by a study of the house designs and the layout of these estates and their relationship to post-war schemes. In their research, articles, Larkins and Woodward offer some useful advice to those wishing to explore the planning history of Britain in the period since the Second World War. Irene Bakule’s research is on the problems associated with maintaining the architectural and planning heritage in a society in flux. This issue is also addressed in the article on conservation in Kimberly by William van Zyl. Where does conservation come in that list of priorities drawn up by politicians, planners and developers. Whose heritage is being conserved, and why? What should be done with it when we have decided that it should be saved?

I hope this issue offers not only geographical breadth, but also academic diversity. Planning history is still a relatively young subject. For it to advance, we should encourage diversity and a questioning attitude, and from the ensuing debates and challenges we can hope that it will mature, blossom and thrive.

Strategies of Intervention in Historic Areas First International Conference on the Rehabilitation of Urban Centres 7-11 August 1995, Universidad Federal de Pernambuco, Departamento de Arquitectura, Mestrado en Desenvolvimento Urbano, Recife, Brazil

The purpose of this conference is to provide a forum for presentations on current issues and topics in rehabilitation of urban centres by discussing governmental and private strategies undertaken in Brazil and other countries.

The major themes to be addressed in the conference are: Policies and proceedings adopted by governments and private institutions in the process of rehabilitation of historic areas; The relationship between the various agents involved in the process of design and implementation of large urban programmes and projects.

For information contact: Mestrado em Desenvolvimento Urbano, Universidade Federal de Pernambuco, Cidade Universitária, 51445-380 Recife Pernambuco, Brasil, Tel/Fax (55-81) 271 81 11

The Centre of Contemporary Culture of Barcelona The Historical Atlas of European Cities

The Centre of Contemporary Culture of Barcelona (CCCBB) was set up in 1988 and opened to the public in February 1994. The centre is governed by the Diputación (provincial council) of Barcelona and the City Council of Barcelona. It is a thematic, multi-disciplinary and multi-functional cultural centre, with the city as the main theme and focal point of its activities. The CCCBB has three main areas of activity: research, diffusion and training. Alongside these, the centre promotes reflection on, and analysis of, cities from a variety of viewpoints, using exhibitions, courses, seminars and publications.

The Historical Atlas of European Cities is one of the most ambitious publishing projects undertaken by the CCCB. Bringing together a significant number of specialists in urban planning and the history of cities, the Atlas project combines both research and educational objectives. The Atlas aims to provide a synthesizing explanation of the development and current configuration of the principal cities of modern Europe, with special attention being given to the changes taking place in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries.

The project has the following objectives: to gather, compile and make available a significant amount of information on one hundred European cities, chosen because of their importance in the role of their history in Europe, to promote a universal understanding of the history of each of these cities and show the development of the urban network of which they are a part. The aim is to provide a comparative approach to the cities and urban networks covered.

The Historical Atlas of European Cities will consist of ten volumes, each one covering a specific geographical area. The first volume, covering eleven cities in the Iberian Peninsula, was published in December 1991. This will be followed by volumes on France, Great Britain and Germany (now in progress) and others covering Italy, Scandinavia, etc. The Atlas is a collective work, with many contributors, who come from a wide variety of disciplines: cartography, urban studies, art history, architecture, urban history and planning. The scheme is directed and co-ordinated from the CCCB, where the processing of the text and thematic maps is also undertaken.

The Centre is also involved in a Postgraduate Course in Urban History: Urbanism, City, History. The PhD students at the Polytechnic University of Catalonia, are members of the co-ordinating team for the Atlas. To obtain further information about the Atlas, the Urban History Course or the other work and publications of the Centre de Cultura Contemporània de Barcelona write to F. Javier Monclus or the Secretary, F. Melé, CCCB, Montalegre, 5, 08001 Barcelona, Spain. Tel: (93) 4-12028/382, Fax: (93) 4-120520.


CALL FOR PAPERS

The conference will focus on a discussion between social, behavioral and natural science, social scientists, ecologists, designers and planners. It should articulate the role of the built environment in ecologically conscious sustainable development. Other contemporary areas of interest in design research and its ecological implications for the built environment include: cultural and social responses to environmental changes; anti-consumerist ways of life; housing and other aspects of design. The conference includes plenary sessions, small groups, excursions, exhibitions and book displays. Information about the proceedings will be published after the conference. Papers, in English or French, are welcome. Instructions to authors will be sent to those who apply for more information. The deadline for 200-
Folk Architecture of Pernambuco, Brazil

Professor Maria de Betina Carvalho is leading a group that is currently researching the folk architecture of the Atlantic Forest Region of Pernambuco in northeastern Brazil. The original tropical forest of the Atlantic coastal strip, or Zona da Mata, was destroyed by Portuguese colonisers in the sixteenth century. The traditional role of Pernambuco as the main producer of sugar and the alcohol derived from sugar dates from this time.

The common man of the Zona da Mata builds his own house. This anonymous artificer has been the main contributor to the distinctive architecture of his villages and townships. The folk architect struggles against hardships to make a home for himself and his family. He uses local materials, wood, clay and brick, to connect wattle-and-daub tapa walls. The straightforward technology of these buildings is common knowledge that is handed down from one generation to another.

The ingenious coloured decoration of the facades of the small terraced houses reveals the taste and style of the common man. His house is more than a mere shelter. The houses built by the poor are described by Ananno Sussama, in Panorama e Planoares (1941), as “a protest against the misery, the dreariness, the ugliness, the routine and the monotony of their lives.”

Folk architecture in the Zona da Mata is chiefly characterised by the colour-wash facades of the small terraced houses. The plain facade, the extension of the facade above the ceiling line, freely combines Classical and Art Deco elements in accentuated geometric frizes. The resulting composition engraves architectural principles onto the richly inventive folk vocabulary of a design imbued with the personal character, the symbolism and the creativity of the common man.

Professor Maria de Betina Carvalho can be reached at the Departamento de Arquitectura e Urbanismo, Universidade Federal de Pernambuco, Avenida Recife s/n, Zona de Mata, Recife, Pernambuco, 50724-970, Brazil. Fax: (+55 81) 211.81.00. E-mail: mvc@unifeed.pernambuco.br.

Joint ACSPO/AESOP Congress Toronto 24-28 July 1996 Planning History Track

ADVANCE NOTICE AND CALL FOR PAPERS

Although full details are not yet available, all planning historians should note this very important conference to be held jointly by the North American Association of Collegiate Schools of Planning and the Association of European Schools of Planning. This follows the precedents, and highly successful, first joint conference held at Oxford, UK in 1991. The Oxford conference attracted over 700 delegates, probably the largest ever gathering of planning educators. The Toronto conference promises to be on a similar scale and will provide an unrivalled opportunity to meet those involved in the planning education world.

The bulk of the conference is organised in simultaneous sessions of thematic tracks. One of these will be, as in Oxford, a planning history (a detailed report of that track was included in Planning History Vol 13, No. 3, 1991). Each track has two coordinating chairs who are responsible for putting together the programme from the offered papers. One chair is from Europe, the other is from North America. The European co-ordinator is Professor Stephen V. Ward of Oxford Brookes University, UK. The name of the North American co-ordinator was not available at the time of going to press, but is likely to be announced shortly.

It is extremely important that as many planning historians as possible offer papers, to assert the importance of the subject within planning education generally. The European track chair is therefore inserting this advance notice for the special attention of the members of the International Planning History Society, not all of whom may see the main call for papers. No theme guidelines are yet available for the overall conference, though experience suggests that these would, in any case, be fairly general and impose few restrictions. Obviously, though papers which have some international or transatlantic resonance are likely to be particularly easy to incorporate in the programme, subject to the usual academic criteria.

Selection of papers will take account of academic and subject criteria. There is an intention also to seek a broad balance of North American and European papers. The organisers’ advice is that forty papers can be presented in a single track, though they also indicate that it may be possible to increase this number by running some sessions in parallel, if demand justifies. It would be very nice to be in this position and a very good advertisement for the healthy state of planning history. In addition, poster sessions are envisaged allowing many more people to present aspects of their work.

IPHS members who are also members of ACSPO or AESOP will, no doubt, see the official call for papers at about the same time as they receive this advance notice of Planning History. However, any IPHS member who wishes to offer a paper for the planning history track is invited to submit a short abstract (about 250 words) together with a very brief curriculum vitae and full contact details. These should be sent as soon as possible to:

Professor Stephen V. Ward, ACSPO/AESOP Planning History Track Coordinator, School of Planning, Oxford Brookes University, Headington, Oxford OX3 OBW, United Kingdom. Fax: +44 1865 435559.

Unfortunately, the closing date for the call for papers is not currently available. It was, however, felt important to bring this major opportunity to the immediate attention of IPHS members. Full details of the Congress will be reported as they become available.
At the beginning of the twentieth century on the northern outskirts of Riga a 'garden town', or more accurately, a garden suburb, was created. It was the first realised project in Eastern Europe based on Ebenezer Howard's ideas. \(^1\) The initiator of the idea to create a garden suburb in Riga was the chief engineer of Riga, A. Agthe. The chosen area for the development was a hilly pine forest overlooking Lake Kisezers. \(^2\) The first plan for the new garden suburb was created by the director of parks for Riga, Georg Kupholt, who was well-known as a landscape architect and planner (Fig. 1). \(^3\)

During the period from 1901 to 1909 the area was divided up into a series of plots and a street network was created. A tram line from the centre of Riga to the settlement was also constructed. Eighteen villas had been constructed on the site by 1906. By 1910, the number of dwellings had doubled. A number of famous architects, such as R. Dohnberg, F. Scheffel, A. Wine and O. Bars, \(^4\) worked there. Although the initial aim had been to erect an appealing residential environment at the lowest possible cost for working class families, the villas that were built were occupied by architects, lawyers, doctors, intellectuals and other well-off citizens of Riga. \(^5\)

Most of the houses erected during this early period of development were timber-framed constructions on stone foundations, and were wood panelled or plastered on the exterior. Gabled roofs, usually steeply pitched, with cross gables, were covered with red tiles and had exposed rafters. The gables had decorative trusses at the apex and overhanging eaves. The wooden walls were decorated with horizontal or diagonal boards, which were raised from the wall surface for emphasis. Mansard roofs, oriel and bay windows were commonly used. Some houses had square or rectangular towers (Figs. 2 and 4). The style that was used during this early period probably grew from the Picturesque Gothic ideas of Andrew J. Downing. It could be taken from popular house pattern books of the second half of the nineteenth century. This style was seldom applied to urban houses because its emphasis on high, multiple gables and wide overhangs did not physically lend itself to narrow, urban lots. The possibility of building more spacious villas in the natural landscape encouraged architects to use these patterns when working on projects for the garden.

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\(^1\) Howard, E. (1903), \textit{Garden Cities of To-morrow}.

\(^2\) The idea of a garden suburb was inspired by the work of J. A. Downing, Andrew Jackson Downing (1815-1852), a noted landscape architect, writer, editor, and teacher whose landscaping ideas and books were influential.

\(^3\) Kupholt, G. (1903), \textit{The Garden Suburb of Riga}.


\(^5\) The garden suburb was a popular concept in Europe during the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, particularly in countries such as France, the United Kingdom, and Germany. It was a response to the growing urbanisation and the desire for more green space and a healthier living environment. The concept was to create self-sufficient communities with green spaces, pedestrianised streets, and a mix of housing types.
suburb. Only a few buildings were constructed of stone at that time. Art Nouveau and National Romanticism were the dominant styles for interior design. Villas were built to a height of one or two storeys and contained eight or more rooms. As a rule, there was an entrance hall, a family room, a dining room, a library, a kitchen, a cleaner’s room, W.C., and a verandah on the ground floor and four or more bedrooms and a bathroom on the first floor.

In 1910, the City Council of Riga decided to further encourage the growth of the ‘garden town’, which had been given the name of Kaiserwald. As a result, an additional plot of land of approximately 40 hectares was added on the north-west side of the original site. G. Kuphaldt drew up plans to extend his original project. The City Council of Riga, however, did not accept his proposal, and they invited the well-known German architect, Herrmann Jansen, to submit designs for the extension to the garden suburb.

By this time Jansen had become famous as the winner of the international planning competition for Berlin. In 1911, the City Council received Jansen’s proposals, and the north-western part of the garden suburb was developed in accordance with his plans. It is clearly evident that the ‘garden town’ was the product of two different plans. One part, that of G. Kuphaldt, relates closely to the topography and the landscape, the other part, that of H. Jansen, was worked out abstractly, without acquaintance with the existing situation on site. Jansen divided up the land into a series of regular linear plots alongside the parallel street system in a very formal way. Although he left some free space for public recreation and widened the streets in a few places, this concept did not work. Unlike in an urban working class district, there was less need for green open spaces on this wooded site (Fig. 3).

A total of 108 villas had been completed before the First World War, 25 of which were built in the new area. All the villas were built like small castles or country houses in the natural landscape of the beautiful pine forest. In the south-western part of the district, however, a number of semi-detached two family houses were built for lower class residents with tighter budgets. These dwellings were considerably cheaper than the free-standing single family villas. Every dwelling in the semi-detached houses had an entrance hall, a family room with a verandah, a kitchen and a W.C. on the ground floor and two or four bedrooms and a bathroom on the first floor. These were usually accommodated within the roof space. The designer of most of the cheap detached and semi-detached houses was the architect, G. Tiesenhausen. During 1911, he managed to complete more than twenty buildings along Stockholm Street (Figs. 5 and 6).
There was an interruption in the building process during the First World War and in the post-war period. Construction recommenced in the period 1928–1932, but the style of the buildings changed considerably. Eclecticism and Art Nouveau styles were replaced by Rationalism and Functionalism. The main building site used during this time was that planned by E. Jansen before 1911. After about 1930, Art Modern became the prevalent style used in the garden suburb, which by that time was called Mezaparks. Eliel Saarinen’s projects were well-known among Latvian architects, and his style quickly became the latest architectural fashion to be adopted by many of them. Smoothly plastered and solidly cubic buildings with flat roofs and asymmetrical facades began to appear. Some detached houses had curved corners, others had windows which continued along the flat facade, while others had windows which continued around corners. Large window s, balconies and terraces allowed increased amounts of light and air to enter the rooms. Small round windows, beloved by other elements of the buildings were created with great restraint. Door frames, windows and other elements of the buildings were created with great simplicity, durability and careful proportions. Interior walls were mere partitions, allowing greater flexibility in room lay out. The villas at Mezaparks had all the modern conveniences. The design was mainly the work of local architects, such as T. Hermansonsky, N. Henschel, A. Razumas, E. Stalberg and O. Tilmans. Like their Modernist mentors, they claimed to be working without historical precedent, trying to exploit the materials and technology of the day (Figs 7 and 8).

World War II and the Russian occupation brought considerable changes in Mezaparks. Most of the owners were deported to Siberia. The villas became the property of the Russian Army and State. The buildings were frequently ill-treated and plundered of their contents. Some were drastically altered, most were neglected for fifty years. Today, most of the houses are in a very bad condition. Many of them need restoration to bring them back to their original appearance.

Although the privatization process is going on, the greatest part of the houses still belong to the municipality. The district contains 557 houses now, and there are nearly 6,200 inhabitants living there. The houses are overcrowded, for during the Soviet period the one family villas became the homes of several families. These families lived in one room and shared the same kitchen, W.C. and bathroom. The need to provide these families with other housing is a major problem, and consequently, the process of privatization is slow. Meanwhile, other processes are at work. Commercial institutions, with greater resources than private individuals, are taking over these former residential buildings for their needs. Such a situation changes the original residential district into a commercial area, where traffic, noise and air pollution and the extension of dwellings for other purposes destroys the ‘garden town’ environment as a whole.

NOTES

2. Aulīe Apte (1850–1906) graduated from the Riga Polytechnic in 1873. Between 1889 and 1899 he was the chief engineer of Riga.
4. Geert Kaphardt (1853–1935) trained as an architect. He w as director of parks in Riga between 1879 and 1915.
5. Rudolf Dobner (1884–1918) graduated from the Riga Polytechnic in 1895. He designed 80 buildings in Riga.
6. Friedrich Schieffel was the architect of 35 buildings in Riga.
7. August Witsa (1876–1969) graduated from the Riga Polytechnic in 1902. He was the author of 13 buildings in Riga.
8. Oskar Bars (1848–1913) graduated from the Riga Polytechnic in 1874 and also studied at the Academy of Building in Berlin. He designed approximately 90 buildings in Riga.
11. Gerhard von Eisenhau (1878–1917) graduated from the Riga Polytechnic in 1907 and also studied in Paris. He worked as an architect mainly in the ‘garden towns’ at Riga, where he designed some 40 detached and semi-detached houses.
12. Ernest Stalberg (1883–1958) was Professor of Architecture at the University of Latvia. Osvald Tilmans (1900–1980) was chief architect of Riga between 1934 and 1950 and a Professor at the Riga Polytechnic.
THE EVOLUTION OF STRATEGIC PLANNING IN SHANGHAI 1927-1949

ZHAO BING TONG UNIVERSITY SHANGHAI

In more than 700 years since Shanghai was designated a Xion (county), but the true eye-catching development of Shanghai only began in the 1840s when Shanghai became a treaty port under the terms of the Nanjing Treaty (1840) and the Hunan Treaty (1843). During the last 150 years, history, national and international, has sometimes generously presented the city with, and sometimes mercilessly deprived it of many opportunities to develop rapidly. The city has its own intrinsic interest, but as urban planners, we are more interested in the evolution of strategic planning in Shanghai: the process by which people worked out a spatial plan and carried it out consciously. That's the reason why the period from 1927 to 1949 will be examined in this paper. In order to give an explanation of the special morphology emerging in the plans, the social and economic background of the planning will be emphasized. Particular emphasis will be given to the 1929 Greater Shanghai Plan (Du Shanghai Jiun) and the 1949 City Plan of Greater Shanghai (Du Shanghaiku Abao). The differences between the two plans will be explored. Attention will also be paid to the influence of the 1949 plan after that date.

1940s-1920s: The rapid urbanisation of Shanghai

In 1845, after Shanghai became a treaty port, the British consul signed the Land Regulation with the local representative of the Qing Government (Du-tu), according to which the foreign settlement was developed and the segregation of foreign colonial and Chinese residents was stipulated. In reality, the segregation was rendered ineffective by the remarkable influx of Chinese seeking to avoid civil strife in the 1850s and 1860s, such as the Xiang-yue Rebellion and the Tai-yue Rebellion, which it was observed that the number of refugees in the foreign settlement rose to 500,000 between 1852 and 1865. The sheer increase in population stimulated the development of real estate and the expansion of the settlement.

Moreover, foreign investment in industrial development in Shanghai increased after the Shimonoseki Treaty (1895). The number of foreign-owned enterprises accounted for 45 per cent of that in the whole of China. Furthermore, the First World War created a suitable opportunity for the rapid development of Chinese industry. By the beginning of the 1920s, Shanghai had replaced Guangzhou as the most important Chinese hub in terms of foreign trade, harbour facilities, transportation, industry and banking, and had become the dominant financial centre in the whole of the Far East.

Spatially, the economic sectors of the city were concentrated in the International Settlement and the French Concession. The distribution was therefore very unbalanced. Under the free market, the physical expansion of the foreign settlement continued with the foreign building trade beyond the boundary (yue-jiu da-tai). Equally, in the areas under the Chinese authority, the demolition of the city wall in 1914 illustrated that market forces had been changing the Chinese residents' psychological and behavioral patterns. Even though no physical obstacles existed any longer between the foreign settlement and the Chinese area, the long-term and unified planning of spatial development was seriously hampered by the administrative separation. Furthermore, the instability of the Chinese political situation aggravated the backwardness of the urban services and facilities in the Chinese area. Whether measured by employment opportunities or living conditions, economic strength or social security, the foreign settlement, with many privileged treaty rights, was the truly leading urban centre.

1927-1937: Rapid construction and nationalist confrontation

The Nationalist Government established in Nanjing in April 1927 made Shanghai a 'Special City' (Shanghai Tehe She) which was a local authority with administrative and judicial power, and quite different from the local autonomous agencies established before 1927, such as the Engineering Bureau of 1900 (Zhangjing Zhanwu), the Autonomous Agency (Chengshi Zhe Zongwu) and the Municipal Council of 1911 (Shicheng Zongli), which were established by the enlightened local Chinese elites to emulate the Shanghai Municipal Council in the foreign settlement. Until July 1928, the local authority of the Special City controlled 17 districts which covered 494.69 square kilometres. It was intended that it would gradually absorb the other 13 districts which covered 365.65 square kilometres. In contrast to the government area, the foreign settlement, including the International Settlement and the French Concession, made up only 22.82 square kilometres. Although 22 out of the 35 treaty settlements in China had returned to the Nationalist Government after the success of the Northern Expedition of 1926-27, the settlement in Shanghai remained intact and continued to dominate financially, commercially and demographically. However, the unification of the sub-sovereignities in the Chinese area lay the foundation for the creation of a spatial development plan. The need for such a plan was becoming apparent.

More and more problems were serious afflicting living and working conditions in the whole city. Because of the long-term lack of adequate management and investment in public utilities in the Chinese area, the environmental quality there was far inferior to that in the foreign settlement. For example, only 25 per cent of the roads in Shanghai were located in the Chinese area. More problems existed in the other systems, such as water supply, sewage, electricity supply, public transportation, the telephone system, etc. But in the foreign settlements, some similar problems also occurred. Due to the high density of the population, the settlement became overcrowded. Meanwhile the capacity of the harbours along the Huangpu River and the Suzhou Creek had gradually become unable to meet the needs of the domestic and foreign traders. In order to enlarge its capacity, the harbour had to be extended as soon as possible.

Aimed at improving urban functions, the Greater Shanghai Plan was announced in 1929. The outstanding features of the master plan were the broad new city centre north-east of the foreign settlement and a new transportation system (Fig. 1). The Qiao-jiang Harbour was planned at the mouth of the Huangpu River and near the Yangtze River, just north of the new centre. In the hinterland of the harbour, arterial highways and railways were to be formed which would create a network connecting the parts of the Chinese area and maintain a modest relationship with the existing road system in the foreign settlement. In consequence, the Greater Shanghai plan adopted an interesting spatial pattern that of a twin-centred city.

As one of the starting points of the plan was to lower the population density and better the environment, the twin centre could be explained as an approach to planned dispersal. But the new centre with the adjacent harbour, standing independently and suddenly at the mouth of the Huangpu River, suggests that releasing population pressure was only a superficial aim, and that
the actual objective was to obstruct the foreign imperialists from encroaching upon Chinese land and, ultimately, to triumph over them politically and economically. Thus confrontation, rather than cooperation, was the theme of the plan. The ten years from 1927 to 1937 were a rare and relatively quiet period for the Bureau of Public Works of Shanghai Special City. During this period they invested in public utilities and buildings, such as museums, libraries and roads. Unfortunately, their plans were interrupted by the Japanese invasion.

1937-1945: The Japanese invasion and the stagnation of development

This period of eight years was dominated by the Japanese invaders, who themselves drew up a spatial plan with military and exploitative objectives. Before Pearl Harbor in November, the Japanese also chose the same sites outside the foreign settlement as those which had been selected in the Greater Shanghai Plan to develop the centre and the harbour. It would seem that the two plans were based on the same premise.

From 1937 to 1941, Japan did not declare war on Britain, America or France. Once the Pacific War broke out and those countries became the enemies of Japan, their former treaty rights were taken over by the Japanese. They then gave priority to the use of the existing infrastructure and utilities in the settlement to serve their war effort.

1946-1949: Towards a milestone in Chinese urban planning

The surrender of the Japanese in 1945 and the settlement's takeover by the Nationalist Government brought the opportunity to work out a long-term and wide-ranging spatial development plan. According to the architects, the Nationalist Government and many scholars of urban history, what appeared in the first (1946), the second (1948) and the third (1949) draft of the City Plan of Greater Shanghai was the same. It was illustrated that more and more stress was placed on reality. Maybe because the following civil war reduced the possibility of realizing a grand plan and the preliminary investigations were too limited, the planners began to pursue more pragmatic ends. Despite such apparent compromises, many ideas in the 1949 plan were more mature in terms of rationale and comprehensiveness than those of the 1929 plan.

Firstly, the planners restructured Shanghai regionally according to the theories and practice in Britain, America and Germany. They analysed the demographic trends and the urban transportation system using relatively advanced theories. The city region within the administrative territory of 6,538 square kilometres, referred to as the Greater Shanghai Region (Da Shanghai Quyu), was divided into 12 districts, which were called City Units (Shiqi Danwei) (Fig. 2). The former foreign settlement and certain parts of Hu Nan Road were designated as the Central Area (Zhong Qu). This was to be surrounded by a green belt, echoing that of Amsterdam in the Greater London Plan. The belt was intended to stop the sprawl of the central area and to disperse the surplus population to the districts outside the belt.

Secondly, the city region was configured hierarchically, and composed of five areas of different size: the City Region itself (Shiqu Renqu), the City Unit (Shiqu Danwei), the Town Unit (Xiao Danwei), the Mid-sizes Unit (Zhongji Danwei), and the Small Unit (Xiao Danwei). The Small Unit was the basic unit which was delineated in terms of the catchment area of a primary school, similar to a neighborhood unit in America or elsewhere. One Mid-sized Unit was made up of 3-5 Small Units, and 10-12 Mid-sized Units were equipped to a Town Unit. More than three Town Units, with a population of 160,000 to 140,000, formed a City Unit. Wedges of green land and expressways provided the contact and connections between the City Units. It is a typical pattern of "organisational dispersal".

Thirdly, the theoretical basis of the plan reflected the current doctrines of Anglo-American and European mainland planners. The outstanding influences were from the garden city of Ebenezer Howard (1898), the regionalism of Lewis Mumford (1938), the organic dispersal of Edeel Saarinen (1943), the investigating-analysing-planning mode of Patrick Geddes (1929), the functional zoning of CIAM (1933), and so on. These theories were revised and applied in a millenial city quite distinct from western countries.

In contrast to other Chinese cities where urban planning had been done, the City Plan of Greater Shanghai was unique in its comprehensive theoretical basis and carefully worked ideas, its progressively developed schemes and radically reformist assertions. For these reasons, it can be described as a milestone in Chinese planning history, the point at which contemporary planning theories were introduced into China, absorbed, revised and later disseminated. The reasons for this conclusion are based not only on the above factors, but also because of the shadow that the City Plan of Greater Shanghai cast upon the planning system of China from 1950.

The City Plan of Greater Shanghai was divided into two phases: the master plan and the detailed plan. After the master plan decided the outlines of the spatial morphology and the related guidelines, a detailed plan of a district, like the Zhabei district, could be drawn up according to the guidelines as a rehearsal. After the Liberation (1949), in the late 1950s, the department which was equivalent to the present Construction Ministry made it clear that Chinese planning work consisted of masters planning and detailed planning. This reflected the practice in the USSR, so scholars engaged in Chinese urban history have argued that the framework was borrowed from the Soviet Union. I disagree with them, because it can be argued that the planning of Greater Shanghai from 1946 to 1949 was the foundation of knowledge and action for the system of China's urban planning afterwards.

The planning of Greater Shanghai lasted less than four years and ended in May 1949 just before the People's Liberation Army defeated the Kuomintang Army and took control of Shanghai on 27 May 1949. The first Nationalist deputy mayor, Zhao, a famous engineer, engaged in the planning of the city, transferred his plan to the first Communist mayor, Chen Yi. With the radical change of ideology and power base, the plan did not wholly become a "mature plan" of paper. The city's problems did not disappear. In the socialist society, the City Plan of Greater Shanghai, at least, provided one model for the modernization of the city in the light of up-to-date urban planning conceptions and techniques.

The 1929 Plan and the 1949 Plan: A comparative study

A sufficiency of administrative power and territory is the common and imperative condition of planning. With the promulgation of the two administrative decrees in May 1929, the Shanghai Special City was bestowed with administrative power and jurisdiction. Very soon, the authority obtained the power to supervise the administration in the settlement through drawing support from the nationalistic industrial and commercial leaders and residents in the city. Up to 1945, when the Shanghai Special City took over the administration, territorial integration provided the impetus for the authority to draw up a plan for a splendid future.

The development of Shanghai was in the nationalists' interest. Whether in 1927 or in 1945 the Nationalist central government tried hard to control Shanghai for it occupied a decisive position in respect of banking, industry, commerce, foreign trade and harbour facilities in China, and in the Far East as a whole. To strengthen their administrative control over industry and commerce and to raise public revenue through taxes on them was a key nationalist aim. To induce the local population of Shanghai with their political philosophy was thus a means to an end.

As a key centre of sino-foreign exchange, Shanghai was also important to the Nationalists in another way. Benees has argued that Chiang Kai-shek's Chieu counted on the characteristics of such abnormally developing metropolises, with their bourgeois characteristics, to persuade and win over the democratic countries in Europe and America.

The 1920 Plan and the 1949 Plan were conceived as the manifestation of Shanghai's place and role as a manifestation of national dignity and foreign exchange. The 1929 Plan had the aid of western classical composition, such as the circle and the radiating boulevards, as well as traditional Chinese buildings. To present national dignity, might and sovereignty, such combinations of western and eastern forms in architecture and planning were not unusual. They reflected some common thoughts in Chinese society at the time, even though they were seen as controversial by others.
There were ambiguities in the 1929 Plan. Although the harbour was a central element in the plan, the economic goals and policies were quite vague, the authority wanted to build up a new Chinese centre, there was no clear solution put forward to encourage these contertemporal forces that would residents into the cities to live and work. It would seem that economic factors were less important than ideological factors.

The 1929 Plan, which the political and ideological colour of the 1929 Plan was left. The former nationalist belief that Shanghai would hold sway over the Far East (and even the world) was not Ideological mandate. Chinese produced an embryonic form of modern planning in bureaucratic tradition. The City Plan of Greater Shanghai (1949) represents a great step forward in Chinese urban planning.

Why, under the same Nationalist government the two plans were so different? It was a period of rapid economic, political fluctuation. The ideological backgrounds of the two plans were completely different from each other. The conditions of technical preparation in the two phases were also quite different in circumstances of internal and external turbulence and could not be carried out as expected, they brought to the many features of urban planning which could still be fruitfully studied by later planners, whether in decision-making authorities or academic agencies.

The Greater Shanghai Plan and the City Plan of Greater Shanghai were both drawn up in the light of up-to-date planning conceptions and techniques. Although the Greater Shanghai Plan and the City Plan of Greater Shanghai were both drawn up in the light of up-to-date planning conceptions and techniques.

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My sincere gratitude goes to my supervisor, Professor Li De-hua, who gave me a great deal of concrete help and instruction during the research. I would also like to thank my co-supervisor, Professor Renning Chuban She.

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Notes
The year from 1927 to 1949 witnessed theological and practical progress in China’s urban planning. The tree of modern western planning theories was transplanted into Chinese soil. A wealth of experience of planning practice had been accumulated in this period, and that experience was still valid after 1949. In the socialistic city, the Plan of Greater Shanghai at least provided one pattern for Shanghai’s urban modernisation in the light of up-to-date planning conceptions and techniques.

Although the Greater Shanghai Plan and the City Plan of Greater Shanghai were both drawn up in the light of up-to-date planning conceptions and techniques.
Minister would not be prepared for the time being to approve of the erection of further houses, having exceptional circumstances. Local authorities were hit immediately by the drain away of subsidies and by 1940 private builders were being affected by resource difficulties. It has been estimated that without the war the total number of houses that could have been built in the country between 1939 and 1945 would have been around 1.75 million, a figure which would have been in excess of the total output of 1.6 million homes required at the war's end. If any new houses were to be built during the war years, they had to be justified on grounds of war purposes. However, these issues were so bound up with the Ministry of Works, it became something of an embryonic Ministry of Housing in its own right for war purposes, preparing sites and issuing licences to build where it was felt necessary.

The government defended continued subsidies to local authorities but not private builders on the grounds that the former were better in some fields of operations. One of these fields was that of agricultural cottages. This determination was not that great in 1943 the government allowed, in what the Ministry of Agriculture deemed was the area of greatest need, the building of 3,000 new cottages for agricultural workers. These were to be built by Rural District Councils despite rising costs, up 1939 by July 1943 over pre-war levels, and with a 25% rise between March and July 1943 alone. Considering that the total loans to local government for capital expenditure fell from £129,779,111 in 1938-39 to £54,074,986 in 1942-43, less than 6% of the pre-war figure, it is possible to see why local authority house building was largely at a standstill, yet it still reveals the significance of these cottages in terms of the wartime housing scene. Although continuing the pre-war view that councils were best dealing with specific needs for which individuals themselves could not cater through the private system, the R.D.C.'s had protected over what they saw as over-centralisation of the building industry in the Ministry of Works.

Unfortunately, the war also brought a halt to slum clearance, with government urging postponement of slum clearance operations from the start of the war, so that by 1943 300,000 families in Britain were in houses which, had the war for which, would have been condemned as slums. Although in line 1943 the Ministry of Health agreed to extend the requisitioning powers of councils, it was only for families they felt were inadequately housed. Thereafter, for a plan, for in Preston, where prior to the war there were 600 applications from people living in overcrowded houses, there were only seven suitable properties. Similarly, in Childwall there were only five unoccupied houses, which as the Council itself said, was not a major contribution to the relief of existing housing conditions in the Borough. Despite this, it had been a local authority conference on housing difficulties in June 1943, set up at the Ministry's request, which led to a report going to the government and the latter agreeing to delegate even these additional requisitioning powers, where necessary only requisition for evacuated and bomb-damaged families, along with transferred war workers, had been possible.

Housing said this in order to proceed with requisitioning, the prior consent of the Senior Regional Officer of the Ministry of Health was required, and estimates of the expenditure involved had to be prepared by local authorities should be lifted.

This left the local authorities' role in the long-term housing scenario uncertain at a national level, partly due to the changing structure of central government. In 1942 the planning functions of the Ministry of Health were transferred to the Ministry of Works and Planning, following its establishment in February 1943, to the Ministry of Town and Country Planning. This Ministry acquired wide-ranging powers over planning, including housing with local authorities, drawing up a national planning policy and preparing legislation to assist the control of development. In March 1943 all local authorities in England and Wales were asked to prepare a 1-year peace-time programme for house building. This was generally based on the output of pre-war years, and assumed that construction by private enterprise would continue to play an important part in the programme. A number of MPs soon began questioning how local authorities could plan one-year schemes without relevant information on likely new industrial development. Indeed, the splitting of functions regarding housing and planning led one MP to talk of a war between the Ministries of Health and Town and Country Planning, though the Ministry of Housing and Planning denied this.

What could not be denied was the general government commitment to private housing in principle, though the Minister spoke of the local authority role in replacing shares and adjustment of overcommitment, with ‘meeting general needs for homes for the working class in so far as they were not met by private enterprise.’ It was not until June 1943 that the Minister said local authorities could assume there would be government subsidy for buildings, and in July the amount could still not be assessed. Overall, the government was moving decisively to use local authorities to provide certain essential housing needs not met elsewhere and use their residual base as a conduit for strategic planning. At the same time, resources and financial constraints still limited options. As one MP said, ‘We want to see some money, some want power. What we get out of the Ministry of Health is talk and circulars and no end of sympathy, and it is not good enough.’

The Ministry's desire to be circuitous collided with the enthusiasm of many local councils in planning major building schemes. There were frequent delays while Regional Planning officers adjudicated on local authority proposals. The stamping down of expectation by central government was tinged with a ‘sweetener’, in that the scope for temporary house construction was increased. The Housing (Temporary Accommodation) Act of October 1944 made the local authorities responsible for providing sites and necessary services, along with the site costs, while the Ministry of Works provided or paid the cost of a sub-structure for the temporary home. This set out the erection of the properties by the local authorities and managed the homes, paying to the Ministry £2,10s. 0d for each temporary house. This Act allowed a form of trade-off between central and local authorities and when it came to discussing general housing requirements, with the temporary houses at times...
seeming like a palliative to please the councils. Churchill's interest in post-war housing only really began to show through clearly in 1944 when he minted Lord Portal. Minister of Works and Buildings, on the need to have more prefabricated houses built for display in as many places as possible for all to see. Yet by September he was complaining about the waste of time involved in exhibiting and the lack of progress due to constant criticisms of what was on show. Churchill felt that having houses ready for returning soldiers was more important than whether it was the best that could be built or not, and insisted on an acceleration of prefabricated houses under a Committee, led by Lord Beaverbrook. In a speech to the House of Commons in November 1944 Churchill referred to housing as the most threatened sector on the Home Front. It was the Prime Minister's determination to house returning members of the armed forces which remained paramount in his thinking, and the role of the local authorities was seen as being necessary to meet this need.

In a revealing minute of March 1945, he stated, "We must clear up the position of the local authorities. The strength of the national task must be more predominant while the emergency lasts." Though this strengthened the government's hand, it also allowed local authorities to plead for more temporary houses to meet their needs, including of course, returning military personnel. The Minister of Health, Walford, did say in December 1944 that he expected the majority of building during the first two post-war years to be done by local authorities using a range of contractors from large to small. He was more vague about the longer term, saying: "I feel that at quite an early date one short term programme will merge into the long term programme to meet the needs for 3 million to 4 million houses in ten to twelve years — a programme to be carried out at a rate somewhere between 75% and 100% higher than the rate at which we were building before the war." Whether a co-ordinating Minister of Health would have been helpful is uncertain; it was certainly rejected by Churchill on two occasions, in September 1944 and June 1945.

Once Germany was defeated in May 1945, the Coalition government soon ended and, by June, the election campaign was in full swing. A sample of the electorate revealed housing to be the most important issue, with 41% placing it at the top of the agenda. Labour even promised, in their election manifesto, a Ministry of Housing and Planning to combine the housing powers of the Ministry of Health with the planning powers of the Ministry of Town and Country Planning. The bulk of Labour's thinking on housing emphasised the role of the local authorities. Labour praised them for their building standards, and expressed shame at the lack of proper encouragement to them from pre-war governments and accused the emphasis still shown by many in the Conservative Party for private enterprise. Many in the Labour Party felt the Ministry plan for 100,000 houses in the first year of peace, and 200,000 in the second, was inadequate in view of the need for five million houses. At one point, Labour was even proposing the building of four million houses over ten years. Even at 300,000 a year was well in excess of any previous figures.

Churchill was also seeking to encourage housebuilding by whatever means. With the General Election of 1945 only two days away, he drew up a government programme for July in which housing figured prominently. He spoke of special mobile housing units and treated the matter with all the energy of a war-time battle. In terms of permanent construction, he was seeking an early start by private enterprise but also by local authorities, with measures of proper control over building to ensure that available labour was concentrated on high priority work. The government even congegated itself on the overall housing position in June 1945. Churchill, the Minister of Health, said the housing authorities already had land for 276,000 houses, which was easily enough to cater for the present programme and enough to keep the local authorities busy for two years. He continued with a range of figures, including local authority plans to provide large accommodation another 300,000 permanent houses. He also claimed that sites for 35,000 permanent local authority houses were already fully developed and that 119,000 temporary houses had been allocated to the local authorities. The Conservatives, therefore, were clearly assuring that local government would build houses in large numbers.

The Conservative commitment to housing was not enough to prevent a landslide Labour victory in the summer of 1945, followed by sweeping local election victories in November. The new Minister of Health, Bevan, said, "The main contribution towards meeting the housing needs is expected from permanent traditional houses built by local authorities, with no subsidy to be provided for erection of houses by private enterprise." Loans sanctioned to local authorities for 1945-46 totalled £42,941,956, an increase of over £35 million compared with 1944-45, and housing was the main beneficiary.

Both major political parties had accepted the pre-war role of the local authorities, had sustained the councils' place in housing affairs during the conflict, and were prepared to develop it afterwards. The Labour Party philosophy was more conducive to the council house ethos but by the end of the war the Conservatives, on pragmatic grounds, were just as prepared to see a role for public subsidy to local authorities to provide houses in the short term to meet specific needs in post-war society. The Labour application of its housing policy after 1945 was therefore not markedly different from that of the latter years of the war-time Coalition government or its short-lived Conservative dominated successor.

Local authorities did what they could to meet the range of specific housing needs which were earmarked for attention before the war, and did what they could to maintain this role during the circumstances of the war years. Their success meant the central government's judgement of post-war need brought the 'victory' of public over private housing as the vehicle to deliver what was required. Before the war, dealing with overcrowding, slums and the need for cheap rented housing had been for the most part a case of 'filling the gaps' in housing need. The post-war scenario was one of the 'big gaps to fill' and the type of housing required, the resources that could be provided and the organisational structure that existed mutilated in the councils' favour.

The collectivist notions arguably engendered by war time commitment in a common cause and building a better future affected Conservative councils as much as Labour, particularly when it became clear that the councils were to be the apparatus for post-war construction. The natural desire of councils, irrespective of their political colour, to obtain the best possible housing deal for their taxpayers led to a jealously of resources and an acceptance of a role they were, after all, obliged to play. The hoped for dreams of many councils fell before the realities of financial stringency and they were forced to modify their expectations. Therefore, though there was a broadening of emphasis on council houses at the national level under Labour, it was circumstances by the financial situation, with control in this sphere exercised under the Local Authorities Loans Act of August 1945. The local authorities could not control the flow of resources but they could compete for the spoils. A tribute to the local authorities' effectiveness is the seemingly widespread assumption that they were the natural public agency for house building. This showed that the war had not changed their reputation as reliable agents. Indeed, they assumed a dominant position in a limited housing market.

Though essentially agents, the local authorities were not mere puppets of paws in the central Will, for there remained some flexibility in planning and initiating their own schemes. Central government may have manipulated the subsidy system to achieve its goals of perceived 'efficiency' but local authorities retained control over its distribution within the community. The partnership between central government and the local authorities remained intact throughout much of the period. Even when called upon to do so. In that process the element of continuity remained intact.
NOTES

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CONSERVATION IN KIMBERLEY, SOUTH AFRICA: DILEMMAS OF DEVELOPMENT

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In the early nineteenth century, the way of life in the Northern Cape was directly affected by the climate of scorching summers and freezing winters. Irregular rainfall meant that the cultivation of crops was difficult and the local inhabitants, such as the Khoi and Sotho-Tswana depended on hunting to sustain themselves. Meanwhile, the Trekkers (migrant farmers) were slowly moving up from the south to take advantage of extensive natural pasture in the pool seasons.

On this peaceful, shimmering Steppe of stony kopjes, sun-bleached grass and umbrella trees, the 'Auiska' diamond was discovered on the De Kalk farm at Hopetown, and prospecting began along the Orange River. Alluvial diamonds were, however, soon found along the banks of the Vaal and by 1870 the Vaal River diggings had several thousand inhabitants.

In 1871, a servant of Fleetwood Rawsthorne and his 'Red Cap Party' discovered some valuable diamonds on Colebegg Koppie, twenty miles to the south, and the de Beers New Rush was on. Soon, the area was a frantically busy mining community, as hopes arrived from all parts of the world. The koppie soon disappeared under 1,680 separate mining claims, which were subdivided. Cables and pulleys soon criss-crossed the working area in a gigantic spider's web.'1

Roadways, which had been laid out, were gradually eroded by the miners and most collapsed by the end of 1872. There were primitive and dangerous conditions in housing, where people graduated from the canvas age of tents to rough homes of corrugated iron (Fig. 1).

The name 'New Rush' was, however, considered unidiomatic and, in 1873, the thriving community was re-named Kimberley, in honour of the Colonial Secretary. In 1873, Anthony Trollope was highly disappointed of the diggers' single-minded pursuit of wealth. "Ladies and children turn dirt," he commented, "instead of making pretty needlework or wholesome mud pies.3

The discovery of diamonds stirred up unpleasant boundary disputes and several parties laid claim to the area, for example the Cape Province, President Brand of the Free State and President Pretorius of the Transvaal. In the Kraal award, the Griqua chief, Waterboer, received the whole area, whereupon the British governor at the Cape advised the territory to protect himI.

Since many reasoned that the mines would be worked out after a few years, the erection of substantial dwellings was deemed to be out of the question. In 1892, Randolph Churchill likened the temporary town to a "cluster of swarming bees setting down", believing that

Figure 1. Tent town, 1873.
the people would soon swarm off again! Tollope had described the town as "built of corrugated iron... probably the most hideous [material] that has yet come to man's hands, but it is the most portable and the cheapest."

The colonials came to Kimberley from Britain, Canada and Australia with most of the knowledge and expertise necessary to make a success of mining and, into the bargain, they brought common cultural and social values. On the other hand, the Diamond Fields was in the center of a wilderness where Trekboers led a rural existence, without knowledge of the English language or industry, and with little influence in society. Since some of the big Kimberley mines were situated on these people's farms, Allen felt that they should have shared some of the riches. Their farms were, however, sold to the mining companies for minimal sums; e.g. Bellfontein for £2,000, Du Toitspan for £2,600 and Vooruitzicht for £6,000.

Civic Development

For several reasons, the year 1882 is considered a landmark in Kimberley's civic development. Some 3000 temporary shacks of wood and iron presented a dangerous fire hazard and annual blazes led to the creation of a proper fire brigade. Then a regular water supply was ensured with the completion of a pipeline from the Vaal river and a modest start was made with electric lighting. An extremely important event was the coming of the railway from the Cape in 1885, which spurred development to the east of the town and speeded up the flow of goods and people inland.

The diamond industry was always a gamble, since the value of stones depended on their scarcity, and over-production by a number of competing mines could threaten the market. By 1887, Cecil Rhodes and his de Beers Company had already emerged with monopoly control, but the so-called Amalgamation period of the mines coincided with a nationwide depression, loss of jobs and low morale. Also, the discovery of gold on the Orange River caused an exodus of the labour force, but Kimberley was on the map again when the International Exhibition of 1892 was attended by some 400,000 visitors.

By 1890, Kimberley had become a 'company town', with its local institutions almost as much under the control of de Beers as the mining of diamonds. In gracefully assuming the role of provincial capital, it achieved a high standard of cultural and social life for a frontier town, and the built environment is part of this legacy. After a devastating fire in 1898, it was decided to build a new Town Hall in a worthy location, namely Market Square. The local press asked for a substantial building, like those found in an English provincial town. A nation-wide competition was won by Constans-Rogers with a classical building in the Corinthian style. This building was restored in 1975. A fine painting by Ruscombe reminds one of the twenties, when the town made a lively sight with hardly a car in sight (Fig.2). Since this stately building dominated the earlier wood and iron mining towns, it later became a symbol and target for Boer artillery during the Siege of 1899.

Tourism and Pedestrian Values

Selected aspects of tourism and pedestrian values are now discussed. One may criticize the authorities for their part in the destruction of historic buildings, and then advocate stronger legal and zoning powers, but economic forces are such that few historic buildings are safe without legal safeguards or innovative mechanisms. McNally reminds us that market forces are short-term, but environmental concerns are long-range. Private developers, therefore, require guidelines in an attempt to harmonise the different time scales between conservation and development.

Tourism and conservation can enjoy a symbiotic relationship. For example, the conservation of heritage draws tourists and, in turn, the historic fabric can be put to new uses. At Basel in 1985, Johnson argued for the conservation of the fabric of towns, buildings and places which may not have great artistic merit, but which make an essential contribution to the sense of place, function and context. These qualities are important both to the local community and the tourist. For example, South Africa's traditional pioneer mines and home industries not only, provide a sense of tradition and improve the appearance of selected towns but also amount to built-in tourist assets. In the Eastern Transvaal, Pilgrims Rest and its conservation point the way for Kimberley.

We need not ashamed of the powerful part that sentiment and symbolism play in conservation. There are also shared cultural and group values, and the way in which 'streetcape' has evolved over time may reinforce important symbolic values. Sentimental values lie at the root of some of our finest community decisions. Many buildings are symbols of a particular era, and cannot be replaced by plastic replicas, but they can be demolished or neglected.

But just as this historic period of Reconstruction in South Africa, the lack of 'shared cultural values' and priorities could be counter-productive to conservation. Whereas British and Afrikaner cultural conflict dominated the end of the nineteenth century, the end of the twentieth century may see a Black-White conflict. It is well to remember that 80 per cent of the South African population have little or no interest in preserving imported White culture. Until recently it was associated with oppression!

If, however, quality of life is still important in the core of a town or city, then the conflict between man and motor constitutes an important sub-theme in any discussion about conservation. There are various types of damage caused by motor cars. For example, air pollution and acids which wet away materials or vibrations which weaken structures. "What about the physical and mental discomfort caused to human beings in their various social and economic activities? In fact, the writer was part of a team which helped the Kimberley Municipality to identify possible traffic-free zones in the city centre, with a view to both conservation and environmental quality."

A follow up study in March 1994 aimed to try to discover people's needs and preferences with regard to routes, public spaces and buildings. The study was also designed to be of use later to decision-makers in the
field of urban design and conservation. Five major findings of the survey might relate to conservation and tourism.

1. Touring movements of cars create danger for pedestrians at corners and crossings.
2. Pavements are often too narrow, and have walking surfaces or are cluttered.
3. There is a shortage of informal resting places, particularly for mothers, children and the elderly.
4. The informal use of pavement (vendors) and the minibuses are an integral part of the town centre in South Africa, and should be part of appropriate conservation.
5. There should be more use of ‘soft’ green areas and water features to form an essential contrast with the hard materials that tend to dominate.

Some isolated pedestrian areas have, however, been created. Full marks should be given to the Municipality and de Beers for recreating several pedestrian streets at the Open Mine Museum. En route to the museum one passes the colourful pub, “Star of the West”, not far away from its companion, the ‘Australian Arms’. Other historic streetscapes are to be found at the old de Beers Headquarters in St Andries Street, or the Kimberley Club. Just outside the town are the McGregor Museum and the War Memorial, designed by Sir Herbert Baker of Pretoria and New Delhi fame (Fig. 4). During the Siege of 1899, Cecil Rhodes lived in what is now the McGregor Museum with its splendid gardens and hall, which was known then as the Sanatorium Hotel in those days and which claimed to be “unsurpassed in South Africa for comfort, luxury and style.”

Morphology of the Town Centre

A brief description of the Kimberley core area is instructive (Fig. 3). The New Rush of 1871 produced a cross between a tent town and a squatters camp between the Big Hole and the Beer mines, which forms the present city core (Fig. 1). The streets of early Kimberley literally followed the tracks of the miners’ whereabouts in a form of ‘primitive functional development’ which had little resemblance to the surveyor’s orderly gridiron in other South African towns, like Bloemfontein.

Thus two main geological ‘holes’ have compressed the core of Kimberley in a north-south direction, rather than a dispersed fashion, to give a triangular portion of land between Lennox, Beaufort, Buea and Jan Smuts is, and by definition, artificial and socio-political. It distorts the ‘natural’ morphology of the southern portion of the Kimberley core. Indeed, the Botta era of ‘total landscape’ seemed to present no dilemmas for developers.

Market Square

From the dawn of history, the town square has performed a variety of functions, e.g., church square, market, parade, park or traffic island. In this century, however, the traffic function has dominated all others and tended to subordinate humans to the machine. Quite apart from many functions, town squares also have intangible values, such as public property, point of reference or ‘model open space’. Writers, like in Lynch and Edmund Bacon, emphasize qualities like legibility or symbolism. In terms of Kimberley, I wish to emphasize the word combination “public possession and meeting place”. Thus town squares are not simply a couple of vacant blocks ‘left over’, they also possess important intangible values, like symbolism and sentiment. One of the problems is that “market forces” do not easily accommodate intangible values. In the case of Market Square, one would expect it to still function as the symbolic heart of Kimberley, with the many tangible and intangible values which it incorporates. At the cross of the two major axes, the Old Main and Tramvail Roads, it successfully combines the functions of market place and forum of the people. Its location, half way between the station and Big Hole, makes it both a point of reference and part of the greater civic landscape of the Northern Cape. In 1884, a unique blow was struck for conservation when the historic tram route was restored by the municipality to connect the square to the Big Hole and Mine Museum. While Market Square may contain some poorly classical building was demolished (Fig. 5). Both are examples of insensitive and remote government decisions, to which the ‘masters’ of Pretoria (first) and later the municipality persuaded an ‘obedient’ municipality (third tier) to extend the normal bulk and height requirements. While one can understand the ‘ethos’ dilemma of the architects involved, all parties must guard against such urban renewal/land use policies in future, no matter what the economic temptation. In its latest ‘wise’ decision, the municipality has hired out the northern wing of the old Town Hall to a furniture store! Clearly a coherent Urban Design policy is required in Kimberley. ‘Block models of sensitive environments should be built, and all new projects evaluated, so that they fit into a four-dimensional framework.

Conclusions

A number of dilemmas relating to development and conservation exist. These include the following:

1. Public streets and town squares often have no spokesperson or ‘guardian angel’ and become a football between the authorities and developers.
2. Some decision-makers ignore the needs of the broad public and are insensitive to symbolism and values. New developments may become anti-social or downtrodden facades.
3. The authorities, developers and professors often have conflicts of interest and do not understand the public interest. Ethical behaviour should be more important than private gain.

During the present period of reconstruction, South Africa faces daunting challenges in respect of housing, health, education and welfare, and in this difficult situation any larger scale state priority for conservation at this stage. In view of Kimberley’s unique history and wealth of old buildings, it may get more support from the authorities than other centres, and private sector involvement and tourism could be other factors.
INVESTIGATING BRITISH POST-WAR PLANNING

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Introduction

Media reminders that 1995 is the 50th anniversary of the end of the Second World War have been impossible to miss. It is, of course, that planning histories is the important immediate post-war period of planning and reconstruction although this might seem relatively recent history, it was a time when the character and appearance of many UK towns underwent immense change. Histories should be considering that the availability of a key data source for understanding the complexity of this period, the individual actors closely involved, is in a terminal decline as individuals age and die.

This paper comments on some investigations into British post-war planning, and the changing face of British cities, with particular reference to research work on Worcester. This discussion of sources, techniques and approaches is a development of an earlier paper in this journal.

The planning context

The widespread bomb damage during the Second World War provided a major impetus for changing ideas and practices in U.K. planning. The consideration given to post-war reconstruction, even in times when the course of the war was extremely uncertain, in BBC radio talks, in publications such as the Town and Country Planning Association’s Rebuilding Britain series, the Planning and Reconstruction Year Book and in exhibitions organised by the Royal Institute of British Architects led to a consensus that drastic change would be inevitable, particularly in the bomb-damaged areas. Other publications, aimed at the general public, explicitly developed these arguments from their concentration upon wartime damage to the virtually undisfigured urban areas. Central government was investigating mechanisms of planning. As early as October 1941, Lord Reith’s short-lived Consultative Panel on Physical Reconstruction had virtually completed a draft manual for local authorities on the technique of redevelopment in central urban areas.

By 1945, there was some acceptance that central urban reconstruction should be large-scale, comprehensive, and be facilitated by site acquisition through compulsory purchase powers. Lewis Silkin, the post-war Minister of Town and Country Planning, was reported in the press as being anxious that rapid progress be made in replanning the bomb-damaged cities, but he was also concerned that authorities were not applying for the compulsory purchase orders necessary under the 1944 Town and Country Planning Act. It was in this immediate post-war period that many comprehensive planning documents were produced, often (but not in every case) for the rebuilding of bomb-damaged areas. Little-damaged, but historic, cities, including Salisbury and Worcester, were also active in producing such documents. In the majority of cases, however, these plans were not carried out in full, despite their status as officially commissioned documents, usually produced by eminent contemporary planners. For example, Thomas Sharp (President of the Town Planning Institute in 1945) was very active, producing plans for, amongst others, Exeter, Oxford, Salisbury, Durham and Todmorden, the fate of his plans for Oxford is instructive.5 The majority of such plans were comprehensive in nature and extent, proposing radical and large-scale reshaping of urban central areas. Yet few authorities applied for the compulsory purchase powers necessary to carry out such schemes, and, in even these authorities, progress was far from smooth.6

An understanding of the national and local planning context is clearly necessary before attempting to unravel the details of local decision-making. Haselgrove’s study of three cities is instructive, making extensive use of unpublished material in the Public Records Office for establishing the national context, and local newspapers and local authority committee files and minutes for local context.7 This material is, however, complex, and locally may be incomplete, or spread among a proliferation of new post-war committees.

Planning policies

Information on the creation and development of planning policies should be relatively straightforward to elicit from any planning authority. Not only should the policy documents themselves be available, but memoranda and minutes of the relevant committees should be available. All can be subject to content analysis to display the chronological development of particular policies.

In practice, however, many of these documents may not be available. Even published documents from the early post-war period may not survive within the authority, although the local or county archives may contain copies. Similarly, minutes, committee papers etc., from the pre-1974 period seem particularly vulnerable, especially when the authority has moved to new offices, or where they have been stored for many years in damp and unsuitable basements. In searching for documentation it should be remembered, however, that much local authority policy has been shown to be non-statutory, informal, and even unsystematic, and thus elusive. Even more difficult to check are the policies underlying decision-making. Analysis based solely on formal planning documentation are therefore unsatisfactory, and require support from a variety of other evidence, both documentary and oral, obtained from those active in the planning decision-making process.

Voldman stated that “Many of those who participated in the rebuilding of towns destroyed during the Second World War are still alive today and quite willing to satisfy historians’ curiosity.”11 Her research is in a decade old; survivors are becoming more scarce, although it is still possible to identify, and sometimes (but increasingly rarely) to trace and interview, planning officers active early in the study period. As with all oral history, however, their recollections are variable in quantity and accuracy, and do require cross-checking with other data sources. It is more usual to interview long-serving planning officers whose early service overlapped with those who were key players in the early post-war period, and who can produce second-hand information. With increasing distance from the source, this becomes increasingly anecdotal, but may still have some value.

Much more information is usually available on the changing physical form of the post-war town from planning application files. This source has been the subject of much recent study for a variety of settlements over periods of several decades.12 13 If the files are retained complete, either in original form or microfiche, much can be recovered from the formal operation of the development control system from application forms, decision notices, plans and elevations, internal memoranda etc. Ready identification of many of the agents active in the process may allow follow-up interviews and cross-checking with other sources, including local newspapers. Parker’s study of office development in Brussels is an excellent example of such painstaking work.

Using such data, a virtually complete picture of development, and the actors involved and forces shaping it, could be built up for any area in the post-1947 period. Early planning files are very thin, but more and more information accumulates in the files of more recent decades. With this complex picture to hand, it is relatively simple to arrive at a good overview of recent planning history. Nevertheless, some aspects may demand deeper study, one of which involves the design influences at work.

Architects and designs

Identifying the architects for any development is not a straightforward process. No official form involved in the development control process requires the architect’s name. Close inspection of the manuscript drawings, where they survive, may often allow identification. In a number of cases, the drawer of the plan is not an architect. Indeed, it has been estimated that some 90% of plans submitted - albeit for relatively minor changes -...
have not involved an architect. Those describing themselves as ‘architects’ must, in law, have architectural qualifications (Architects Registration Act).

But not all qualified architects are members of the Royal Institute of British Architects (RIBA), and the proportion of members appears to fall throughout the post-war period.

Should an architect be identified, then the researcher may attempt to find out more about the individual or practice, in order to ascertain any professional linkages or, perhaps, educational influences which may have affected the style used. Several studies, for example Northampton’s work on Northampton and Watford, have searched for obituaries of architects, from which useful information has been recovered. For the smaller, local, architectural files of local newspapers can be most useful. For larger or more influential architects and practices, the Avery Ornithological Index of Architects may assist, as it contains over 17,000 entries (albeit with worldwide coverage and also including art historians, city planners and others). Past issues of publications of professional bodies may also be of use. The RIBA publish an annual Directory of Members currently containing some 20,000 entries, together with an irregularly-issued Directory of Practices, which may allow researchers to trace the rise and fall of practices, or the movement of individuals from one to another. 8

The RIBA is also involved in constructing an on-line database of RIBA membership nomination papers giving names, addresses, date of election, description of professional education, and list of buildings designed; but this is limited in chronological coverage. However, as has been suggested, not every architect can be found in these sources.

The implication of the elusive nature of architects, identities, and information about them even when identified, is that researchers are forced to draw inferences on the influences affecting their creative work, and therefore on their influence and impact upon the built environment. To do so with any degree of usefulness requires a sound knowledge of recent architectural history and influences within the region being studied and, increasingly, awareness of Metropolitan, national and even international influences. Even when identified, traced and interviewed, architects active in the post-war timeframe of recent research have proved extremely reluctant to discuss stylistic influences on their own work or the categorisation of their buildings into particular stylistic types. Style, period, date and authorship - the endless existing obsession with them that enters into so much that is written about architecture is not lacking consequence.21 Such processes, obviously of interest to researchers of built form, are apparently felt to demean the architects’ individual creativity.

The developer

Little is often known of the developer in the process. Obviously this is a key player, yet identities of companies may change through the history of any one site; shell or holding companies may be involved; and in some cases clients’ identities are protected. Commercial confidentiality obstructs much academic research. Company records may be inspected at Companies House (as more recent events and at a cost, through on-line databases). Yet such records are generally obscure to the non-specialist and tell little of the motives for involvement in any particular site or development. Regrettably, since the developer is often the key instigator of the process, motives and activities remain obscure and, once again, the researcher has to depend upon informed speculation. This is as true of the 1960s as of the 1940s.

The Worcestershire example

Worcester began early preparations for post-war redevelopment. In 1943 the City’s Reconstruction and Development Committee commissioned the Commerce Department at Birmingham University to undertake a major economic and social survey of the district, which was published in 1944.22 The report’s terms of reference allowed the authors to suggest ‘... some possible lines of development and to recommend, where appropriate, those that appear to constitute best to the future of the City’. It was stressed that these were not official proposals. All suggested buildings and plan layouts were Modern in style (Figure 1). Only 24 buildings and parts of streets were noted as worthy of preservation. In 1944, the Reconstruction and Development Committee commissioned the planning and architectural consultants, Minoprio and Spencely, to prepare an Outline Development Plan based largely on the findings of the Civic Survey. The Plan was published two years later. It had much similarities with many of the contemporary ‘master plans’ for the post-war rebuilding of historic cities already mentioned, particularly in its emphasis on new road construction and widening, land-use zoning, and construction of new civic buildings. 23 New road alignments were planned; the majority of the remaining medieval alignments were to be widened, new buildings constructed and the entire river frontage cleared of its shops and industry. The river front area was to be redeveloped for substantial public buildings and open space. Few of the older street-blocks and buildings would remain unaltered (Figure 21.4a).

Common with many such redevelopment proposals, including those for the cities suffering significant wartime bomb damage, there is little evident concern in the plans for the retention of any older fabric other than a few key landmarks - the Guildhall and some churches. This is clearly an idealistic view of post-war redevelopment, where lip-service is only paid to issues of context, heritage and conservation. This ‘master plan’ was not implemented to any great extent. In many ways it was overtaken by the 1947 Town and Country Planning Act, the evident problems of compulsory purchase (as seen in other bomb-damaged cities) and the practical problems of the rationing of construction materials which continued into the mid-1940s. It was, however, influential in shaping subsequent plans that were, more or less, adhered to; although the statutory Development Plan of 1954 and its revision of 1963 were essentially zoning plans with major road projects, essentially diminishing the Minoprio and Spencely proposals. 24 Few of the proposed new roads were built, although the City’s ring road was built in part during the 1960s, and some public buildings were constructed in the cleared waterfront area. But the implementations were very different in form from those envisaged in 1946.

Offices of Worcester City Council today see the uncertainty in the implementation of plans since the war as a legacy, having half-completed schemes such as the Blackfriars Shopping Centre (now substantially refurbished as the Crooked House centre) car park which bridged a road which was never built, and unsightly staggered building frontages, a result of non-co-ordinate building lines. 25 Had the plans been completed in full, some of these problems may never have occurred. The
modern architectural projects, it mandated some proposals to appear more Modern, and some to be more vernacular or Georgian. The reason for this apparent inconsistency is not easy to discern, because in no one case was such a change the result of a formal decision, and thus virtually no documentary evidence of the attitudes of the planning authority exist in these cases. Even the minutes of planning committee meetings are inconclusive as to the motives underlying such changes to proposals. However, some clues which at least partially address this problem can be found. The reticent attitudes towards modernism on the part of the planning officers is usually, although there are many exceptions, found when one or more of the following circumstances are given: a greater reluctance to see Modern styles used for buildings between others than for isolated buildings or corner sites; similarity for the frontage of small plots rather than for large ones; more for plots previously occupied by Georgian buildings - even when dealing with buildings of relatively little architectural value - than with others; and, finally, more in the principal commercial streets than in those considered to be of secondary importance.

It should, however, be noted that discussions with planning officers suggest that this pro-Georgian emphasis may be traced to a small number of key personnel at the time, who were able to exercise considerable influence over the form of the changing urban landscape. Nevertheless, the significance of the planning authority in influencing the metamorphosis of development proposals from Modernist styles to ones with clear Georgian/Classical references was significant.

Concluding comments
It is easy to be complacent about such relatively modern history, and to underestimate the difficulties of its study. Although, in many cases, considerable documentation does exist, it is usually by no means comprehensive. Even the development control system records only proposals which reach the stage of formal application. The officers then responsible for planning development and attitude to planning officers are not, in short, what we can recover when studying the planning history of the post-war town is very much a partial history. We rely to a surprising extent upon the educated guesses based on incomplete data, hearsay, and, most importantly, experience of comparative study. These studies will become even more difficult as one data source, the people involved, dies.

Nevertheless, the post-war town is a fascinating place, with planning histories redolent of aspirations, high ideals and utopias, but sometimes low on practicality; and urban landscapes which reflect the working out, to a greater or lesser extent, of these factors. While the dynamics of such change can be reconstructed with some credibility, the further study of this period should be encouraged. There are lessons to be learned, too, for the future planning of the same places.

This important book not only traces the critical role cities have played in the development of the West since World War II, but also argues that these cities also present the three mystic images of the West as an area of democracy, opportunity and individual fulfillment. In addition, the author explains why these cities have become national space-sitters and expressions of new urban trends. (Michael Konig, Westfield State College, Massachusetts.)


This book is a comprehensive account of the way attitudes to the countryside are embodied in a long history of Anglo-American writing and change. It exemplifies its main theme of the Americanisation of Anglo-American rural images. Much of it is illustrated with a rich selection of landscape photographs, including the English ideal as a kind of place lost in the mind of the North American imagination. The book is richly and accessibly illustrated.

Marion Brins, Women in the Historical City of New York: Landscape, Routledge, 1994, 28pp., ISBN 0 415 00894 4, Cloth £45.00. This is a scholarly study of the history of women in the professional planning management in Britain. The book covers the years from Octavia Hill’s death in 1912 through the Society of Women Housing Estate Managers 1932-48 and their amalgamation with the Institute of Housing in 1965. It shows clearly the high prices their members paid for opening up the profession to women. The new organisation was soon dominated by men, even though the women’s organisation had provided better training and involved deeper social philosophy.


This book provides an insightful and accurate account of both public and private land use planning in Columbus, Ohio from 1800 to 1960. It convincingly argues that the private sector determined the pattern of development in Columbus with public decision makers merely acquiescing to the desires of property owners. (Ben C. Teaford, Purdue University, Indiana.)

Donatelli Calabi, II Mercato e la Città, Venice: Marsilio, 1993, 273pp., ISBN 8 8175 5035 9, 400.00 lire.

This book, written in Italian, explores the role and importance of markets in the life of small European cities from the fifteenth to the seventeenth centuries. The book is divided into two parts: the first focusing on the markets in the context of the city, and the second focusing on specific market buildings. A rich variety of cities are used to exemplify the study, including Venice, Florence, Paris, London, Antwerp, Amsterdam, Nuremberg, Leubeck, Augsburg, Seville and others. There are many illustrations.


This book explores the geography of the information revolution, economic development where the principal ingredient is knowledge rather than capital or repetitive labour. It mainly takes the form of descriptive analyses of science cities, science parks, technoparks and the like in the USA, Japan, Korea, France, the former USSR, Australia and Spain. Some attention is also given to the traditional metropolises as an innovative milieu, focusing on London, Paris and Munich. The book draws general lessons about economic development for the twenty-first century.


This is a richly illustrated account of the way in which access to water structured the development of the ancient Greek city. The account is very detailed, with much original use of data. Water management is viewed as a fully integrated system, giving attention to supply, delivery and disposal. The book gives many insights into the layout and functioning of the ancient city.


This is an extensively revised, new edition of a standard British textbook. It has an entirely new chapter on heritage planning (the chapter on regional planning in previous editions has now been deleted). It continues to contain much insightful and informed material and comment about the development and recent changes in the British planning system.


This book applies the new institutionalism in its analysis of San Francisco’s political history. As a result, it rejects efforts to explain the city’s storied political experience as a function of class or ethnic conflicts or business or professional interests. Rather, it argues that ‘the social-governance’ of cities’ was itself a product of Gilded Age political competition and debate. (Alan Levitt, Texas A & M University.)


This book, written in English, is a very full examination of the development of Dutch planning in this century. It pursues several themes, including planning theory, the planning system, planning methodology and theס sociohistory of Dutch planning. Its message is a broad, cross-cultural view that Dutch planning ought to continue on generally accepted lines. It is supported by a very full bibliography of works on Dutch planning written in English.


This book focuses on buildings for public use (administration, commercial, office, hotel, school, etc.), with the exception of churches. It is an introduction to the history of such buildings, approaching the subject from a fresh perspective. The book is especially valuable because the author not only offers an analysis of the buildings, but also contributes to the understanding of the thinking of the people who financed their construction.


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This volume is the first of a project which will analyse the formation, development and current configuration of more than one hundred European cities, using a series of historical maps, graphs, photographs, explanatory texts and thematic maps, specially prepared for this series. Bringing together a number of specialists to provide a wide-ranging and comparative approach, the Atlas aims to combine research and educational objectives. Each volume provides coverage of eleven cities in the Iberian Peninsula. It is only available in Spanish at the moment.


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John W. Reps. Cities of the Mississippi. Nineteenth Century Images of Urban Development, Columbia and London: University of Missouri Press, 1994. 342 pp., ISBN 0-826-06090-4 Cloth $55.00. Professor Reps has produced a handsome and informative volume on Mississippi River towns and cities. He provides a number of drawings and lithographs and explains how they were used in the nineteenth century. The artist and printers provided their pictures for commercial interests, such as boosters and railroads, while others painted for the local audience. These pictures were another way to encourage settlement in the West, and provide scholars with an important tool in understanding that process. (Christopher Morris, University of Texas at Arlington.)

James Simmie (ed.). Planning London. London: UCL Press Ltd, 1994. 192 pp., ISBN 1 85728 1 0 0. Cloth £35.00. ISBN 1 85728 058 X. Paper £11.95. Intended as a textbook for students in planning, geography and urban studies, Planning London provides both an introduction to the problems and practices of planning in general and an illustration of them using the London region in particular. London — a "world city" — is in a mess: decrepit public transport, congestion, noise, dirt, crime, poverty, begging, homelessness are the issues addressed in this volume of essays by staff at the Bartlett School of Planning at University College London. The book provides the historical background to these current problems and considers jobs, housing, transport and the quality of the environment and the relationship between these different factors. The book also includes an assessment of conflicting interest groups, the effects of changes in planning practice and London's position in the global and regional economies. A conclusion by Peter Hall reviews the past and weighs up the outlook for the future. (Michael Harrison, University of Central England.)

J. Taylor, J. G. Lengelle and C. Andrew. Capital Cities/Les Capitales: International Perspectives, Ottawa: Carleton University Press, 1994. ISBN 0 8862 9178 X. Cloth £39.95. ISBN 0 8862 9179 9. Paper £19.95. These are the proceedings of a conference held in Ottawa in 1990 on the theme of capital cities. There are about twenty papers, one-third of which are in French. There are many different disciplinary and thematic approaches in the book, including much that is of great interest. There is, however, no single message to emerge. J.A. Yelling. Slums and Redevelopment: Policy and Practice in England, 1918-1945, with particular reference to London. London: UCL Press, 1994. 224 pp., ISBN 1 85728 010 5. Cloth £35.00. Based on intensive documentary research, this is the first full-scale study of the politics of the slum question in England between the two world wars. The inter-war period has two major points of interest. It sees the restoration of slum clearance after a period of opposition and the onset of the first national slum clearance campaign. It reaches its climax in the plans for large-scale redevelopment made during World War II. The book moves between national policy formulation and detailed local studies, particularly of London, studies involving landlords and property, tenants and rebuilding, and the implementation of programmes. It is a study of practice as well as policy.

The prime aim of Planning History is to increase awareness of developments and ideas in planning history in all parts of the world. In pursuit of this, contributions (in English) are invited from members and non-members alike for any section of Planning History. Non-native English speakers, please do not worry if your English is not perfect. The editor will be happy to help improve its readability and comprehension, but unfortunately cannot undertake translations. The text for PH is prepared by using MacWrite II and the journal is designed in PageMaker v.4.2. Contributions on disk compatible with this software are encouraged along with accompanying hard copy.

ARTICLES

These should be in the range of 2,000-3,000 words. They may be on any topic within the general remit of IPHS and may well reflect work in progress. Illustrations should be supplied as Xerox copies for line drawings or as good quality black and white photographs where there are half tones. Articles should normally be referenced with superscript numbers and a full reference list at the end.

OTHER CONTRIBUTIONS

Other types of contribution are also very welcome. Research reports should not be more than 2,000 words. They need not be referenced, but any relevant publications should be listed at the end. Illustrations where provided should conform to the above notes. Similar short pieces on important source materials, aspects of planning history practice (e.g. conservation) are also encouraged. Abstracts of relevant publications originally published in a language other than English are requested. They should follow the format in this issue.
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• provides services for members: publishing a journal, promoting conferences, and providing an international framework for informal individual member contact.

• invites national organisations, whose work is relevant to IPHS, to affiliate status.

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The Society was inaugurated in January 1993 as a successor body to the Planning History Society, founded in 1974. Its membership is drawn from several disciplines: planning, architecture, economic and social history, geography, sociology, politics and related fields. Membership is open to all who have a working interest in planning history. The Society for American City and Regional Planning History (SACRPH) and the Urban History Association (UHA) are American affiliates of IPHS.

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