Embracing change

26th National Conference of the Royal Australian Planning Institute, Brisbane, 6-9 July 1998

The conference focuses on the theme of 'Embracing change'. Change is an ever-present challenge for the planning profession, for policy makers, for researchers, and for the wider community. The rate of change is now more dramatic than ever. While history provides us with a framework for understanding the forces of change, we need to look positively to the future to be able to understand and embrace it. Change itself, it will continue: the question is how we can make the best of it.

The conference theme aims to challenge delegates to consider the ways in which the world is changing, how these changes will affect the shape and functioning of urban and regional settlements, and what the policy implications are for those who shape and make urban policy. The conference will have a number of national and international keynote speakers to set the scene. It will be divided into four main streams: economic change, technological advancement, social / political / cultural changes, and the state of the environment. There will be a special focus on the evolution of planning ideas.

Further information from: Dr Robert Freestone, IPHS Conference Convener, Faculty of the Built Environment, University of New South Wales, Sydney NSW 2052, Australia.

Tel: +61-2-9385-4836
Fax: +61-2-9385-6264
E-mail: iphs98@unsw.edu.au

Australian and New Zealand Schools of Planning Annual Conference

Held during the weekend before the Royal Australian Planning Institute conference, and also in Brisbane, there will be a number of discussions and events of interest to planning educators.

For further information contact one of the following: Jeremy Dawkins (jeremy.dawkins@uts.edu.au), Geoff McDonald (g.mcdonald@zoo.ox.ac.uk), Lex Brown (lex.brown@eng.gu.ac.uk) or John Minnery (j.minnery@uq.edu.au).

Exhibition of the 1914 Design Competition for the University of Western Australia

Being organised at UWA, September 1998

The organisers of this exhibition, Christopher Vernon, writes:

I am organising an exhibition for the University of Western Australia's Lawrence Wilson Art Gallery on the 1914 design competition for Laying Out the University Grounds and Gardens, including the Disposition of the Buildings of the University of Western Australia (Crawley Campus').

The exhibition aims to display and interpret as many of the original designs as possible, situating them within the context of contemporary national and international ideas on town planning (eg the Canberra competition held only two years previously), university planning (eg the 1900 competition for the University of California at Berkeley, and Stanford University as a popular campus design exemplar), and landscape architecture. The exhibition will conclude with a discussion of the dialogue between Leslie Wilkinson's 1927 campus plan and the ideas developed from the original 1914 competition.

Unable to secure the services of the English landscape architect Thomas Mawson, the University announced the competition on 14 December 1914 and the deadline for submissions was 31 May 1915. Winners were announced on 24 July 1915. Twenty-six entries were received, and three prizes awarded:

1st place: H. Desbrowne-Anneur, Architect, Melbourne
2nd place: H.W. Hargrave, Civil Engineer, Perth
Honourable Mention: J. Chol & Sons, Landscape Gardeners, Crawley, England

Other known entrants included G. Sidney Jones, Architect, Sydney; J. Barr, Architect, Sydney; and Walter Burley Griffin, Landscape Architect and Designer, Canberra.

Unfortunately, the competition entries were returned to their authors at the close of the competition. At this stage, we have located plans for the submissions by Anneur, Hargrave and Griffin. We have been unable to locate a register of entrants.

Consequently, I am seeking your help in ascertaining the identities of the remaining 20 competitors and, ideally, images of their submissions.

We suspect that there would have been more participants from each of the state capitals, especially Sydney and Melbourne. Local professional institutes were the likely conduit of information on the competition. It is also likely that participants would have included surveyors and civil engineers.

Given that the 'Honourable mention' was the English entry, we would think that there may have been more international participants (particularly from within the Commonwealth). On a related note, like the Canberra competition, competition as to assessment of the submissions was made to, and commented upon, by the Royal Institute of British Architects.

I would very much like to hear from anyone who has encountered mention of the competition in their research. Volunteers are also sought to consult the professional and trade journals (or perhaps even newspapers) for mention of the competition and its results. Any assistance would be greatly appreciated and acknowledged in the published exhibition catalogue.

Christopher Vernon, School of Architecture and Fine Arts, University of Western Australia, Nedlands, Perth, WA 6007, Australia. Tel: +61 8 9380 1565; FAX: +61 8 9380 1092

European networks and their reflection in architecture and urban planning

Proposed session for the International Conference on Urban History: "The European city: places and institutions", Venice, September 5-8, 1998

Details of the Venice conference were given in the last issue. Carola Hein, now a visiting researcher at Kogakuen University, Tokyo, is proposing a thematic session and invites potential contributions. She writes:

European cities can be distinguished from other cities worldwide. They possess a particular identity, which is largely due to the numerous layers of history which have been transcribed into characteristic townscapes, buildings and urban patterns. The translation of power into architectural form is in itself a particularity of Europe. But, what is more, similar forms tie places together; place which have a common history but which do not necessarily belong to the same nation, as the exchange of planning and design concepts often took place independent of national borders. It followed economic and trading lines, religious or cultural connections; and has contributed to the creation of cross-border European networks for many centuries. Their growth and crisis can still be seen in the particular character and culture of each city.
Exchange between cities and regions has been reflected in similar urban or architectural concepts and styles, as well as building techniques. Thus a group of cities, like the Hanse, with common economic interests, also displays similar architectural concepts. Religious groups also transmitted building styles and craftsmanship throughout Europe. Compared to these economic or spiritual networks, others are connected through similar interests in representation or symbolic concepts: thus, capital city layouts such as Rome or Paris were inspired by other large cities or 'would-be' centres striving to have a 'capital' appearance. Even the spread of building types and styles or construction techniques can reflect privileged relationships or similar interests. Thus the history of the office building type and the tower from London via Hamburg to the continent is an example of the first, while the imitation of Florentine façades in Hamburg office buildings is an example of the second. Networking is not, however, limited to Europe's past. A recent example inspired by common interests in the European cities which share their knowledge on urban transport or municipal administration, seeking to oppose the monopolies through collaboration.

This session proposes to explore cross-border networks across Europe through the architectural and urban forms they have generated. Topics from different epochs and fields are welcome; however, they will all focus on the existence of architectural and urban planning networks and their contribution to the creation of a European identity. Papers should discuss the particular architectural and urban forms, their backgrounds and aims, modes of transmission, main actors, and a conclusion on what happened in practice to these networks and their remaining structures. The session will close with a discussion on whether such cross-border networks are still relevant for the future, and whether they are still capable of generating architectural and urban forms which can contribute to the creation or reinforcement of a European identity.

Further details from Carla Heiß, Department of Architecture, Kogeborg University, Jeison 1-2-17-201, Suginami-Ku, Tokyo 168, Japan. Tel and Fax: 81/3/3253 5996. E-mail: spk@kogeborg.ac.jp

Website review
Planning history and urban history: CAD research Website of Elwin A. Koster, http://www.let.rug.nl/~ekoster
Elwin Koster's website presents results of ongoing research in planning history and urban form carried out at the Department of Art and Architectural History, University of Groningen, The Netherlands. Groningen itself is used as a case study in the use of GIS technology and image processing in exploring urban form and planning. This uses the process of 'registration' - scaling and rotation of images of historic and modern maps until both coordinates coincide.

Data from archival sources can also be added: in this case information from some 20,000 property deeds (1606-1800) allow for additional analysis of issues such as employment, family income.

Elwin will describe some of this research in the next issue of Planning History. The Department of Art and Art History is also running a short course in the use of GIS and image processing in the study of urban form: this should take place in October 1998. For further information see the Department's website: http://www.let.rug.nl/aaahist/archive/

Urban History Association Prize Competition
The Urban History Association is conducting its ninth annual round of prize competitions for scholarly distinction. It is seeking nominations for:

1. Best doctoral dissertation in urban history, without geographic restriction, completed during 1997

The prize for Best Book in Non-North American urban history published during 1997 will be conducted during 1999.

To obtain further information about procedures for submissions, please write to Professor Dorothy M. Schulz, Department of Law, John Jay College, CUNY, 899 10th Avenue, Room 422T, New York, NY 10019, United States. Do not send any submissions to Professor Schulz.

Previous UHA prizes
The prize for Best doctoral dissertation, completed in 1990, was awarded to Evan S. Diamond: A sacred subculture: the North American Indian Jewish community, 1550-1985 (Carnegie Mellon University). Or Diamond is senior research associate at the POLIS Center of Indiana University - Purdue University, Indianapolis.

The prize for the "best scholarly journal article... published in 1996" was awarded to Lizabeth Cohen, "From town center to shopping center: the reconfiguration of community marketplaces in postwar America", American Historical Review, Vol. 101, pp. 1050-1081. Lizabeth Cohen is professor of history at Harvard University.


The Urban History Association's Urban History Newsletter (No. 10, October 1997) had an article on "Make no small plans", the production of The encyclopedia of Chicago history", by Carla Summerfield, Managing Editor of the Encyclopedia. The Newberry Library, in cooperation with the Chicago Historical Society, has undertaken an ambitious project to develop print and electronic versions of an Encyclopedia of Chicago History. Summerfield tells an interesting story of the technical problems faced by an editor (and the scholars, and public(s)) in a project so large. This encyclopedia will have approximately 1,600 entries - although only 40,000 words (36 pages) can be dedicated to the entire history of Chicago architecture! Donald's "what is it?" to Chicago became the editors' first objective for moving forward on the encyclopedia. She concludes that the "difficult part comes at the end: every entry must be finalize... every reference across one million words must be verified (you don't refer to entries that aren't there); every one of the 2,000 bibliographic references must be standardized. And in the end, you have a book that doesn't tell the complete history of Chicago. At its best, though, it tells a story that isn't rote or familiar, uses voices that aren't often heard, presents images that most people don't get to see, and..."
The College asks for assistance in locating good students who might be interested at this opportunity for support of their doctoral studies. The College houses the Journal of Planning Education and Research and has funded research grants and contracts in excess of $5 million per year. The productivity and diversity of the staff, who have higher degrees in anthropology, city and regional planning, civil engineering, urban history, landscape architecture, political science, social policy and urban geography, allows students to pursue a variety of research interests. The University of New Orleans is a Carnegie Doc II institution and the urban university of the Louisiana State University system. Currently some 15,000 students are enrolled, including 3,500 in graduate programs. Although their doctoral program is relatively new, 10 PhDs have graduated and 50 doctoral students are in residence. Graduates have taken positions with academic institutions, government agencies and the private sector.

Please contact:
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A college within a city: the history of New Orleans

The College of Public Affairs at the University of New Orleans has received funding for a four-year fellowship for pursuit of the PhD in Urban Studies, with majors available in city planning, urban history and urban affairs. The College offers a monthly stipend of $1,000, renewable for up to four years.

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**Introduction**

Medieval town plans which show signs of geometrical regularity in their layout have long attracted the attention of scholars who have largely seen this as evidence for 'town planning'. What is often not discussed are the reasons why geometrical designs were used in the layouts of towns during the Middle Ages. Surely, the use of geometry in town planning and design relates to wider changes in culture and thinking. Although this issue has been explored in studies of later medieval town-planning, little has been done to decipher the geometries of towns whose plans were laid out before c. 1250. This paper argues that the use of geometrical principles in town design became more popular and sophisticated in Europe during the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, and that this change was associated with revived Classical traditions in mathematics and geometry. By analysing the designs of selected medieval towns, and comparing these with towns studied by other scholars, I suggest how geometrical forms of towns were increasingly used by aristocratic elites to further colonise interior and frontier lands during the High Middle Ages.

Geometrical plan-forms are characterised by strictly rectilinear and symmetrical arrangements of streets and plots. In Britain, Ludlow (Shropshire) has one of the most well-studied examples of this form of town design. The area comprising Broad Street and Mill Street, shown as plan-unit (V) on Fig. 1, has a striking geometrical form which contrasts markedly with the patterns of surrounding streets and plots. Two main streets of broadly the same width run parallel to each other; mid-way between them is a third, narrower street, which intersects with a cross-street to form four rectangular street-blocks. Both Broad Street and Mill Street are fronted by regular-sized plots, and the whole area seems to have been planned to slot into Ludlow's townscape, as if to maximise the number of properties within a piece of land left over from earlier stages of the town's development (plan-units I to IV). In common with other such phases of planning, there is no record of the date at which this part of Ludlow was laid out, and various dates have been suggested by previous writers who have been fascinated by Ludlow's plan. One likely context is the period following Walter de Lacy's successful attempt to regain his castle during the civil war of Stephen's reign (1136-53), when houses in the town were destroyed in Walter's siege. Indeed, the area of plan-unit (V) was probably a piece of post-war reconstruction, laid out in the 1160s or 1170s. Elsewhere in England at this time, other town plans were being extended in similar ways. At Coventry (Warwickshire), for instance, two parallel streets were laid out in the Earl of Chester's park shortly after the end of Stephen's reign, and between them spacious and regular plots were arranged.
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Town design and urban planning

At both Ludlow and Coventry, the two planned extensions had geometrical designs, and shared common morphological characteristics and temporal contexts. However, in these and other examples of high-medieval town planning, the motives behind the designs are not recorded by contemporary sources. This means that the main source of information about the origin and purpose of medieval plan forms has to be the town designs themselves. One approach to this is to compare the morphologies of towns which were established de novo. In recent work on medieval urban forms in central-southern England, the layouts of five late-twelfth-century new towns were compared using detailed plan-analyses. Three of these towns, Lymington, Newport and Yarmouth, were founded within thirty years of each other by a single aristocratic family, the de Redvers, on lands along the Solent estuary. All three towns have plans that display some element of rectilinear and symmetry, but, despite having shared parentage, and similar spatial and temporal contexts, no two designs were the same. Instead of using a blueprint to plan their new towns, the de Redvers appear to have simply replicated certain design motifs. These motifs include the use of parallel streets, standard street widths, centralised market places, and uniform plot patterns. The result of this is an urban landscape that looks formalised, controlled and regulated. In this context it is not difficult to see why such principles were being replicated in new-town designs across twelfth- and thirteenth-century Europe.

Regular town-plans offered certain benefits to town founders and urban lords. One advantage of laying out regulated urban spaces was that it facilitated economic and social regulation of townspeople and town-life. At about the same time as the de Redvers were founding their new towns along the Solent, another Norman lord, Jean de Gisors, was laying out his new ville of Portsmouth (c. 1180). For this purpose, de Gisors used dimensions based on standard, statute measures. In his new town, axial streets were arranged in parallel and the plots between streets laid out to certain sizes. This precision approach to town design must have been used to help standardise and regulate urban property. Certainly, Jean de Gisors was not alone in using statute measurements and symmetrical designs, as the same approach was employed in late-twelfth-century episcopal town-planning ventures in the English Midlands, for example at Stratford-upon-Avon and Lichfield. Adopting regular town-designs these urban lords, both secular and ecclesiastical, could calculate more easily the rents accruing from their properties. Parallel street-systems made it easier to subdivide and alienate (transfer) individual properties (thus increasing the potential income from property). This spatial practice encouraged local entrepreneurism amongst townspeople, with the financial dividends obviously going to the lord.

New towns were designed principally by entrepreneurial lords to make money, through developing commerce and gathering rents and fines, but they also relied on attracting people to settle and take up properties. Rectilinear town designs provided a sustainable and flexible way of controlling this urban development. Parallel streets could easily be extended to accommodate more properties, and hence more townspeople; plots of standard sizes were replicable, and provided the town’s burgesses with fixed units of property which could be sold, exchanged, amalgamated or subdivided; centralised market-places provided townspeople with a specific and visible focus for commercial activities as well as sites (and sights) of ceremony and spectacle. Ultimately, of course, the practical advantages of using rectilinear and regular plan forms reinforced the social and economic position of the town’s founder (as well as their successors). Perhaps less obviously, new towns also allowed, and indeed encouraged, an influx of people (migrants); and thus helped lords to colonise interior and frontier territories. This ‘colonial’ impetus for medieval town foundation is rarely acknowledged in the modern literature on urbanism, yet the use of geometrical principles in rectilinear town designs relied upon territorial expansion: new forms of town-planning were not only made possible by territorial expansion, but made such expansion possible.

Territorial expansion and the twelfth-century renaissance

As well as being characterised by a renaissance of urbanism, the twelfth century was also a time of revival in Classical learning in western Europe. These two recurrences were by no means unconnected. In the early 1100s an English scholar, Adlard of Bath, having travelled extensively around the Mediterranean, translated Arabic copies of classical texts on geometry and mathematics, including Euclid’s ‘Elements’. The impact of these ancient texts on European medieval material culture is difficult to judge, but certainly in England...
the chequer system under Henry II relied upon mathematics set out by Adelard, and in France geometrical principles were being used in the design and construction of new cathedrals during and after the late-twelfth century. Such practical use of geometrical and mathematical theorems presumably also lay behind the designs of new towns. Indeed, this link has been successfully demonstrated in a study of late-thirteenth and fourteenth century new towns in Tuscany (Italy). However, this link has not been used to account for why thirteenth and fourteenth century new towns in Tuscany (Italy) were laid out with such clear indications of geometrical design, yet it was precisely during this earlier period that a revival of Classical learning was taking place. Although more work is required on the geometries of twelfth- and thirteenth-century town plans, on the basis of existing morphological studies it seems highly likely that the widespread use of rectilinear plan-forms in new town foundations in Europe would have required some practical and theoretical knowledge of Classical geometry.

Revised Classical knowledge relied on links between Latin countries and the Arab world, forged at a time when the expansionist policies of European aristocratic elites were having a profound impact on Levantine countries. There are also other, more subtle ways in which Classical geometry and medieval town-building were linked to territorial expansion. Laying out new towns, or parts of towns, helped to guarantee more regular cash income for both medieval aristocracies and monarchies, and so support their political control and colonisation of interior and frontier territories. Between the rivers Elbe and Oder, castle towns colonized by twelfth-century German aristocratic lords, new towns with rectilinear forms, such as Brandenburg and Spandau, were laid out as part of a deliberate attempt to secure territorial control. By 1200, the English Crown held territories stretching from Gascony to Normandy, through western France. This area, along with large parts of Wales and Ireland, formed the Angevin 'empire', through which English aristocratic power was spread. One aristocratic family whose development of towns helped this process of expansion was the de Lacy family.

During the late-twelfth century, the de Lacy's were responsible for developing towns on their lands in both England and Ireland. Two of their towns, Ludlow and Drogheda, merit comparison, since although they were both shaped under similar circumstances, the designs of the two towns differ. At Ludlow, as stated earlier, the de Lacy's appear to have remodelled the town following the civil war of Stephen's reign by fitting a new area of streets and plots into an existing townscape (Fig. 1). They may have done this to re-establish their control over both Ludlow and the lands surrounding the town. Whatever the political motives for laying out Broad Street and Mill Street were, the economic advantages are clear. Indeed, it could be said that this area (plan-unit V) was cleverly planned to provide a maximum number of new plots within a relatively restricted part of the town. Geometrical knowledge surely played a part in the surveying of this area, because without it the regular proportions of the street-system would have been difficult to establish (there is a possibility that the design of this area relied upon knowledge and use of chords, as set out in Adelard's translation of Euclid's Elements). By laying out these new plots and streets to extend their town, the de Lacy's were promoting what may be termed 'interior colonisation'.

Similar objectives are revealed in the family's further development of their castle town at Drogheda, on the east coast of Ireland. In the 1190s, an extensive area to the north of the River Boyne was laid out with a regular (but not orthogonal) pattern of streets and plots, probably under the initiative of Hugh de Lacy (Fig. 2). De Lacy's likely motives for laying out this new area at Drogheda was to help attract people to their newly-acquired Irish lands and so promote 'frontier colonisation'. However, the design of the planned extension at Drogheda bears no direct morphological similarity to the planned development of regularly-laid out streets and plots at Ludlow, although both areas having the same parentage. As with

becomes apparent that the strict orthogonality of the Broad Street-Mill Street area of Ludlow belongs to a style of town design that emerged only in the twelfth century, whereas Drogheda's distorted rectilinear layout is part of a more long-standing tradition of medieval town-design that is characterised by measurement (metrology), not geometry. This distinction, between 'geometrical town-designs' and 'metrological town-designs' is evident in the layouts of other so-called medieval 'planned' towns.

Table 1 is an attempt to reveal these two different town-designs using information from already published work. Seen in this context, plan-unit (V) of Ludlow is an early example of orthogonal geometry that subsequently became the norm for new town design in France, Poland, Bohemia, Moravia and Tuscany, in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries. On the other hand, the distorted grid-form of Drogheda's towns noted above, the de Lacy's two towns of Ludlow and Drogheda were not planned to the same design. Why the planned extension of Drogheda's town plan was not designed with the orthogonality of Ludlow's is a matter that requires explanation, especially as both areas were laid out at about the same time by members of the same family. Could it be that the differences in form reflect broader changes in the design of towns? The final part of this paper briefly considers this important, but hitherto largely neglected question.

**Fig. 2: A plan-analysis of Drogheda**

The three de Redvers' towns noted above, the de Lacy's two towns of Ludlow and Drogheda were not planned to the same design. Why the planned extension of Drogheda's town plan was not designed with the orthogonality of Ludlow's is a matter that requires explanation, especially as both areas were laid out at about the same time by members of the same family. Could it be that the differences in form reflect broader changes in the design of towns? The final part of this paper briefly considers this important, but hitherto largely neglected question.

**Metrology and geometry in medieval town-design**

To understand the subtle differences between the regular plan-forms of Drogheda and Ludlow it is necessary to compare them with other European medieval town-plans which have similar morphological signatures. In doing so it
is more akin to the metrologically-derived plans of twelfth-century Stratford-upon-Avon and Lichfield. Metrology, rather than geometry, also lay behind the regular plan of ninth-century Winchester (and other Anglo-Saxon burhs, too), and can be seen in the layout of streets and plots of late-eleventh-century Bury St Edmunds which, as at Stratford, were set down over former arable field-strips.

The morphological differences in the designs of these rectilinear town-plans may result from differences in the use and implementation of geometrical knowledge during the High Middle Ages. The arrival of geometrical, orthogonal town-designs coincides neatly with the period when Classical treatises on geometrical knowledge within this period, the authors of these texts knew that they were addressing two specific audiences: those 'who work following geometric demonstrations, and those who would proceed following common usage, or, as it were, lay custom' (the words of Fibonacci written in 1220-1). In c. 1400, this distinction is even more clearly articulated in the Russian text Geometriae Cultonis, where two surveying methods are noted: one performed by professional, trained surveyors (mensurae literati) and the other by 'lay' surveyors (mensurae layci).

Perhaps these two different approaches to measuring land account for the differences between the plans of 'geometrical' and 'metropolitan' town-designs. Certainly, such an explanation could be used to account for the differences in planned urban form at Ludlow and Drogheda.

More research is needed on this idea, comparing the morphologies of European medieval towns with the few surviving contemporary accounts of medieval town-planning and urban design.

**Conclusions**

The morphological changes in the planned development of Ludlow and Drogheda not only have to be placed against a changing map of European medieval urban forms, but they also have to be placed in an historical context: in this case, as part of a process of political expansion under Angevin kingship. Interior colonisation, either by the extension of old towns or the creation of new ones, provided aristocratic families such as the de Lacy, the de Redvers and the de Gisors, with opportunities to raise incomes and control their lands. With frontier colonisation, new markets were created and, through the creation of new towns, controlled. Interior and frontier colonisation were obviously interconnected; for example, it cannot be mere coincidence that the de Redvers were developing three new towns along the Solent when, at the same time, the nearby port of Southampton (and later, Portsmouth) was being used to supply shipments to new English territories in Ireland.

In both frontier and interior contexts, geometrical town-designs offered a profitable way of accommodating large influxes of new people. Perhaps geometrical designs were used by lords to symbolise their power, not only over people and culture in a material sense, but also over landscape and nature. The ordering of urban space through design may have reflected medieval cosmology. In Italy, the foundation of the new town of Firenzuola (in 1300) was set by astrologers, and the layout of the religious complex at Pisa (including the leaning 'tower') was evidently designed to imitate the constellation of Ariës. At a time when God the Father was depicted as architect of the universe, complete with dividers in hand, it is perhaps not too unlikely that the geometrical designs of medieval planned towns were used to place the town, and its founder, closer to heaven. Such reverence may reflect the attitudes and perceptions of medieval town-designers, about whom so little is known.

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**Table 1: Chronological table showing selected examples of towns with ‘metrical’ or ‘geometrical’ designs**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>METROLOGICAL PLANNING and TOWN-DESIGN (eg rectilinear plans but not strictly orthogonal in form)</th>
<th>GEOMETRICAL PLANNING and TOWN-DESIGN (eg plans with orthogonal forms)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Period</td>
<td>Selected town/date of planning or foundation of town/geographical location</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>850-1050</td>
<td>Winchester (c. 840) (GB)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1050-1150</td>
<td>Rouen (925-50) (F)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1150-1250</td>
<td>Bury St Edmunds (1080s) (GB)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Villenueve-sur-Lot (1253) (F)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1250-1350</td>
<td>Portsmouth (1180s) (GB)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Saintes-upon-Avon (1190s) (IRL)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Rouen (1190s) (IRL)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>New Salisbury (1219) (GB)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Villenueve-sur-Lot (1253) (F)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mongaizier (1254) (F)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Grenade-sur-Garonne (1290) (F)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>New Winchelsea (1283) (GB)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Bury St Edmunds (1080s) (GB)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Villareal (1274) (E)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>New Winchelsea (1330) (GB)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cleves Bodevoe (1285) (EZ)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Moravská Trebová (late-C13th) (CZ)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Flirt (1277) (CR)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Monopazar (1284) (F)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Nowe Miasto Lubawskie (1325) (P)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Kénzingen (1249) (D)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Portello (1350) (IT)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Terrasson (1237) (F)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Gago Flotorento (1330) (E)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**NOTES AND ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

This paper was written at Royal Holloway whilst in receipt of a British Academy Postdoctoral Fellowship, but it was originally developed at the University of Birmingham as part of a project on Norman Towns in England, Wales and Ireland, funded by the Leverhulme Trust. My thanks go to Dr T.R. Slater who directed this project, and also to Professor Denis Cosgrove at the Department of Geography, Royal Holloway, for inspiring me to work with medieval geometry.


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2. For example, see D. Friedman, Florentine New Towns: Urban Design in the Late Middle Ages, Cambridge, Mass: Architectural History Foundation and MIT, 1988.
urban development. See M.G.


6. E.J. Hathaway, P.T. Ricketts, C.A. Robson and A.D. Wilshere (eds), Fouke le Botel and Texts No. 64, Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 1970;


19. The pattern of streets in plan-unit (V) is not arranged according to a system of proportion. Their geometrical order compares with the fourteenth proposition of book three of Euclid’s Elements, which was translated by Adelard of Bath by the mid-twelfth century. See Busard, 1983, op. cit., p. 101.


THE HISTORIC GRID TOWNS OF THE TRANSVAAL (1838 - 1860)

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Introduction

South Africa is presently undergoing a period of phenomenal change, much of which takes on a physical expression in terms of the allocation of land and resources. The towns and cities of South Africa, however, owe their establishment to the colonialists of Dutch and British descent. Today, most of the urban areas reflect European values and norms. In order to integrate South African society it is important to understand the cultural influences on urban settlement patterns; for this purpose, early towns in the former Transvaal province were taken as case studies.

This paper argues that the early Afrikaner towns in the Transvaal depict the culture of the Calvinists who established them. It is interesting to note that the Calvinists who settled in New England also adopted the grid layout. The argument that nature or the environment determines settlement patterns is hard to rationalize when one compares the settlements of the Transvaal and New England: the regions have different topography, climates, soils and are even in different hemispheres and yet the towns show remarkable similarities.

Early Transvaal Towns (1838-1860)

The main body of the Great Trek crossed the Vaal and entered the former Transvaal in February 1838, and the first official white settlement, Potchefstroom, was established in that year. Nine towns were established in the Transvaal prior to 1860. The time frame analyzed stretches from the time the Great Trek reached the Transvaal (1838) until the period prior to mining and subsequent industrialization (1860).

Four Republics emerged in the Transvaal - one had its headquarters at Lydenburg (formerly Ohrigstad), another in the Soutpansberg district, Utrecht district formed the third, and the largest and oldest republic had its capital at Pretoria. The Pretoria Republic was originally called the Holländische Afrikanische Republiek, but in 1853 it became known as De Zwartekop Afrikaners (the South African Republic - ZAR).

The Dutch community of the Cape interior was essentially isolated and self-sufficient owing to the extensive frontier, and it took four months for merchandise to reach them from Cape Town. The towns were not commercial bases, and so the soomse (travelling merchants) played an important role in keeping the flow of goods moving between the coast and the interior. The requirements of the trekkers (migrant farmer) requirements were few: .. he had not even the need of a market but sold his cattle direct to the roving butcher's agent - taking in exchange the gun-powder, cloth, coffee and brandy he needed or desired to supplement what he could not provide himself.

Most Afrikaners towns grew slowly after the establishment of a church. In the early days, travelling ministers would call at a centrally-located farm, where the service would be held in the wagon shed, a tent or in the open. The congregation would come from miles around and camp for several days. The gathering would attract the swooi, thereby ensuring that the nagmaaii (quarterly communion service) served both a cultural and commercial role. In time the farmers often built a school and the congregation would request a permanent minister. The site would become established when a permanent church was built and a store set up. Later a small settlement would be laid out by the farmer or the church and the erven (also referred to as erven: a surveyed plot of land in town) auctioned, with the proceeds often going to the owner of the farm.

When studying early Transvaal towns certain common characteristics emerge: the most striking of which is the rectangular grid layout and rectangular plots. All nine of the towns in the Transvaal began as a rydorp (a single street lined with houses) and developed into a grid layout by the addition of parallel streets when required. The streets were often tree-lined and houses faced directly onto the street with no front garden. The town was served by a gravity-fed system of water furrows which ran along the streets. This system was made possible by the location of the towns; all were founded on a fertile spur of land. The plots were irrigated weekly by diverting the furrow in order to flood the rear of the property. The clay and times at which people were allowed to irrigate were controlled by means of the Title Deeds of the property. All of the land was cultivated; the entire town survived on the produce from these plots and the livestock on the town commons, which were always extensive.

The first street was invariably named Ohrigstraat (Church Street), and all subsequent streets were usually named after the original settler families. The church was also always the first permanent structure built and often doubled as a fort, although many of the towns also had isolated forts. The church was situated on an extensive plot which allowed space for people to camp during nagmaaii. A market square would be often provided adjacent to the church square to remove the vulgar bartering from holy land. Cemeteries were always on the outskirts of town and did not follow the British churchyard philosophy.

The basic morphology of the early Transvaal towns is illustrated in Fig. 1.

Fig. 1. Sketch Plans of Early Transvaal Towns

NOTE: NO PLANS AVAILABLE FOR POTGIETERSRUS AND OHRIGSTAD

[Diagram of early Transvaal towns with accompanying text]

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The town would begin as a nyadja, which invariably consisted of a single street lined with houtstomme (wattle-and-daub houses). Owing to the agrarian nature of the people who founded these towns, early Voortrekkers were gatherings of smallholdings, each a farm in miniature. Close association for protection was not necessary in South Africa, which was generally peaceful or, if not peaceful, warfare was mobile - a matter of commandos on horseback and long-range rifles, not of infantry. Interestingly, the Afrikaners adopted the British isolated forts rather than the Dutch fortified towns. The isolated forts were a practical response to the extensive towns; a relatively small structure to which people could flee in times of trouble.

"The agricultural and ecclesiastical function of these dorpe (villages/hamlets) imbibed them with a tranquility atmosphere - a restfulness verging on somnolence."

The town consisted of large irrigated erven, each served by the water furrow which ran down the side of the road. The erven were arranged in a simple grid layout which evolved from the original street by the addition of parallel streets when required. "The Afrikaner dorp therefore, grew organically yet not without plan or regulations."

The grid layout had a very coarse grain owing to the large size of the erven. It is interesting to note that, in most Voortrekker towns, the erven have a double frontage, which leads to the contrast between the more urban streets (onto which the houses fronted) and the predominantly rural streets at the rear of the properties. The majority of houses were built along either side of the original street, which was invariably called Church Street. The street parallel to this would be more rural in character, and the next street would have houses on either side. The servants were usually housed at the rear of the properties and gained access to the property from the 'rural' roads. The urban and rural streets thus also had a racial connotation, since the servants were black.

The layout of Afrikaner towns was not restricted by topography as the interior was basically flat, and there was not even the need to conserve good agricultural land. In fact, the towns were deliberately situated on the best agricultural land since the erven in towns were cultivated. The spread of the town, or rather the size of the individual plots, was limited only by the need to provide the erven with water and the desire for relatively close social interaction. Owing to the fact that land was not a limitation, single-storey detached houses emerged as the cheapest form of housing. The erven ranged in size between half an acre and two hekage (approximately 4.3 acres). These erven were cultivated with fruit trees and vegetables, as well as housing stables, byres, pig pens and fowl coops. The residents would also keep a large flock of sheep and a herd of cattle on the town common. With the residents being largely self-sufficient, so too were the towns, and thus communication links between towns were usually poor.

The towns all follow a set format of a grid layout with long, wide main streets and fewer, narrower, cross-streets. There was always a centrally-located church and market square.

The Cultural Influence on Early Transvaal Towns

The initial colonial settlement of the interior of South Africa arose primarily from the Great Trek. The settlers were predominantly of Dutch and French origin, and they later formed the Afrikaner nation. The town layouts in the Transvaal can thus primarily be ascribed to the Afrikaners.

The Afrikaner culture is founded on Calvinism. Calvinism was a work-a-day, down-to-earth Protestantism and its purpose was to administer to the personal spiritual needs of the Protestant Dutch. The Afrikaner's Calvinism stems mainly from the reformed heritage of Calvinism in the Netherlands, France and Scotland.

"To be sure, the heroic age of the Afrikaners [the time of the Great Trek] had a most definite link with the Protestant spirit of the sixteenth- and seventeenth-century Dutch, who had so decisively resisted the imperial Catholic Spain. It was also connected with the equally heroic Huguenots, who were engaged in protracted civil war with Catholic France."

From the outset, the Cape proved to be inordinately expensive, and there was a slow rate of immigration to South Africa until the discovery of diamonds. The lack of natural resources and the arid nature of the land required very extensive farming techniques, which led to South Africa being a predominantly subsistent frontier. The majority of South Africans only began to urbanize after the Anglo-Boer War, which was when the frontier
Archipelago, compelled them to restructure syntax, accept certain words from the language of their servants, find apothegms to express their observations and sentiments and build a new vocabulary.

The Afrikaans language became the hallmark of resistance to Anglicization after British annexation of the Cape. The Afrikaners demonstrated the same dogged determination as their ancestors to resist new ideas or any custom contrary to their beliefs.

In South Africa the early settlers brought with them the Calvinist understanding of church and state. In Calvinism, although the church and the state each have separate functions, they are strongly related. Calvin himself stated that civil government was a divine institution. It is, therefore, not surprising that the members of the state (in this case the original Dutch and French settlers) saw themselves as 'Christians' and the indigenous population as 'heathen', and the land before them as 'heathen territory'. The fact that the indigenous population had a different skin colour led to the distinction between white Christians and black heathens. Anna Steenkamp sums up the situation in her statement at the commencement of the Great Trek:

"The shameful and unjust proceedings with reference to the freedom of our slaves (by the British)... and yet it is not so much their freedom which drove us to such lengths as their being placed on an equal footing with Christians, contrary to the laws of God, and the natural distinction of race and colour, so that it was intolerable for any decent Christian to bow down beneath such a yoke, wherefore we rather withdrew in order thus to preserve our doctrines in purity."

The Afrikaners left the colony en masse to form a pure Afrikaner race. It was not, however, as the South African history books would have, a trek (migration) into the unknown interior. By the time the main trek left, many migrant farmers had regularly crossed the Orange River to find grazing for their cattle, many hunting expeditions had extended well into the interior, missionary stations had been established and the Voortrekkers themselves had sent out scouting parties prior to the commencement of the trek.

In keeping with Calvin's teachings, the church, when established, saw to the education of the children, and the ministers were often the most educated. The lack of books caused by the trekkers' isolation led to reliance upon the Bible as the main book. The religion of the people thus became an integral part of their culture and lifestyle. The physical layout of Voortrekkers towns in the Transvaal clearly show a strong cultural influence. The dominant church square is merely a physical manifestation of the central role played by the church in the community. Most of the elements of Voortrekker life were linked directly or indirectly with the church or religion. The donners (ministers) were people with great power, both socially and politically; and, as such, the church had a say in government policies and civil management. The church was also responsible for education, and children were brought up to accept the norms, morals and values of the church. Most of the towns originated as a church place, and it was very often the church which attracted people to the town, even when the town was founded for other reasons. It is obvious from the central location of the square, the fact that the church was the first permanent structure built and the naming of the first street as 'Church Street', that religion was central to the culture. The importance of the church had been strengthened by the Trek as it had provided inspiration, support and familiarity during a time of uncertainty, danger and hardship. Religion had also been a major cause of the Great Trek. The stubborn Afrikaner nature was born of years of opposition to tyranny, and a desire to retain their cultural, linguistic and religious identity under foreign rule.

The Calvinistic religion had also given rise to racial prejudice and, hence, rejection of the British decision to abolish slavery. Slavery had given rise to a number of ideas central to the Afrikaners: culture; since the slaves did the manual labour, it became socially unacceptable for free men to labour. Agriculture was seen as being the only fit profession for free men, and the open frontier and plentiful land gave rise to the notion that land was the birthright of all free men.

The Voortrekker towns have much in common with early Cape settlements: the grid layout, a central church, irrigation ditches and town commons. Many of these elements can find their inspiration in settlement patterns in Holland. The Dutch had always practised curtail over the layout and distribution of land and most of the layouts had a regular pattern. The emergence of the grid layout as the major pattern of development closely resembles the Renaissance merely formalized the way in which the Dutch had already been planning.

The grid layout also, however, well suited their structured culture. The grid layout was not only functional but also gave a definite sense of order and structure - Calvinism speaks of social structure and order as being central to civil and religious order. The grid was also well suited to a transitory population as it was easy to survey and to lay out. The grid form aid the allocation of land, which was central to the concept of private ownership and a market economy. The grid, above all, produced a layout with long, wide streets which gave the air of importance and of an ordered community, as well as being functional. It was a clearly legible structure which complemented the very clearly structured culture and religion of the people.

The South African Systems of Land Surveying and Land Tenure

The system of property rights and ownership of land has become synonymous with western society. Even in South Africa in the early days, when land was not in short supply, the allocation and ownership of property was controlled. Originally, the Dutch East India Company (VOC) owned the land in the Cape by virtue of its occupation of the site.

At the time of colonial settlement at the Cape, Holland and England used a curvilinear method of survey, which was related to the natural and cultural (artificial) features found existing on the ground. When countries were newly
Plotted, cultural and natural features were few and far between; thus the beacons recorded linear boundary system of ancient Egypt was adopted. 

South Africa's first land surveying occurred in 1657 when Peter Potter was commissioned to survey a piece of land on the Liesbeek River and J.G. de Grevenbroek was assigned the task of registering the transfer of the land from the VOC to its released servant, Jacob Cloete. Potter's cadastral survey was topographical in nature, and so it relied on distinguishing features as reference points. In 1806 the Cape was occupied by the British, who improved the survey system, and by 1857 numerical data were recorded on survey diagrams. This was, however, towards the end of the time period of this study.

All property surveys were at this stage detached, as there was no base reference to which to relate them. Although the first geodetic operation in the southern hemisphere was conducted as early as 1752 (which was revised in the nineteenth century), nothing in the way of further accurate systematic triangulation was done in South Africa until 1859, when a triangulation of the southern coast of the Cape Colony and British Kaffraria was undertaken at the request of the navy, which wished to correct the very inaccurate charts of the coast. A systematic survey would have been of great value, since it would have offered a means of better connecting the detached property surveys. However, by 1860 only two base lines had been measured, both of which were in the Cape and thus of little help to the Voortrekkers. It was not until the early-twentieth century that a comprehensive topographical survey was conducted by the British War Office. Since there was no way of relating individual property surveys, many farms were later found to overlap or were not contiguous with each other. The land which fell outside the surveyed farms became known as uitvalgrond and, in the case of the Transvaal, was vested in the government. The most famous piece of uitvalgrond was the land on which original government mining camp of Johannesburg was established in 1886 (now the central business district).

The Voortrekkers practised the rudimentary rectilinear survey system of the Dutch and the British system of freehold rights. In order to attract people to the new colonies, every man over the age of sixteen was given the right to two farms of approximately 3000 morgen (645 acres) each. later, when land was not so abundant, this was decreased to one farm. When the number of vacant farms or open land declined to the extent that the ZAR (South African Republic) could no longer provide a farm to all the burghers (citizens) who qualified, citizens were given the choice of acquiring three erven (two dry and one water erven) in a town instead of a farm. 

"Obviously when a farm of 3,000 morgen could be bought for a gun or an ox wagon or even later when it rose to the value of 1/- per morgen, great accuracy in survey was not important."

As such, the farms were measured by riding for half an hour, at walking pace, from a central point, in four directions and picking landmarks like trees, rocks, ridges or streams as markers roughly coinciding with the end of each half-hour ride. Later, the farms were checked by a Field Cornet who drew up title deeds. The deeds were kept by the owner. When towns were established, they were usually situated on existing farms and thus the town plans owed their shape to the existing boundary pattern. The towns themselves were usually measured by pacing out the stands or by measurement with a knotted string, in much the same way as had the Ancient Egyptians. The land was then sold at a public auction. The town inevitably had a grid layout, since the rectilinear survey was the easiest method. The grid pattern was also functional, as it was easy to lay out many erven of equal size and with a standard street frontage. The amount of street frontage was important as the water furrows ran down the street and the residents needed adequate access to water. 

The Transvaal conforms to the typical settlement pattern of the colonial period, which is that settlement occurred prior to survey. The settlement pattern of the country is therefore determined not only by 'folk-geography', that is, the people's conception of settlement patterns, but also by their technical ability to reach their aim. It is obvious that the intention of the Transvaal Republic was to arrive at a regular grid of farms. However, in absence of adequate survey methods and any system of linking individual surveys, South Africa now displays a less regular pattern of settlement with large areas of uitvalgrond, on which town lots were later established. Johannesburg being one such example.

As Bohannan stated, the pattern of land division is linked to the culture of the people. Prior to white settlement in South Africa, land was held by chiefs for community use. The pattern of land division was thus an informal pattern of chiefloms and tribes. Land was linked to power in that the chief owned the land, but it was not a marketable resource. The Voortrekkers, on the other hand, adopted a system of private ownership as they adhered to the western view of land. To them land was a marketable resource which not only represented wealth, but through wealth, also power.

The reason why the Voortrekkers adopted a system of private ownership was that it suited their cultural belief that they were born to be farmers and owners of land - as opposed to the slaves who did not own land and were manual labourers. The system of land division adopted had a profound effect on the settlement pattern and town layout. The level of technology also played a part in settlement patterns as it not only placed limitations on the shape of erven which they could survey, but meant that the actual settlement pattern differs from the perceived settlement pattern.

Conclusion
The layouts of early Voortrekker towns in the Transvaal show strong cultural and cadastral influences and support Bohannan's theory that culture and nature give rise to the environment. The Voortrekker settlements show strong links to the Dutch and early Cape settlements, both of which occur in different environments in terms of climate, soil, topography and vegetation.
This paper illustrates that the culture and cadastral system of a group of people gives rise to specific settlement patterns. This statement is supported by the fact that the Calvinists in New England adopted a similar layout and the same cadastral system. It is the contention of this study that settlement patterns are influenced by the culture of the inhabitants and the cadastral system adopted. In turn, the cadastral system adopted is also influenced by the culture.

Although the adoption of the grid layout was strongly related to the Afrikaner culture, today the settlements in South Africa are highly cosmopolitan. The grid layout has thus been adapted and modified over the years to meet the needs of a changing society. There is, however, no doubt that the rigid layout and central church still dominate many towns in South Africa.

NOTES

10. Ibid., p. 15.
11. Ibid., p. 33.
12. Ibid., p. 33.

RESEARCH

Stages of an Exhibition
The Cities and Town Planning Exhibition of Patrick Geddes

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In 1911, the Royal Scottish Academy in Edinburgh hosted an unusual event. From March 13th to April 1st, the building was occupied by Patrick Geddes’ Cities and Town Planning Exhibition.1 In the early 1890s, Geddes had already begun to conduct a survey of Edinburgh which resulted in a steadily-growing collection of maps, plans and artistic images of the city. The survey was housed in the Zoo Tower, purchased by Geddes in 1892, and included in the show at the Royal Scottish Academy; but the aim and scope of the Cities and Town Planning Exhibition in 1911 went far beyond Edinburgh. Its history had begun in the previous year in London.

The 1910 Exhibition on Town Planning
In 1910, the Royal Institute of British Architects (RIBA) celebrated the first British Town Planning Act of 1909 with a conference at the Royal Academy in London. Part of the celebrations was an Exhibition of Drawings and Models at the Royal Academy, selected by a committee with Henry Vaughan Lanchester, Edwin Lutyens, Charles Harrison Townsend and Stanley Davenport Adshead amongst its members.2 This exhibition presented the historic and contemporary development of towns and town planning with a selection of examples from the United States, Scandinavia, Italy, the Low Countries, the German-speaking countries, and Britain. The British contribution occupied two galleries, one covering English and Colonial town planning, the other British garden cities and suburbs. A third room, the so-called ‘Black and White Room’ of Burlington House, was reserved for the exhibition of his survey of Edinburgh. This room, although the smallest in the building, was among the most impressive, as Stanley Adshead, one of the editors of the Town Planning Review, observed:

“finally, in the little black-and-white room, Professors Geddes had put together his bewildering but fascinating survey of Edinburgh which we understand is to be triplicated in the Croydon Hall. This was the only individual English [sic] town which was thoroughly shown, and certainly Edinburgh, containing as it does the finest picturesque and perhaps the finest formal civic architecture in the United Kingdom, well merited this attention. Professor Geddes’ elucidation of the city was most stimulating and suggestive.”3

The survey of Edinburgh comprised a mixture of historical maps, views and plans of Edinburgh, contemporary artistic reconstructions and renderings of particular features of the city, but also reproductions of similar images, probably torn from journals or magazines. Individual exhibitors had to serve Geddes’ aim, which was to tell the story of the history of Edinburgh rather than to compile an antiquarian collection of historic and artistic representations. Both contents and presentation provoked comment. Adshead remarked that this exhibit served at once to demonstrate what an acquisition it would be if every town stood possessed of a civic museum. A museum where the history of the...
growth of the city could be graphically related, where its mistakes could be clearly demonstrated, and its tendencies suggested.1

Patrick Abercrombie recalled Geddes' room as being a "torture chamber to all those simple souls that had been ravished by the glorious perspectives or heartened by the healthy villages shown in the other and simpler galleries". He remembered that it was criticised as being "the merest hotch-potch - picture postcards - newspaper cuttings - crude old woodcuts - strange diagrams - archaeological reconstructions; these things, they said, were unworthy of the Royal Academy - many of them not even framed - shocking want of respect. 2

The First Cities and Town Planning Exhibition

The RIBA exhibition of town planning was characterised by an accidental juxtaposition of international urban history and the development of town planning on the one hand, with the story of a specific city, that of Edinburgh, on the other. This contrast became the basis of Geddes' Cities and Town Planning Exhibition, which went on show at Crosby Hall in Chelsea in February 1911, only four months after the outbreak of the First World War in Europe. A few days later he learnt that the ship carrying the Exhibition, his most important planning tool, had sunk on October 23rd 1914 after an attack by a German raider.

The Second Cities and Town Planning Exhibition

It is difficult to estimate the extent of the loss with any accuracy. In addition to the difficulties posed by the unscholarly standard of the guide books, it is not known which material Geddes took to India and which was left in the pool of possible exhibits he had assembled in Edinburgh's Outlook Tower. That the loss must have been substantial is confirmed by a letter from Henry V. Lanchester to Geddes, dated October 29th 1914. "You may imagine how much the loss of your collection ... affected those of your friends who knew what a tremendous amount of work you had put into it and the number of interesting things you had..."

Friends of Geddes formed an 'Exhibition Emergency Committee' chaired by Lanchester, who had already written a letter to the editor of the Morning Post appealing for replacement exhibits. Lanchester asked specifically for plans, views or lantern slides illustrating ancient and modern cities, historical buildings, and restorations of cities or important buildings, physical, botanical, and ethnographical maps, charts, diagrams, and pictures. Large panoramic views would be especially suitable. It is hoped that the collection may be completed by the 7th of November.11

The appeal was successful, and on December 18th Lanchester informed Geddes that a batch of material had been sent to him via Bombay; a second shipment was to follow in about two weeks time.12 However, things did not work out as smoothly as Geddes and Lanchester might have expected. Although sent before Christmas 1914, the boxes did not arrive in time to allow Geddes to select from their contents the exhibition which was scheduled to open in the Senate Hall of Madras on January 18th, 1915. Thus, as Geddes wrote in telegram-style-English to Lanchester a day before the opening, he and local supporters 'have scrambled together a third Exhibition ... with such scraps +c [etc.] as have come by post + this now on [sic] walls. for opening tomorrow.'13

In the same letter, however, Geddes could also report to Lanchester that two of the missing boxes had at last been found in a shed at Bombay Harbour, although a third box was still missing.

The new Cities and Town Planning Exhibition comprised items which Lanchester's committee had collected, exhibits which Geddes had organised in Madras, and material received by mail; the latter probably items which had been left at Edinburgh. After Madras, Geddes took the Exhibition to Calcutta, Nagpur and Lucknow.14 From May to July 1916 he took a selection of exhibits to La Cité Reconstruite in Paris, an international congress tackling the reconstruction of Belgium after the destruction of the country by the German army.15

When Geddes accepted the Chair for Sociology at Bombay University in 1918, a permanent home for the exhibition was found at the Royal Institute of Science. At that time, the Exhibition occupied 800 feet of wall length and exhibition screens providing more than 6,400 square feet of surface. This, however, allowed Geddes 'only' to exhibit about two-thirds of the more than 5,000 exhibits he had collected.16 In 1923, parts of the Exhibition were shown in Jerusalem from the end of September to the middle of October, in connection with Geddes' work for the Zionist movement. In 1924, when Geddes retired from Bombay to Montpellier, his son Arthur Geddes organised the return of the exhibition to Europe. In Montpellier, the Exhibition was stored at Geddes' Dorothée Scott's College, and remained there after his death in 1932 until the end of the Second World War.

The Exhibition after Patrick Geddes' death
In 1946, Arthur Geddes, by then a lecturer in Geography at Edinburgh University, began to list the material with a possible sale in mind.17 In August of the same year, he approached the London publisher B.T. Batsford as a potential buyer, because he had been involved in collecting replacement exhibits in 1914. Batsford declined the offer, but suggested that he contact the Town Planning Institute (TPI), the Town and Country Planning

Fig 2: Plan of Exhibition layout at Crosby Hall, Chelsea, 1911 (SUH, T-GED 6/10/1)
Cities and Town Planning Exhibition

TO BE HELD IN CONNECTION WITH "UL BREASAIL"

HEALTH AND INDUSTRIAL EXHIBITION.

IN THE GROUNDS OF

THE ROYAL DUBLIN SOCIETY, BALLSBIDGE, DUBLIN.

May 24th to June 7th, 1911.

The Town Planning Exhibition is arranged in the Simmonscourt Hall and will be open from noon to 8 p.m.

ADMISSION 6d.

[an addition to ordinary charge for admission to the Show Grounds].

Selected Parties of School Children (with Teachers), Students and Health Workers, admitted free on certain mornings between 10 and 12 a.m., on previous arrangement being made with the General Manager, "Ul Breasail."

A descriptive Guide and Catalogue has been prepared, price 6d., and in addition parties will be conducted round at 2.30, 4.30, and 6 o'clock each afternoon.


During the Exhibition Communications should be addressed to:

F. C. MEARS, Assistant Director,
At the Town Planning Exhibition, Simmonscourt Hall, R.D.S. Premises, BALLSBIDGE.

Fig. 3: Announcement sheet for Exhibition in Dublin, 1911
(SUA, T-GED 6/11/3)
Findlay Lyon, since 1949 a senior lecturer in Town Planning at the Royal Technical College at Glasgow (later to become the University of Strathclyde). The earliest known contacts between Arthur Geddes and Lyon, an architect and town planner, can be dated to the centenary celebrations of the previous year, when Arthur Geddes proposed Lyon as a possible editor of his father's manuscripts on 'Outlook Towers'. By then, Lyon was already acquainted with Geddes' ideas since he had worked part-time as a draughtsman under Patrick Abercrombie, an old friend of Geddes, on the Clyde Valley Regional Plan in 1946. The influence on Lyon of Geddes' thoughts can be gathered from a paper he published in the first issue of the journal Outlook in 1948. In his essay 'After Geddes', Lyon divided the history of planning rather mechanically into two periods, before and after Geddes, which he equated with the non-existence and existence of a holistic planning philosophy.

Initially, the Geddes collection was stored at the Architecture Department in the Royal Technical College, where it remained until 1966 when the papers and the Exhibition were transferred to the newly-erected architecture building. In 1977, the collection was placed under the custody of the newly-established University Archives where, between 1979 and 1987, the papers were listed and the Catalogue of the Papers of Sir Patrick Geddes was published. However, Geddes' famous Cities and Town Planning Exhibition remained uncatalogued, although a card index gave access to all surviving items (over 3,000 exhibits comprising more than 6,000 individual items). A grant from the Scottish Higher Education Funding Council allowed cataloguing work to begin in 1995 on this part of the Geddes collection. In the autumn of 1998, when the Geddes project is completed, the catalogue, the index and a webpage will offer scholars comprehensive access to the wealth of exhibits collected by Geddes for his Cities and Town Planning Exhibitions, but whose importance reaches far beyond the Exhibition itself.

Notes and Acknowledgements

I would like to thank the Trustees of the National Library of Scotland for granting permission to quote from the Papers of Patrick Geddes in their manuscript collection.

The following abbreviations are used throughout the Notes:

NLS: National Library of Scotland
SUA: Strathclyde University Archives


2. Royal Institute of British Architects, Town Planning Conference London, 10th to 15th October 1910. Exhibition of Drawings and Models at the Royal Academy from the 10th to the 22nd October, London: Clowes and Son, 1910.


4. Ibid., p. 182.


7. For the Edinburgh catalogue see Geddes and Mears, op. cit. After the Exhibition was displayed in Clyde Valley Regional Planning Conference in 1946, the papers were listed and the Planning Conference of the Royal Technical College, where it was shown in the Simmerson Hall of the Royal Dublin Society from May 24th to June 7th, 1911, as part of the International Health and Industrial Exhibition: Patrick Geddes and Frank Mears, Cities and Town Planning Exhibition Explanatory Guide Book and Outline Catalogue, Dublin: Brown and Nolan. In Belfast, the Exhibition was shown at the Health Exhibition and Congress of the Royal Sanitary Institute in the Ulster Halls from July 24th to August 2nd, 1911: Patrick Geddes and Frank Mears, Cities and Town Planning Exhibition Explanatory Guide Book and Outline Catalogue, Belfast: Cities and Town-Planning Exhibition.

8. The Exhibition was displayed from July 27th to August 1st in Ghent. 1946, in NLS, MS 10569, f. 1-52.


10. Letter, Lanchester to Geddes, October 29th 1914; in NLS, MS 10569, f. 33.

11. Letter, Lanchester to the Editor of the Morning Post, published in NLS, MS 10569, f. 34.

12. Letter, Lanchester to Geddes, December 18th 1914; in NLS, MS 10569, f. 35.

13. Letter, Geddes to Lanchester, January 17th 1915; in NLS, MS 10569, f. 36.

14. The schedule of the Exhibition in India is January 15th - mid-February in Madras; November 1915 in Calcutta Town Hall, and January 1916 at Craddock Market in Nagpur; March 20th - March 18th 1916 at Kaiserbagh, Lucknow.


17. Arthur Geddes, Cities and Town Planning Exhibition: Memorandum, typewritten (c. 1948), in NLS, MS 19283, f. 5-6.

18. Letter, Arthur Geddes to B.T. Batsford, August 22nd 1946, in NLS, MS 19264, f. 45; letter, B.T. Batsford to Arthur Geddes, September 12th 1946, in NLS, MS 19264, f. 44.

19. Letter, Arthur Geddes to Town Planning Institute, October 7th 1946, in NLS, MS 10569, f. 1.

20. Arthur Geddes, Customs and it was obviously material stored.
there since the 1911 exhibition in Crosby Hall, and items sent to More's Garden from India: letter, John Ross to Arthur Geddes, May 23rd 1947, in NLS, MS 19264, f. 76.
23. Letter, Bill Wills, APRR, to George Pepler, October 7th 1948, in SUA, T-PEP ST, folder 10. This exhibition focused on housing and town planning in Europe and the USA. It was held at the Earls Court Exhibition Centre, Olympia, London, and opened by the Rt. Hon. Lewis Silkin, M.P. The exact extent of the material borrowed from Geddes' Cities and Town Planning Exhibition is not known.
26. Most of this material is today in the archives of the Patrick Geddes Centre for Planning Studies at the Department of Architecture, University of Edinburgh.
27. Part of the celebrations might have been a temporary display of some exhibition material. Item T-GED 22/1/1100 of the Papers of Sir Patrick Geddes at SUA, a display sheet with reproductions of German cities by the British artist Samuel Frost, is marked 'Used 1954 Mobile Exhibition'. Nothing is known about this event. For the celebrations see Sir Patrick Geddes centenary celebrations: a symposium held in the Edinburgh College of Art, on Friday, 1st October 1954... Edinburgh: University of Edinburgh, 1954.

CITIES AND TOWN PLANNING EXHIBITION.
TOWN HALL, CALCUTTA.
OPEN ON WEEK DAYS 7 a.m. - 6 p.m. (Sundays 2-3 p.m. to 6 p.m.)
I.—Guidance and Demonstrations in the Galleries; by Professor Geddes and Assistants
7-30—9 a.m., 10-30—12, 2-30—4 p.m.; 4-5 p.m.
II.—Reading Room with examples of Town Planning Literature.
III.—Study of Civics and City Design throughout the day.
IV.—Lectures, by Professor Geddes, 5-30—6-30 p.m. daily.

SYLLABUS OF LECTURES.
SECOND SERIES.
I. Life Histories and Tendencies of Modern Capitals: —Edinburgh, Glasgow, Dublin
II. Life Histories and Tendencies of Modern Capitals: —Oxford and London.
IV. Garden Cities and Garden Suburbs.
V. Constructive Citizenship: —in Origins and History.
VI. Ditto ditto in Economics and Policy.
VII. Sanitation and Extension in Calcutta.
VIII. Citizenship and Education in Calcutta.
IX. The Revival of Crafts and Arts.

Fig. 4: Programme of second series of lectures at Calcutta (SUA, T-GED 1/725)
The International Federation for Housing and Planning International Congress, Göteborg, Sweden

Katarzyna Pult, Warsaw University of Technology

In the last days of the most beautiful summer in Scandinavia this century, the International Federation for Housing and Planning (IFHP) organised its International Congress, which had as its theme Urban challenges - investments, sustainable quality, identity. The Congress, held in Göteborg, one of Scandinavia's most appealing cities, drew over 650 delegates from all continents. Several UN conferences have increased our awareness of the problems and tasks of development in our settlements. But, in developing towards a sustainable quality of life for present and future generations, we can lose no time. All activities which contribute towards sustainable living conditions are important. One such activity was this Congress. Experts from all over the world addressed the question of “what do we have to do in order to find the means to organise and design the quality, to create a living environment with which people can identify” which was posed during the opening session by Dr. Ing. Irene Wiese von Otten, President of IFHP. The Congress was an attempt to open our minds to the interrelationship between investments, sustainable quality and identity, by approaching the topics from both a theoretical standpoint and from that of practical application.

Problems discussed during the Congress were presented in three layers of scale and abstraction: (1) the strategic and planning level; (2) the area development and redevelopment level; and (3) the level of building practice. Such division was also visible in the structure of the Congress discussions ranging from global to local problems, from regional planning to urban design, architecture and new building technologies, and from theory to practice.

Each of the three days of the Congress contained both plenary sessions (a total of 12 during the whole meeting) and paper sessions, with two workshop sessions per day in addition. In all, 37 papers were presented by invited speakers during the plenary sessions, and 49 papers during the general paper sessions. Two days of “educational visits” followed the presentation sessions.

As in all such large events it is difficult to convey the impact and content of the entire programme. The main ideas and issues presented and discussed were as follows.

Essentially, urbanisation is an inevitable and positive phenomenon in historical development. It is the driving force of civilisation. Unfortunately, with unplanned urbanisation, urban forms often appear which destroy any sustainable living capacity (SLC) of existing or new settlements. This involves external space (destruction of environments near settlements) and internal space (overloading and collapse of urban systems, ecological pollution etc.). The solution is to continue planning, regulation and control of the processes of urbanisation. A fundamental challenge in sustainable development is to achieve integration between the different levels in policymaking: the (international, regional and local levels. In particular, urban design is now needed to organise and co-ordinate the different participating genres if the resulting urban spaces are to be truly designed. The task of urban design, working together with urban policy, is to create real spaces that are assets to society. The development of streetscapes, and freedom of architectural expression, must be considered; and the level at which they are reconciled determines the quality of urban design, or indeed the city itself. In the design process, it is very important to integrate both a vision and different disciplines, in order to achieve a method of sustainable and comprehensive planning and design.

The host city of the Congress - Göteborg, the second-largest city in Sweden - was specifically selected because of its splendid modern congress facilities (Sverdsk Mässan Congress) as well as the unforgettable atmosphere of the largest port in Scandinavia. Founded in 1659 on the south bank of the Göta All River, Göteborg was built as a fortified trading town based on a Dutch pattern of canals, moats and walls. It has a strong industrial past - in the 1960s it had the largest shipbuilding capacity in the world - but also has much greenery in its wide alleys, elegant squares and canals. The city is now the centre of an improving and developing region.
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themes such as neighbourhood, Utopian and visionary planning; transportation systems.

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this occasion as well as two contributors whose authors were not able to speak at the conference. This collection offers both an insight into the evolution of urban civilization since the Industrial Revolution, and attempts to open new perspectives on the current crisis of urban society in Britain.


This is an important edited collection of essays and case studies from mainly North American-based contributors that seeks to undermine planning history from retelling the celebratory story of the rise of the planning profession. Infused with post-modern and radical perspectives, the focus is on telling other stories, often from the bottom up, and informed by issues of power, class and gender.

The intent is to challenge mainstream ‘planning history’ to move towards more inclusive readings of ‘planning’s histories’, as Melbourne-based Sandercrook writes in her critical introduction, ‘Transforming insurgent historiographies for planning’. The book has grown out of a special 1995 issue of the journal Planning Theory. Contributors include Robert Beare, Jane Manning Thomas, James Heitler, and Gail Dubrow.


Watts draws upon almost half a century’s experience to present a clear account of the evolution of town planning since 1945, and the lessons he has learned from its applications in many countries – mainly in Asia, where he was planning advisor for both the Commonwealth and the United Nations.

Ville Recherche Diffusion notes the following publications, available from VRD, Eole d’Architecture de Nantes, rue Massenet, 44300 Nantes (please make cheques payable to the Ecole d’Architecture de Nantes).


Le boulevard Haussmann and the rue Traversiere a Tours. Urbanisation et Architecture de 1830 a 1914. 206pp., 124FF, photoocopied.


Boulevard Beranger a Tours, Evolution Urbanistique et Architecture du XVIIe siecle a nos jours, 175pp., 85FF, photoocopied.

Morphologie Urbaine a Bruxelles, 185pp., 130FF, printed.

Full catalogue of Ville Recherche Diffusion (December 1990- late 1997) also available, 364pp., 77FF, photoocopied.
Rc•nml, 111

New towns represent an obvious topic for an end of the century review. A hundred years have elapsed since the publication of Ebenezer Howard's persuasive little book on referring society through garden cities, and it is more than fifty years since the 1946 Act heralded the start in the UK of successive programmes of new town building. That particular sequence is now over; the various agencies have been dissolved, and it is time to record and reflect on what actually happened.

The significance of new towns as a dimension of international planning history cannot be in doubt. In the UK alone, thirty-two new towns have been built, with a combined population of more than 2.5 million. The social implications of this are a story in themselves. No less of interest is the way in which the new towns represent in terms of public intervention; in the fifty years before legislation, many towns and others looked to voluntary trusts rather than the State, and even that yielded only piecemeal settlements, at Letchworth and Welwyn.

The Planning Exchange is to be congratulated for seizing the moment – in the new town, the editors, of doing so ‘before memories fade and records are lost’. They are also to be congratulated for making use of modern technology to bring together a diverse and voluminous package of material, all of which is stored and presented on two compact discs and an accompanying small guide to their contents. The first disc – entitled ‘Encyclopaedia’ – contains material organised into a short introduction and user guide, followed by seven chapters. Of these, the first four deal directly with substantive issues (new towns in context, new towns in detail, various themes and topics, and outcomes of local interviews and surveys). The remaining three chapters deal largely with sources, including the reproduction of key books and articles. On the second disc are copies of legislation and of annual reports of the former Development Corporations and the Commission for New Towns.

Because of the relative novelty of publishing planning history in compact disc form, one is tempted in this case to review the medium as well as the message. Indeed, there is a sense in which, perhaps inevitably, the one has an impact on the other, with the nature of the technology affecting both the volume and type of material that has been selected. This interaction can be judged in relation to the aim of the publication, which is to create a record of post-war new towns in the UK. Within a single publication package, the CD-ROM provides an accessible archive of what are seen to be the most important published documents relating to new towns, together with commissioned papers and interviews to offer an added (often more personal) insight of the subject.

To judge it in its own terms, does this ambitious project succeed? In most respects it does. The editors have compiled a remarkable range of material, much of which would be extremely difficult for the individual researcher to gather together (indeed, a major space implication of storing it). The second disc is especially useful in this respect, with a full version of key legislation and sets of annual reports. Successive generations of researchers in local government will be eternally grateful for the time saved and comprehensiveness of material that can be adapted and evaluated for individual use. To add to the facility, both discs enable key words to be identified in all of the digitised documents, in a matter of seconds, the system reveals where there is direct reference to, say, Lord Reith. Large sections of the first disc also meet the objectives of the publication. Especially effective are these containing reproduced books and articles, and the annotated bibliography and guide to sources. The former is a feature which is dependent on the new technology, reproducing whole books as well as articles. Deciding what to include must have presented the editors with a certain problem, but it would be hard to question their choice of acknowledged texts such as Howard’s seminal work on garden cities. Osborne’s 1942 publication, for example, contains the case in the context of anticipated reconstruction; and the various reports of the Reith Committee, paving the way to the New Towns Act. For a generation grown on hard copy publications, confronting whole books one screen at a time presents its own mental challenge, though this is a problem of coming to terms with a new technology rather than a criticism of the project.

EQUALLY valuable is a listing of sources, including not only documents but also a varied record of new towns on film. Additionally, there is a guide to source locations prepared by Peter Ward. This is especially useful in tracking information in the wake of institutional change. With successive reorganisations in local government and the dissolution of bodies with former responsibilities for new towns it is helpful to be able to refer to some of this source to show where material is currently stored.

In all these areas, on both discs, where the object is to present a wide range of material primarily for reference, the publication is of outstanding value. It offers, in a form that has never been available before, basic source material for users to analyse and evaluate to suit their own needs. And the software has been designed with great skill to make it easy to use (even by technophobes!). Where users might find it less satisfactory is in those parts of the first four chapters where some of the commissioned contributions and random selection of interviews result in two obvious weaknesses. One is that while recognising the aim to be encyclopedic) it is unnecessarily fragmented, readers rather like a book of conference proceedings where the individual parts, no matter how good in themselves, fail to add up to much as a whole. Moreover, although some of the commissioned papers are carefully constructed, others, border on the banal. It is hard to see how this can be avoided, when in this case the CD-ROM can be used to assist the understanding of a subject, but it also has the potential to distort and even trivialise. Thus, personal involvement in interviews is included, taken with residents and others from one of the new towns having their say, and the sound of their voices, matched in each case by a coloured photo of the new town in question. This is followed by the study of the reaction to the social changes introduced, initially by the Industrial Revolution, and then the subsequent cultural, social and economic changes of the twentieth century. Thus, no apology is made
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 goal, contributions (in English) are invited from members and non-members of the International Planning History Society, or from anyone else who wishes to contribute. While preference is given to contributions that have been published in a language other than English, contributions in English are also welcome.

Abstracts of relevant journal papers, particularly those originally published in a language other than English, are encouraged. Contributors should supply one copy of their article, clearly printed, in double spacing and with generous margins.

The deadline for submissions is 1 September each year. The Planning History Editor will make every effort to keep all contributions for the year together in the same issue. Contributors are advised to check the editorial calendar when submitting their articles.

FOOTNOTES

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NOTES FOR CONTRIBUTORS

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ARTICLES

These should be in the range of 2,000 - 3,000 words. They may be on any topic within the general remit of the IPHS and may well reflect work in progress. Articles should normally be referenced with superscript numbers and endnotes. Refer to recent issues for guidance on referencing and text style.

OTHER CONTRIBUTIONS

Other types of contribution are also very welcome. Research reports should not be of more than 2,000 words. They need not be referenced, but any relevant publications should be listed at the end, in the standard format. Illustrations, where provided, should conform to the above norms. Similar short pieces on important source materials, aspects of planning history practice (e.g. conservation) are also encouraged.
INTERNATIONAL PLANNING HISTORY SOCIETY (IPHS)

THE INTERNATIONAL PLANNING HISTORY SOCIETY

- endeavours to foster the study of planning history. It seeks to advance scholarship in the fields of history, planning and the environment, particularly focusing on industrial and post-industrial cities. In pursuit of these aims its interests are worldwide;
- welcomes members from both academic disciplines and the professions of the built environment. Membership of the Society is both multi-disciplinary and practice-oriented;
- encourages and gives support to networks, which may be interest-based, region- or nation-based, working in the fields of planning history;
- 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;
- administers its affairs through an elected Council and Management Board.

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.

Members of IPHS elect a governing Council every two years. In turn, the Council elects an executive Board of Management, complemented by representatives of SACRPH and UHA. The President chairs the Board and Council.

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