# CONSTRUCTION 

A JOURNAL FOR • THE • ARCHITECTURAL ENGINEERING • AND • CONTKACTING INTERESTS OF CANADA


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HE fact that several of the largest manufacturers of steel and newspaper announcement, in so far as the architectural and

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A wrought steel sash with a patent joint, that gives each intersection maximum strength and rigidity, with minimum bulk and weight. Unlike other joints, in this one practically no metal is taken out to weaken it.

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before them, in one comprehensive announcement, the features that profession and the trade.
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These boilers have been installed in 40,000 homes in Canada. In every part of the country Daisy Boilers are known and appreciated. In every one of these 40,000 homes, they give the utmost satisfaction; providing fresh, warm air at a minımum of trouble to the owner.

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II.--Varnish preserves metals from rust and other materials from various kinds of destruction, as it preserves wood from decay.
III.-A different varnish is made for every purpose-a few more than two hundred are made by us.
IV.-There is best varnish only in the sense that there is best cloth -it depends on what you want it for.
V.-Varnishes do not wear simply because they are heavy--horse blankets are heavy, but a cashmere shawl often outwears them.

## SO

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# CONSTRUCTION 

## A. JOURNAL• FOR • THE • ARCHITECTURAL ENGINEERING • AND • CONTRACTING

 INTERESTS • OF • CANADA
Vol. 4 TORONTO, DEGEMBER, 1910. No. 1

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H. GAGNIER, Limited, Publishers Saturday Night Building<br>\section*{TORONTO<br><br>GANADA}<br>BRANCF OFFIC:ES<br>MONTREAL-Board of Irace ofildiug, LONDON, ENG.-Byron House, 85 Fleet St. E.C. K,

Design of Messrs. Lancaster and Rickards, for a Public Hall and Monument Terminating an Important Avenue. Exhlbited at the International Town Planning Conference Recently Held at London, England.


Drawing by Mr. W. Walcot, Showing Proposals of the Further Strand Improvement Committee. Exhibited at the International Town Planning Conference. (See Page 49.)


IBuilding Returns for October-Volume of
Work in Eighteen Important Centres 89
Per Cent. Greater Than That Undertaken
in Same Month Last Year.

IT' IS QUITE EVIDEN'T from the extent of opera. tions that are now being carried on that the lateness of the season has had but little effect on build ing activities as far as Canada is concerned. While the total investment possibly does not equal that attained in certain of the spring and summer months, no similar period in the past las witnessed in general a more mark. ed and consistent development.

In the cighteen cities reporting to Construction for October, the total aggregate for permits issued amounted to $\$ 8,638,269$, as compared with $\$ 4,570,506$ in the same month of last year. But three decreases in all are noted, and in two of these cases the loss (less than one per cent.) is so infinitely small as to be hardly worth while taking into consideration. On the whole, the country marched forward at a most substantial clip. Toronto's total in it self, which approximates the three million mark, and is the grand individual monthly total for the year, reflects an expansion that is little short of marvellous; but at that, considering the size of the two cities, it is hardly more remarkable than the showing made at Vancouver, where work anounting to $\$ 1,286.955$ was undertaken as against $\$ 507.615$ in the month of October, 1909.

Aside from Peterboro's loss of 11 per cent., the greatcst decrease noted. and which in itself. considering the comparative amomts, is not of very serious proportions. all points in Ontario progressed in the most gratifying mamer. Ottawa reversed the less favorable condition existing in the two previous months by recording an investment of $\$ 438.925$, equivalent to a gain of 28 per cent.: while Hamilton, with a like increase, issued permits ag gregating in value to $\$ 318,330$. Fort William also topperl its corresponding figures by an advancement of 8 per cent., and Kingston, which does not submit comparative figures, renorts activities to the extent of $\$ 23,317$. Port Arthur, which was practically dormant during this month last year. registers an increase of 731 per cent., the largest proportionate gain in the list. Other gains noted are: Windsor. 82 per cent.; Berlin, 43 per cent.; and London. 2 per cent.

In the western section of the Dominion, the strides made exceederl all expectations. Although Wimipeg fa;: ed br a fraction of equalling her previous figures for the month, permits were issued to the extent of $\$ 330.150$, which is an excellent showing, in view of the heavy months immediately preceding. Calgary experienced a marked state of activity as is evidenced by her total of $\$ 56 S .290$, which represents a gain of 40 per cent. whitile $V$ Victoria and Regina are alead by 18 and 376 per cent. re. spectively, the figures in the latter cases amounting on $\$ 247.975$. as against $\$ 52.080$ last ycar.

Montreal's great total of $\$ 1,907,440$ is the second largest amount noted, and represents an investment of $\$ 1,278,795$ more than was made on the same month last year. These figures reflect a tremendous growth, and especially s.o when one takes into account that at this season of the year considerable work is abandoned owing to uncertaia weather condlitions. St. Jolnn also records an advance, a gain of 149 per cent; although Sydney, in the same section, is a trifte belind her corresponding amount.

Reports irom various other points throughout the country indicate an activity equally as pronounced as thar shown by the cities included in the list, but in the other cases the respective totals for the month are not avail. able. The prospects in every respect are anything but discouraging, and it looks very much as though the buildinur fraternity in general will find much to do during the winter season.

|  | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Permits for } \\ & \text { October, } \\ & 1910 . \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Permits for } \\ & \text { October, } \\ & \text { 1909. } \end{aligned}$ | increase, per cent. | Decrease, per cent. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Berlin, Of | \$14,300 | \$10,000 | 43.00 |  |
| Calgary, Alta. | 568,290 | 403,050 | 40.99 |  |
| Fort william, ont. | 95,155 | 88,050 | 8.07 |  |
| Hamilton, Ont. . | 318,330 | 247,350 | 28.69 |  |
| Kingston, Ont. | 23,317 |  |  |  |
| London. Ont. | 30,493 | 29,880 | 2.05 |  |
| Montreal | 1,907,440 | 628,645 | 203.42 |  |
| Ottawa, Ont. | 438,925 | 341.150 | 28.66 |  |
| Peterborough, Ont. | . 14.700 | 16,691 |  | 11.93 |
| Port Arthur, Ont... | 29.090 | 3,500 | 731.14 |  |
| Regina, Sask. ..... | 247,975 | 52,080 | 376.14 |  |
| St. John, N.B. | 59,600 | 23,900 | 149.37 |  |
| Sydney, N.S. . | 21.836 | 22,050 |  | . 97 |
| Toronto, Ont. | 2,914,980 | 1,540,355 | 89.24 |  |
| Vancouver, B.c. | 1,286,995 | 507,615 | 153.63 |  |
| Vletoria, B.c. | 124,375 | 104,840 | 18.63 |  |
| WIndsor, Ont. | 35,635 | 19,500 | 82.74 |  |
| Winnipeg, Man. | 530,150 | 531,850 |  | . 32 |
|  | \$8,636,269 | \$4,570,506 | 88.89 |  |

## IDangerous Juggling of Facts-Toronto. "Daily" gives Undue Prominence to a Ridiculous. News Item Under Caption of "Building Materials Scarce."

THE CUB REPORTER on the daily newspaper every once in a while runs "amuck," but usually the news editor screws down the safety valve when it comes to reporting in important news item tha: is given prominent space on the front page.

In a recent issue of the Toron!o Star, an articie, under a double column caption, "Building Material. Scarce," wa:published on its front page. and for a misstate. ment of facts and pure nonsensical inaccuracier (if it were not that its pulbication might have a tendency to affect one of our most important industries, "building construction") it would appear almost humorous. It occurs to us that a large daily paper, before giving space to a news item concerning so important an industry, would
delegate the reporting of it to some man who knew something about that which he was writing, unless the article was submitted by an exceedingly shrewd publicity man for the firm erecting the building specifically discussed, who was bright enough to work up what apparently looked like a good news item for the purpose of securing a reading notice for his firm on the front page of the paper in question.

## The article says in part:

"The bullding contractor is one of the mos" worried men in the city of Toronto to-day. From every point of view he is up agalnst it. Supplies are hard to obtalli. . . . Those who are under contract to have their work finished in a certain time imft are finding themsetves compelied to pry bonuses in order to secure delivery of their supplies. In other cases even tonuses cannot hurry things up.
"The shortage exists in cement, cruslied stone, lumoer, bricks, plumbers' supplies, and other minor Items. The crushed stone, great quantities of which are now used in the reinforced concrete structures, comes from all parts of the country. . .
"Canadian manufacturers have been unabile to supply the domand for cement, and some has had to be imported. In view of the great demand the manufacturers or the agents are sendIng along any old thing that comes to hand, and the result is that the architect or conscientlous contractor has to watch partrularly every bag put into the bulliling.
"One of those who has been held up in this way is Contractor McLeod. Who is in charge of the Hobberlin buiding at the corner of Yonge and Richmond streets. He is one of those unfortunates having to pay bonuses in order to secure delivery of supplics and having great diffculty in securing the proper qualilies of cement.
".Just what oualities of cement and crushed stone are neened In a modern building can be indicated by this building. It is to be a steel structure on cement foundations. The basement w ill be twelve feet below the sidewalk. but below this again there are thirty-seven pler holes, each 34 feet deep and four feet square. These holes will be filled with concrete, which will support the roundations. About $\mathbf{1 0 . 0 0 0}$ barrels of cement will be required and several carloads of crushed stone. .....

With regard to the shortage that it is stated exists in cement, crushed stone, lumber, brick, plumbers' supp'ies and other minor articles, we would say that we do not know of the existence of such a shortage. Every large buid:ng contract that has been executed in the city of Toronto during the past year has been carried out oll schedule time, and if a man really wants a quantity of any one of the materials mentioned above, there should be absolutely no difficulty in obtaining it, providing he can meet the terms of the supply dealer.

With regard to cement. Mr. F. P. Jones, general manager of the Canada Cement Co., says as follows:
"I wish to advise that as far as cement is concorned the article that appeared in The Toronto Star is entirely wirong. At no time this year have we had less han 325.000 barrels of cement in stock. and the only delay that any of our customers have been subject to has been caused by the shortage of cars. I might further add that at the present time we have over 400.000 barrels of cement in stock. and are producing more than we can get orders for, and will be forced to carry more than this nuantlty over from this year into next year.
"In addition to this I wish to state that the production has been so much in excess of demand that durin: the last year we have not been able to operate two of our mills. one situated at Belleville, Ont.. and the other situated at Lakeficti. Ont., and the mills we did onorate were not operated to their full capacity owing to the insuffictent demand.
"As to the quality, if you will reffr to any of the large users Who have used 'Canada' cement. I think you will find that the quality this year has been better than it ever was before, and is certainly equal to the quality of any cement purchased in Canada or elsewhere at any tlme.'

With reference to crushed stone, we would say that a large number of concrete jobs have been carried out in Toronto during the past season, and we have not as yet heard of any extraordinary difficulty in obtaining quantities of this material.

We have not as yet heard of a scarcitv in lumber. We are free to admit that stock brick has been rather scarce. but this has not had a tendency to affect large iohs.
 brick on their larger contracts.

With regard to plumbers' supplies, we know that this has been truly a busy season. and the plumbing in some of the buildings might have been delayed to some extent. but this is not on account of the shortage of supp!ies. It is due merely to the fact that contractors have been unable to get all the journeymen they required to carry out their contracts.

We don't know why the contractor on this particular
job had to pay bonuses, and may say that this is an unusual procedure with contractors on large buildings.

In the last two paragraphs, however, in which a very elaborate description of this large prepossessing building is given, the object of the whole item seems to be appar.ent. In other words, in order to get the description of this great building on the front page of a daily paper, it seems it was found either necessary or expedient to work up a sensational news item around it. As a sample of the inaccuracies of the staiements in this article we would point out, that it is stated that about 10,003 barrels of cement will be required on this job, while we are informed that the job will rot require more than 600 barrels.

Before a daily paner enters into a discussion of matters of vital importance in an industry that is so important in every large growing centre in the Dominion, it would seem reasonable that thev would secure their information from some authent:c source. Nothing can militate against the ecn:in'ed activity in building cperations more than the creation of the erroneous impression that materials are unduly high in price, hard to secure, of an inferior quality, and above all, that to finish his bui!ding in reasonable time an owner or contractor is obliged to bonus the supply dea!er.

## IReduction in Price of Cement-Both $\mathrm{Ce}_{\mathrm{e}}$ ment Merger and Independent Companies Announce an Average Reduction of 10 Cents a Barrel all over Canada.

THAT THE MERGING of the cement interests in Canada has operated for the benefit of the consumer and contracter rather than to their disadvantage is shown by the fact that an announcement has been made by both the Merger and the Independent Compan:es of a reduction in the price cf cement of from five to fifteen cents per barrel, making an average reduction of ten cents a barrel a!l over Canada.

As was pointed out in these columns some months ago, the present conduct of the Cement Merger in Canata has served to work great economies in sales, operation aid freiphts. The Independent Companies, through having arranged for a central sales cffice, have also worked big economies. As to whom the credit should be given for the reduction of prices is of little interest to the consumer; the fact is that lie buys his cement to day at from five to fifteen cents per barrcl cheaper than he did last year. The cement interests are evidently working upon the broad principle that it is better to increase the consumpt:on of cement, through selling it at a reascnably fair price. than to curtail its consumption by attempting to unduly raise prices, thereby giving the public the impression that a cement menopoly exists in Canada. Both the Independent and the Merged interests a e capable of producing at least 25 per cent. more cement than is now consumed in Canada, and it is this increased consumption of 25 per cent. that it is evidently their desire to create.


Some Interesting Correspondence Betweeen the R.A.I.C. and the Minister of Public Works, Relative to the Ontario Government House Competition. NDER THE HEADING "Extraordinary Conditions, of Ontario Government House Competition." an editorial appeared in the November issue of Construction in which the inconsistencies in the Government's programme, together with their unfair treatment of the architectural profession generally, es. pecial'v those who consented to strain a point and enter the competition, were commented upon. In the course of the article we stated: "This unfortunate condition exists only because Canadian architects are not sufficiently posi-
tive in asserting their rights as professional men." We are in receipt of a letter from Mr. F. S. Baker, President of the Royal Architectural Institute of Canada, in whic: he ciisagrees with us on this point, declaring that "architects invariably go to the limit of good taste in contending for thei- rights," and to strengthen his contention in this connection, Mr. Baker has handed us the correspondence that passed between the Royal Architectural Institute of Canada and the Government, relative to this competition. $\therefore$ perusal of these letters shows conclusively that the R.A.I.C., on behalf of the architectural profession of Canada, certainly did take a very strong, though justified stand in this matter. However, we are under the impression that Mr. Baker mistunderstood the exact meaning of out statement, or at least, the meaning that it was intended to convey, for as stated in the above mentioned editorial, "conditions of this kind will reoccur just so long as architects see fit to enter into competitions. the conditions of which are unfair to themselves, the profession and the commun ity gencrally." our contention is that individual architects. who enter such competitions and submit to unfavorable conditions as embodied in a programme, fail to assert their rights as professional men. We know that the Royal Architectural Institute of Canada, the Ontario Associa. tion of Architects. the Province of Quebec Association of Architects. and the Manitoba Association of Archi tects, have all, on several occasions as bodies, made strenuous fights for the rights of the profession, but it is the individual architect who, though he realizes that the conclitions of a certain programme are unfair to him, con sents to enter such a competition, and there failing to assert his professional rights.

Mr. Baker's letter to Construction, which we publish helow. is most interesting, and the correspondence that passed beween him as president of the R.A.I.C. and the Hon. Dr. Reamme. Minister of Public Works, is further interesting, in that it shows the feeble conception of the rights and duties of the architectural profession by the average Govermment official.

## Toronto, June 1st, 1910.

## Dear Sir:

In reading your editorial regarding Ontario Govern ment House Competition, one or two points occurred to me as requiring explanation.

It is a common thing for the public outside of the profession of architecture, to feel that architects individually and collectively, are not as you say, "sufficiently positive in asserting their rights as professional men," lout $l$ think you are quite wrong, because architects invariably go to the limit of good taste in contending for their rights; you see it generally is, as in this case, the public who suffer and not the architects, because one does not lose or miss anything one never had, conseguently the architects are not losers through the policy which the Government has chosen to adopt. The public is the real loser as they undoubtedly miss the opportunity of being able to select an architect who would produce a satisfactory solution of the problem from every point of view.

Neither can architects be expected to educate Govcrmments or the public as to the proper procedure in selecting an architect for an important structure; certain courses of study and practice have defined very clearly the architect of culture as compared with the uneducated man who hangs out his shingle and as far as the public can see, is as good as any other, though he may be an architect in name only. You will never find the truc architect objecting in a case like this, but you niay fincl him laughing up his sleeve. He finds plenty to do in this country without wasting time in entering competitions, the conclitions of which are as ridiculous as those you publish.

If the Government chooses to employ an architect who works for about one sixth of the earnings of a properly trained architect, to design a residence for the first gentleman of the Province. a residence which should
surely show the taste and cullure of the people of the Province, they will simply have to sleep in the bed which they have prepared for themselves. But I consider it is the duty of architects who know, to draw the attention of the authorities, in a case like this, to what should be done, and that your subscribers may know that a reasmable effort was made in this case to induce the Govcrnment to steer a straight course, I have the pleasure to enclose the correspondence which passed between the Department of Public Works and the Royal Architectural Institute of Canada. I am,

Yours very truly,

## F. S. BAKER,

President R.A.l.C.
To Editor, Construction.
Saturday Night Bldg.. 'Toronto.
In Mr. Baker's letter dated June 1 he goes into detail with Hon. Dr. Reaunc, and explains quite clearly the position of the architectural profession as regards competitions.

## June 1st, 1910.

Dear Sir:
In my capacity as President of the Royal Architectural Institute of Canada, my attention has been drawn to the "General Conditions for the Guidance of Architects in Preparing Competitive Designs for a New Residence for the Lieutenant-Governor of the Province of Ontario," as recently issued by your department.

As printed the conditions are of course, such that no self-respecting architect could conform to, inasmuch as they do not provide that a board of professional assessors will be appointed to setect the designs, and further that the conditions do not guarantee to the author of the winning design the commission of carrying out the work at the regular commission.

In the face of the printed conditions, it is difficult to understand the object of your department in advertising for competitive plans in such a case. If the Government were to ask an individual architect to prepare preliminary plans for a mansion to cost $\$ 225,000$, the minimum commission for such preliminary drawings, without any furlher work, would be $\$ 2,700,000$, and if I understand the conditions correctly, the Government is asking for this information for $\$ 1,000.00$. Surely the Department does not suppose that any educated architect capable of building a gentleman's mansion would enter a competition under those conditions, or under a condition where his preliminary studles, which would naturally express his best effort and only reciuire mechanical development, might be carrled out by some ofie else, for instance, the architectural staff of the Department.

At this moment, as you are no doubt aivare, the architects of Canada. from Haljfax to Vancouver, are protesting to the Federal Government the unfairness of applying this principle to the erection of Departmental buildings at Ottawa, for which a competition was recently held and under which the architects who competed naturally supposed that the winning author would be commissioned to carry out the work.

If the profession of architecture in Canada is not to look for support to the Government, Provincial and Federal, where is it to be found? And if proper attention is not paid to the development of architecture in this country. what will the future appearance of the country be?

With this I send you a copy of the Year Book of the Royal Architectural Instltute, which contains on pages 22 to 24 the regulations for the conducting of architectural competitions approved by the Institute, and I trust that your Department will find it possible to amend the printed conditions in accordance with these.

This letter is not writtell in a critical sense at all, our eftort is to improve the architecture of Canada. Government support is essential to our success in this direction. All advanced countries have abandoned the jea of having important buildings designed and carried out by departments. Architects in private practice are employed and are always ready to collaborate with the chief architect of the Department in the matter of supervision of the construction. A Government house above all buildings demands a design and plan indicating good taste and culture, and I feel sure that on further consideration you will decide to supplement the printed conditions by adding the matter contained in the second paragraph of this letter, which on behalf of the Institute, I assure you is essential to the siliccess of your otherwise most interesting competition.

Yours truly,
F. S. Baker

Presldent
Hon. J. O. Heaume,
Minister of Public Works. Parliament Buildings, Toronto.
The following is the reply to Mr. Baker's communication by the Hon. Dr. Reaume, in which the Minister of Public Works shows very plainly that his conception of the proper conduct of architectural competitions is sadly in error.

He states that it is for the Government to decide the conditions of a competition, and that the architects may compete or not compete just as they choose. He further intimates that the plans are not to be judged upon their
architectural merits alone, but that "the prize will be given to the one that is most satisfactory to the Department." He does not state whether he means to the architect most satisfactory to the Depariment, or the plan most satisiactory to the Department. Again, it will be noted that he dces not give any assurance that competent advice, as the profession would view it, would be obtained to aid the Government in the selection of the designs to be awarded the prizes. However, the last paragraph of Dr. Reaume's letter appears to be designed to give a halfhearted assurance, that the author of the winning designa wou.d be given the commission to carry out the work.

Department of Public Works,
Minister's Oflice,
Dear Sir:
I have received your detter of the 1st instant.
I regret to observe the language used by you to the effect that "the conditions are, of course, such that no self-respecting architect could conform to." etc., etc.

The conditions are for the Government to formulate, and, of course, architects and other persons Interested in them can govern themselves according to their best judgment.

You are evidently under a misapprehension as to what the prize of one thousand dollars means. It is not necessarily a prize for the best plan, architecturaliy speaking. At least, if I make myself clear, something more than abstract architectural merit will be required. Having regard to the structure we desire to erect, etc., ecc., the prize will be given to t.e one mosi satisfactory to the Department, and in coming to a conclusion the Department will take care to procure and receive Information from thoroughly competent sourees.

I may also say that, as will appear from what I have already stated, the author of the winning decign will in all probability receive the commission of carrying out the work.

Yours very truly,
J. O. Reaume.

Mr. F. S. Baker,
Royal Arch.ítectural Institute,
Toron ${ }^{\circ} \mathrm{O}$, Ont.
The following is a communication addressed to Sir James Whitney, relative to the matter, by Mr. F. S. Baker, to which, it may be said, no reply was made:

June 1st, 1910.
Dear Sir James:
I have the pleasure to forward to you a copy of an official letter which the Royal Architectural Institute has asked me to write to the Honorable Mr. Reaume, in connection with the proposed competition for the new Government house.

I should be very glad indeed to have an opportunity to discuss this: with you and the Honorable Minister. if your time will permit.

Yours truly,
F. S. Baker,

President.
Sir James Whitney,
Parliament Buildings, Toronto.
On June 10 Mr . Baker wrote to the Hon. Dr. Reaume, after a deputation from the R.A.I.C. and the O.A.A. had waited upon the Department, outlining the four objectional conditions of the competition.

June 10th, 1910.

## Dear Sir:

Referring to the Interview which you were cood enough to arrange this morning with the representatives of the Royal Architectural Institute of Canada and the Ontario Association of Architects, in connection with the conditions of competition recently issued by the Government for a proposed resiancencer the Lleutenant-Governor, in Toronto, this joint deputation begs
to submit, on behalf of Canadian arclitects, that it is desirable to supplement the conditions issu $d$ :

1st. By extending the time for receiving the designs to the 1st of September, 1910 .
2nd. By naming now a competent professional assessor, or assessors, to advise the Government in the selection of the designs.

3 rd. By making the first prize the commission of carrying out the building, and dividing the $\$ 1,500.00$ already offered equally between the three designs judged next in merth.

It will be apparent to you that for a large building of this nature Intelligent desigus could not be got ready by the 25 th of July.

The appointment of professional assessors in competitions for all important builaings is a usual and necessary condition.

That the winning author, provided he is a competent man in every way, should be given the carrying out of the work is also considered essential.

If you wish to consult us regarding the naming of a professtonal assessor, or assessors, to act with Mr. Heakes in advising the Government, or upon any other point, we will be happy to place our services at your disposal at any time convenient to you.

Yours truly,
F. S. Bater,

President.
Hon. J. O. Reaume,
Minister of Publle Works,
Parliament Buidaings. Toronto.

The following is Dr. Reaume's communication on June 10, which, we understand, closed the controversy so far as the R.A.I.C. and the Department of Public Works were concerned:

Department of Public Works,
Minister's Office,
Coronto, June $10 \mathrm{th}, 1910$.
Dear Mr. Baker:
I am in receipt of your communication of even date in which you set out the views of the committee of architects who valted upon me this morning wilh reference to the LleutenantGovernor's residence. I note what you state and can only state that this matter will be brought up in council early next week. I will then immediately notify if any changes from the present arrangements are permitted.

Sincerely yours,
J. O. Reaume.

Mr. F. S. Baker,
Architect, Toronto, Ont.
It is high time that Government officials, who are authorized to expend large sums of money in the erection of public buildings, should commence to realize the inportance of having thersise structures designed by the best architectural brains in the country, to secure which, they must surely understand that their method of procedure must be compatible with the ethics of the architectural profession.

The recent Knox College competition, which was closed a few days ago, was a really good one. The program was ideal, and the designs submitted were, generally sneaking, of a very high standard. Some of the best designers in Toronto entered the competition, and the assessors in the competition were all competent men, thoroughly qualified to act in such a capacity. In such comretitions the owner, whether a private individual, a corporation or a government, invariably secures the best services of the best designers, because the competing architect is given some assurance that he will be dealt fairly with, and that his designs will be judged on their merits by competent men.

> IAnnouncement in Letter by Frank Miles Day of Position Assumed by American Institute of Architects on the Question of Competition Programs.

WHILE WE HAVE THE MATTER of competitions under discussion, it is well to note the position taken by the American Institute of Architects on this very same subject, and from a letter written by Mr. Frank Miles Day to the Architectural R?cord, it appears that they have encountered in the United States, difficuties very similar to the one outlined in Mr. Baker's letter. It will be noted that the conditions insisted upon by the American Insiitute of Architects in competition programmes are very similar to, though a siight more exacting than those of our several Canadian architectural organizations. It appears, however, that the American Institute of Architects has adopted a very practical and effective method of eniorcing these rules and regulations which follows:

Recent editorials in architectural journals strongly support the present effort of the American Institute ur Architects to improve competitions, yet communications and minor notes show, In some cases, such a lack of information that it seems well that some statements on the subject should be made.

It is obvious that any improvement in the conduct of competitions can take place only as a result of the general enlightenment of the profession and through it of the public. After many years of discussion, the profession appears to have reached substantial agreement as to what are the essentials of a w 6 conducted competition. Without such agreement, the present advanced position of the Institute would be out of the question.

The Institute has made many at'empts to inform the public as to the proper conduct of competitions and to -issuade architects from taklng part in them except under proper conditions. Its carefully prepared statements, though they had an execllent educational effec*, were wl'hout other result since they were mercly advisory.
The Institute never has presumed, nor does it now presume, to dictate the owner's course in conducting a competilion, but it aims to assist him by advising the adoption of such methods as experience has proved just and wise. Bux the Insticute has
(Conclutded on page 89.)


Nodel of Fortion of Hamfstead Garden Suburbs.



#### Abstract

Summary of important event recently held at London, England, under the auspices of the R.I.B.A. Some of the more important papers presented before the Conference.


TO CANADIANS, the town planning movement, which for the past decade has been in evidence in the large continental countries of Europe, and which has been supported not oniy by architects, artists and engineers, but be municipal authorities as well, is ci great importance in our funte devesopment. The oldar countries of the worid in Europe have undertalsen the solution of this extracdinary problem. They are endeavoring to rectify evits and conations that have existe l ior centuries. Germany has already done much in this direction. Engiand aiso has dione a great dear to solve the housing problem as well as promoting the city beantiful iciea. In these oider countries the expense of changing the 1 )ans of oid cities is enormous, and the task before these manicipaitios of widening streets, creating new arenues and cleaning out old tenement districts, is a mosi dificult, stow and tenious one, franght with many intricate and gigantic problems.

But, in Canaria, we are creating new towns. Our cities that have aireadiy been estabishod are oniy in their inlancy, and it semps inerefore, that it is qui, reasonabie H:at but ontsmate engineers and muntinal officers. but the lay pubbic should profit by the mistakes of these odder comitries and wateh closely the methods now being employed by those that have given this subject much study in the proper plaming of their cities and towns. Our new towns and cities should be laid out according to a care. iunv conceived plan. Our larger cities should at the eariiest possible moment undertake to rectify the mistakes that have already been made, and to arrange, so that their iuture growth wouid be properiy provided for by carefully laid out scientific plans. The evils of the suburban real estate speculator operations are very evident on every side, and the public should see to it that the growth of
their cities in suburban clistricts is aiong lines compatible with good town pianning.

The Guild of Civic Art in the city of Toronto has done much in this direction. They have been successful ia having an Art Commission appointed, and it is to be hoped that in their cudeavors to provide plans ior a beautifus city in the Toronto of the future, that they will receive the unqualified co operation of every citizen.

Onc of the greatest events that has yet taken piace to ward the promotion of the town piaming movement was the Internationai Town Planning Conference recently hei,i under the auspices of the Royal Institute of British Archi. tects at L.ondon, England. The delegates to this confer. ence came from almost every country in the world, and the papers read, as well as the discussions, proved that there are a large number of brilliant, earnest men giving this great social and economic problem serious thought. Mr. Ir. S. Baker, president of the Royai Architectural In. stitute of Canada, was a delegate of this organization :o the conference. The following brief account of the conference in general by Mr. Baker, will be of interest in un reaters:

Opening with a meeting in the Guidd Hall and an in. augural adilress by the Hon. John Burns, the Town Plan ning Conierence beld at London from October 10th to the 15 th inclusive, and at which nearly 1,500 members registered, gave expression to the broad steps that are now being taken towards the sociological, hygenic and economic betterment of towns and cities in the more enlight ened countries of the world.

Unfortunately the weather, which for the preceding iortnight had been exceedingly fine, broke on the second day of the conference, and interfered with the comfort of those visiting the districts which had been selected as modets of their different kinds. Aside from this, how.
ever, the event was held under the most auspicious circumstances.

The great success of the conference was due to the enthusiasm of the delegates from nearly all parts of the world. At nearly every meeting the hall was filled and overfow meetings were necessary. The splendid arrange ments which had been made by the committee of the Royal Institute of British Architects made it possible to carrv out the programme exactly as prearranged. It was notable at this conference that everything came out exactiv as was intended.

The exhibition at Burlington House was remarkable because of the very large number of drawings and models cxhibited. and was very much appreciated by the large number of visitors, the majority of whom were not members of the conierence. There was also a very comprehensive exhibit of maps and plans of London at Guild Hall.

A vast number of interesting and carefully prepared papers were read on various subjects, and as indicated in the programme these have all been recorded, and when


Design by Mr. T. H. Mawson for Dunfermline. From a Draw. ing by Robert Atkinson.
the volume containing all of the proceedings of the confer. ence is pubtished, it will make a notable addition to the works already published on this important subject. I predict for this volune, that the first edition will be oft of "rint in a very short time.

The social side of the conference was extremely interesting and consisted of a conversazione given by the Royal Institute of British Architects in their rooms on the evening of the first day; a smoker, also held by the Institute from nine to ten pim. on Tuesday and Friday evening, both of which were very largely attended and most enjoyable; the conference banquet, which was held on Wednesday evening at the Hotel Cecil, and at which dinner more than 500 ladies and gentlemen were seated. the magnificent banqueting hall being well filled, and with the beautiful floral decorations and splendid speeches this banquet was one which will long be remembered.

The Hon. Whitelaw Reid, Ambassador from the Unit-
ed States, threw open that most interesting and palatial residence, Dorchester House, to a limited number of the members of the conference, who were invited to an At Home given by the Minister on Thursday afternoon.

On Thursday evening the Lord Mayor and Lady: Kinill gave a reception to the members of the conference at the Mansion House, which was largely attended. In


Design by Messrs. C. E. Mallows and T. H. Mawson for Dunfermiline. From a Drawing by Robert Atkinson.
teresting in itseli, this historial old building was made exceedingly attractive by the throngs of gaily dressed people, the beautiful decorations and illuminations, and the charming music.

The art of town planning was undoubtedly advanced a long distance by this conference, and similar meetings held in the future will do much to improve the conditions under which those who have to live in towns exist. The making of beautiful streets, squares, parks and pleasure grounds, the forming of streets, etc., in a way which will give convenience and practicability, and the housing of the artisan in a manner from which he and his family can derive health and strength, rather than the opposite. is now being given close attention throughout the world.

In this new country, where there are at present some two hundred cities in an embrvonic state west of Winnipeg, it is for us to benefit by what has taken place at this recent conference, and to bring the standard of our towns and cities up to a point which will not be surpass ed br any comerry in the world. Every town should have its Guild of Art, and every town council should lend its ear to their advice, for town planning is undoubtedly an art, and art is something which only a few people absoris to an extent which permits them to impart it to others, therefore when the man who is a known artist speaks, the bayman should listen.

sketch Plan of Mr. Leonard Stokes' Scheme for Approach to Sir Aston Webb's Plan for the Mall.

In connection herewith we publish, cither in whole or in part, a number of papers read at the conference, toyether with several illustrations of schemes that are being worked out. or proposed, in England, Germany, and the United States, believing that those selected will prove of special interest to Canadian architects and those concerned with the "City Beautiful" movement in Canadi.

## Town Planning Bill.

A sociological reason for carefully planned schemes in connection with the upholding of new centres, and the reconstruction of many of the older districts, was outlined by the Right. Hon. John Burns, author of the Town Planning Act in England, who in following the opening


Pićcadilly Circus, London: Plan as Existing.
remarks of President Stakes, of the R.I.B.A., delivered the inatugural address at the conference.

People oi the poor towns suffered, as a rule, from poverty of spirit as well as lack of means. These dismal spirits were oiten caused by their squalid surrounding:. It was a daily occurrence to see children's character spoiled and their natures stunted by the depressing circum. stances under which they lived. The spoiled life and the soiled home in the slatternly street were too often the causes of drink, degradation. loafing, and dependence in many of our large cities. The towns and districts where the money was made ought to be as cheerful as the dis. tricts where the money was too often foolishly spent. When a slum vanished a brewery fell and public houses disap. peared, and there was a greater reason than architectural symmetry and artistic appearance in a town planning scheme. Fifty per cent. of our total pauperism, and more than 60 per cent. of its total cost, much of our lunacy and debidity, and a great deal of our crime were due to sickness. Disease could not be fought and exter.


Plecadilly Circus, London: Plan as Proposed.
minated unless we let in sun and air into our houses and streets. So long as casual labor lived in squalid courts. ugly diwellings, and rotten tenements the country would continue to turn out nerveless mannikins instead of enduring men, and motherhood, childhood, the race, and
society demanded the demolition of the festering slum and the erection of pleasant towns and dignified and comfortable cities. Was it possible to get what was wanted? A review of what has already been accomplished would seemingly indicate that it was. - In England great strides had been made in connection with the town-planning movement-greater strides, considering their ancient difficulties, than any other country in the world. At Bournvil!e. Port Sunlight, Hampstead, and other places could be scen some of the most beautiful domestic architecture that could be found in any part of the world. The upper and middle classes generally were being fairly well provided for by architects, and now the artisan was clamoring for something better than a hovel. He was secut:ing a home at Bourneville, Port Sunlight, Tooting, Ealing and many other places at a rent and of a character and a beauty which were not within the reach of the average artisan twenty five or thirty years ago. The artisan had come forward and said: I want something better than a hovel; I want a home for my children at a modest rent, and of a character and beauty which were not within the reach of the average artisan twenty five or thirty years

ago. It was necessary to consider the great mass of man kind, the hewers of wood and drawers of water, those who are lower even than the artisan, the unskilled and casual laborer; and the responsibility rests upon us so see that the laborer was provided with infinitely better housing and street accommodation than he now secured. The great town plaming movement must not end in a few cities getting all the talent, most of the money, and the best of the improvements. The East-end wanted "West. ending" in its reconstruction. Wigan had got to be taken in hand as well as Westminster. The Potteries as well as London, and Bermondsey needed it more than Belgravia. For reasons industrial, social, commercial, and Imperial, town planning must go hand in hand with better housing. wider roald, higher wages, and increasing sobriety. Town planning was very belated, but it was not too late. The gradual reconstruction of a city was a very serious matter for all. If planning was neglected it the beginning or badly done through timidity or lack of imagination, it placed a burden for 50 or 100 years upon progiess, and paid seven or eight times over for their


Designed for Central Boulevard, Public Library and Museum, Port Sunlight. From a Drawing by Robert Atkinson.
lack of prescience and daring. It was no good pitching into Mr. Jerrybuilder too much. Mr. Jerrybuilder was creeping up. For proof of it they had only to look at the surroundings of a garden city, where builders tried to live up to the example planted in their midst. Mr. Property Owner, who often umloaded on the jerrybuilder and architect much of the responsibility he should take upon himself, had littered the earth with his squalid tenements and his ignoble streets. The speaker believed that the landlords as well as the ratepayers would benefit it they did what the best architects were advising them th do. Garden cities were magnificent in themselves, but they were a hundred times more useful in the inspiration they supplied to others. In the past property owners seemed to have thought that parsimony meant economy. Therefore, they narrowed streets, contracted rooins, and looked upon a beautiful vista as the eighth deadly sin. The Philistine was being taught that houses, roads, and bridges might be made without loss of money to harmon ize with beauty. It was with such objects that the Hous ing and Town Plamning Bill had been framed and passel. The reception it received was an agreeable surprise. It should be given an indulgent trial, and if it could be, it would be amended and improved so that their object should be secured. Its modest object was comfort in the house, health in the home, dignity in their streets, spaces in their rcads, and a lessening of noises, smoke, smells, advertisements-all the nuisances that accompanied a ciry without a plan, because the rulers were governors with out ideas, and the citizens without hopeful outlook and imagination.

## Modern Difficulties.

In tackling this great job modern communities had little to learn which ancient ones did not teach them. Where in other times, for military or other reasons, the streets were narrow and the citizens crowded, compensa tion was given in large spaces, fine squares, and picturesque buildings. It was true that there were modern dis. abilities from which communities formerly escaper. But the ancients were better off in one respect than the me. chanical modern. Rome, Florence, Salamis, and Athens did not have imposed upon them the vandal disabilities that the modern town now had as a burclen. Athens did not have 600 mi'er of railuay as London had, or ugly viaducts, creating Auls dc sac of mean and poor streets, with 500 ugly ratilivay stations spoiled by vulgar advertisements; it had no gas works. and was without the 7,000 public-houses London possessed--nearly all of them at street corners, in positions which ought only to be occupied by banks, libraries, post offices, and police stations. London laborerl under the disadvantage of having all the burdens of light, heat. smoke traction, and rapid communication which the ancients did not have. When it got rid of the 7,000 publichouses it would not need the police stations, but the measure of its difficulty ought to be the extent of its determination to grapple with these abominations. Let them go up the Monument, look westward and see what Cannon Strect Railway Station hid of the river and the city: Ttwould be a béssing if it wiould iall, as Charing Cross fell, only without hurting anybody:

As regarded the planning of towns. it was necessary to remember that cities should be as varied as the people's who lived in them, and that they ought not to too slavishy copy after other municipalities. Wide roals were good. but they did not want too wide roads, if it was at the cost of the tenement behind. Then, in their wide roads, care must be exercised not to litter them with endless kiosk: posts, refuges, and other things. There was often a danger in space. Trafalgar Square, in his opinion, was ton small, and the Place de la Concord too large, beautiful although it was. He thought there were too many trees in Toronto, and not enough in Berlin.

Town planning, in the speaker's opinion. should be applied rigorously and at once, bitt there was one person who stood between the authorities, the architect, the engineer, the surveyor, and the medical officer, and that was the layman who paid the rates and the taxes. The lay.
man, the Philistine, and the economist, however, could be converted if the trouble was taken to teach them.

## Planoing of Hellenistic Cities

Proiessor Percy Gardner read a paper on "The Planning of Hellenistic Cities." In the course of his remarks he said:

It is certain that recent archæological discovery has proved to us that the Greeks were more modern than we supposed.

If Euclid and Archimides, Zeno and Epicurus, Theocritus and Menander, Deinocrates and Pythius came to life, they would fit into the modern world far more easily than would our own heroes of the Middle Ages.

Architecture and the planning of cities went through, in the ancient world, the same two phases through which they have gone in the modern world. The old cities of Greece, in the age before Alexander the Great, consisted of narrow, windino streets bordered by poor houses. The central and important sites were occupied by the temples cf the gods, the senate house, and the town hall, the market place, and the gymnasium. The public buildings were large and splendid, the private houses were shelters for the night.

On the Ionian coast of Asia Minor cities were more orderly and stately. Heredotus tells us that the very ancient city of Babylon was four square, the River Euphrates running through the midst, and the streets inl rumning straight parallel or at right angles to one another. Something of this order and symmetry characterized the Greek towns of the coast. While the agora or market place in the old cities of Hellas was merely an irregular open space where streets met, an Ionian agora was square, with porticoes round it, and lying in the heart of the city.

A Greek city, even in the Hellenistic age, consists of four parts. First, the arrangements for defence. It was necessary to surround it with a wall and towers. Even when, in the age of the Roman peace, it became a custom to build outside the barrier of the walls, these were still maintained-as in the case of modern ironclads-to protect the most vulnerable parts. And above the city rose a.most always an Acropolis, at once the dwelling place of king or tyrant, an arsenal and place of arms, and the oldest seat of the city deities. Second, we must place the abodes of the gods in the Acropolis, or the lower city, with the sacred precincts which surrounded them. Third, there is the market place, with the porticoes or public buildings which surrounded it. Fourth, we have the houses of the inhabitants. Naturally we place this last feature at the end, in Greck fashion; a modern mind would probably place it first.
"As in old Italian cities we find a street traversing the site from north to south, with another passing from east to west, and crossing it at right angles. The centre was the altar in the midst of the agora."

Ancient authorities discussed the advantages of the regular arrangements of streets in a town from the hygienic point of view. The physician Oribasius maintained -imenthen roads were straight air flowed taster tircugh a citr, and most freely of all when the roads were set to the four points of the compass. The great architect Vitruvius, on the other hand, though the free entrance of winds into a town a thing which it was desirable to cleck. Our own ancestors buiit rather on the principles of Vitruvius; we, on those of Oribasius.

The Greeks, both in early and later times, were care. ful to obtain for their cities a good supply of water. On all early sites we find extensive cisterns for rain water; but these were only for a supplement to spring water, or for use as a last resource in case of siege. in supplying water the Greek usage di.ffers notably from the Roman, and the difference is very characteristic and suggestive. The Roman brought water by great aqueducts, striding across valleys and ravines; he made his way straight to his end, without troubling himself about natural impediments. The Greek, more sulbtle and less determined, adapted himself more to the conditions. We have long
known of the wondrous underground conduit of Eupalinus, whereby in the time of Polycrates the Tyrant, water was brought from the hills to the city of Samos. At Pergamon there was a water conduit even more remarkable. From the heights of the Madaras Dagh, 1,700 ft. above the sea, the water of springs was conveyed by leaden - pipes a foot in cliameter.

The most striking feature of a well-planned modem town-the open spaces with lawns and trees and flowers, and the private gardens-were almost unknown in Greece, and, indeed, they are still comparatively rare in the cities of the continent. the limited snace within the fortifications leaving little room for such luxuries. We try to mix town and country: the Greek idea was to produce a wellplanned and self-complete township, enclosed by a wait and set in the midst of fields and woods.

## Town Planning in the Roman World

An address on the above subject was delivered befor: the conference by Professor F. J. Haverfield. LL.D.
then, viz., fortified groups of houses possessing a municipal charter, but covering a small space of perhaps thirty or forty acres, and whenever such a body of colonists went out the result generally was the birth, fully grown. of a new town. During a period of the Republic this practice was followed with varying energy, and according to ancient authorities about eighty such towns were founded, or some were refoundations of old and decayed towns. Under the Empire the creation of new towns went on apace. It would be a big task to enter into the process or causes which brought these towns into existence, for they varied in every case, but the central fact was plain that the towns assumed a definite form. Ancient life differed from modern life in nothing so much as in its preference for set and crystallized forms of life. and this was especially seen in the form given to the town. It was the old form which resembled very closely that which Professor Gardner had illustrated in his plans of Priene and other short-lived towns of the Helienistic periorl. It was the rectangular iorm which in all ages


Berlin: Proposed Opera Place. From a Design by Messrs. Mohring, Eberstadt and Peterson.
F.S.A., who sairl that town planing might be regarded as one of the intermittent sciences which came to its activity only at special periods and under special circum. stances. There were, of course, towns being planned for good or for evil at all times, ant there were cases such as Edinburgh, Newcastle, or Bath of isolated pieces c.f town planning in tiie eighth and seventh centuries. But in such cases the town planning was not systematic, for systematic attention to town planning occurred only at special periods, such as at periods of great expansion when large urban areas were being developed and towns were being created all at one moment. Professor Gardner had just described one such period, and another might be found in the early history of the Chinese towns in Central Asia, which had rectangular divisions of streets, such as was characteristic of the Greeks and Komans. It was the custom of the Romans and of the Greeks before them to send out emigrants to establish towns such as towns were
until twenty or thirt" "ears ago was the form for all sys tematic town planning. They met it in the Chinese towns of Central Asia, and where the Chinese got it from he did not know, althongh they probably invented it for themselves. They met it in Greece from the fourth century, and occasionally they met it in medieval England: and in many modern towns of the most recent times the square and the straight line were the simplest marks which divided civilized man from the barbarian. Not all the Roman towns showed this chess board, for Pompeii was somewhat irregular, but that city had a somewhat irregular history, and perhaps when the excavation was com. plete they might be able to figure out the planning and see what part belonged to Colonia and which belonged to the older town. Many towns which were one Colonia kep the old street lines to this day, and Turin and Florence were examples. They kuew from ancient history th:t Florence took its origin as a Roman Colonia, and they


Berlin: A Place. From a Design by Messrs. Schmidt, Havestadt, Contag and Blum.
would sec from a plan of the city dated 1427 that the streets divided themselves up into regular chess-board fashion, and it was quite obvious that the origin of Florence was the chess board plan which was proper to the Roman Colonia. The history of the city showed that the first stage was the plain Roman chess board; the second stage prescrved vestiges of this plan: and the third stage. which was that of to day, showed the Italian architects geing back probably guite unconsciously to the chess board plan, which was that of their Roman ancestors nearly eighteen centuries before. Professor Haverfield proceeded to show a plan of Timgad in Roman Africa, which occupied an area of forty acres, and was founded in the commencement of the second century, and said :t showed what Florence must have been like at its begin ning, and what a large number of Roman towns must have been like. In the centre was the Forum, and there was also a theatre and market and baths. Presently the city grew outwards, and regular straight lines were no longer preserved. Ancient law told them very little about any control of this rigid system of town planning. There was the nomal administrative control of water and sewage. and lighting where it existed as it did in one or two ancient towns, but one clause appeared repeatedly in town charters and enactments, i.c., "that without the consent of the town comecil no house owner may pull down a house unless he is going to build it up in at least as good a fashion as before." There was one Imperial edict which ordered that if a site owner in a town did not build on his site, anyone else might peg out a claim there. That, no doubt, was an excellent precedent for a good many modern architects, but he hastened to add that it was an edic: issued in connection with Rome after one of the largest fires, and was therefore an exceptional matter. Roman planning had influenced modern town life in vari-
ous ways. In Belgrade the old market place outlived the ancient Roman town, and another example could be taken from Trier, on the Moselle, in Germany. The old rectangular plan of this town was recovered entirely in the course of sewage operations, for the contractors agreed with the architects and archæologists to take notice of all the Roman streets and joinings they came across, and in this way a complete plan of the ancient town was arrived at. Cologne at the present day had no resemblance to :t Roman town, but nevertheless when they planned the thing out one could see that some of the streets did preserve vestiges of the ancient fashion. In the case of Silchester. in Hampshire, they had what might be called town planning put upon a wilderness, for the development was not strictly on town planning lines. Regarding a Roman house in Oxfordshire, which he had been digging out, and one at Cromhall, Gloucestershire, it was evident that these were not town houses like those of Pompeii and Silchester, but a conglomeration of such country houses. In England at the present time the inverse process was going on, and people were found building cottages in the country which were really town hotses taken out of a row. All Roman plaming was based on the supposition that they started de novo and had not to clear away or adapt, and there was no question of rights and property. Again, in all ancient towns the area dealt with was very small, and the problems which arose were entirely unlike those which existed in Chicago or Buenos Ayres. . Modern town planning seemed sometimes to be a matter entirely of gardens, but in the Roman town there was no need for any real open spaces, because the place was too small. The Forum was an open square, but it was not an open space in the sense of the modern square or circus. Lastly, there were no industries to plan for in the Roman town. Rome, it lad


Berlin: View of Moabit Quarter. From a Design by. Mèssrs. Schmidt, Havestadt, Contag and Blum.
been said, had no chemical science or industries, and for want of this science the Empirc came to an end. For want of these things also the town had no smoke or manu. factures, and there was no need for arrangement for factorics and for the consumption of smoke, which was one of the most important features of modern town planning.

## The Evolution of the Town Planning Ideal Since the Renaissance

Dr, A. E. Brinckmann, of Aix la Chapelle, presente: a paper on the above subject, frem which the following is reproduced:

The early medieval city was economically and suci ally a necessity of the urban population, but it had not yet come to be considered in the light of an architectural creation to be treated as a whole. The attention is centred upon the buildings, considered singly, round the square-i.e., the cathedral, the public hall, and the castles of the nobility, but not at all upon the idiea of unity. Hence the town as a who'e appears merely as an agglomeration if separate buildings and separate small castles. The streets and the scuares are merely areas left unbuilt.

It is but gradually that the strects and square acquired a life of their own and that the ground plan became de. finite. It was little by little that the Piazza della Signoria in Florence, owing to the demolition of houses by the nobility, was extended and assumed greater regularity. after, about 1300, the Town Hall had been built. The Renaissance demanded a single external calmness in the form as against the restless aspect and anarchy of the medixeval towns. To develop town planning as an artistic unity, as had been the case before in the Perikles style of town construction, was the object of the Renaissance. We find an example of a town built with regular lines of strect intercepting, one another at right angles in Leghorn, which dates from the sixteenth century and repre. sents the masterpiece of De Medici Dynasty.

The influence of Rome was immense. Without the influence of that city modern town planning would be inconceivable. Such perspectives as found in Rome have been models, more or less powerful, for other cities.

The development of the conceptions of town planning. whose native place was Rome, was taken up by France. and first of all by Paris, under a monarchy which looked upon town architecture as the highest expression of its nower. If the architectural eftorts of Rome were like a violent explosion of energy, France, on the other hand. smoothed down the strong contrasts and improved the hatrmony. The idea of considering a city as a unified work of art had already bpeen conceived in France, and if at Vitrey le-Francois (1545) we find a plan exactly in accordance with the principle of the Italian Renaissance, the French architects also designed new forms.

The typical town square originated about 1700 in the Place des Victeries and in the Place Vendome (formerls Place Louis le Grande) in Paris. The facades in the square are uniform, and not high relatively to the area of the space. We find a sblendid example of proportions in the sizes of the buildings and in the conception of French architects of rhythm in matters of space in the Place Royale at Nancy, which of all the French "places" or squares is the one best cxample preserved. The movemont in favor of rectangular spaces is indicated by the prominence of the contours of the buildings round th: square from the triumphal arch towards the Town Hall, which becomes the predominant edifice, whilst it rises at the same time towards the Carriere, and the way leading to it becomes more monumental. The view through this gate towards the square lacks the powerful movement of Rome, and the square itself is not only an imposings frontal square for the Hotel de Ville, but also a space ior festive gatherings. The central closed square of the Renaissance is now becoming more anmated after having passed through those periods.

A star-shaped square, even, is formed architecturally in this manner. When Roussel, in his scheme for the
construction of a Place Louis XV. in 1748 designed six of the ten streets converging upon the square with por tals, he arranged for strong supports on two sides of the sfuare, without depriving jt of the character of a proper town srjuare. The ercetion of foumtains facing streets started this movement. The slender monument in the centre appeared as the point de ane of all the four streets.

The position of the strects round the Odeon in Paris show a montument which has been taken advantage of in this way, and where the front space and the streets stand in the most beautifui proportions to one another. Equal. 1. fine also is the Rue de Furenue, rising and widening lowards the high gate of the Limembourg.

In Germany we can observe in Freudenstadt, in the Black Forest. Which was built in 1599 by a German archi tect with an Italian training, a structure which is exactly the same as the Italian Renaissance constructions. The rectangular central square is surrounded by areades; in one corner stands the Town Hall, with two wings at right angles to each ether, and at the other the church, similarly designed. Four main streets extend perpendicularly. from the lateral centres of the market, and other streets run paraliel with the sicles of the market place. The early productions of this periol, like Nanmheim, Hanan, whici were mainly built for the French refugees, follow the regular plan only, without bearing the impress of the lofty conception of the Frencl architects. Nevertheless, sometimes we find artistic productions of this type when they received the patronage of the ruling princes. In this re-. spect we must mention Erlangen. Here we find great beatuty obtainerl by the simplest means.

Next to the more common rectangular plans we find also instances of whole towns centrally agglomerated, as, for example. Neustrelitz, in Mecklenburg, which is built round a market place, and Katlsrule, which takes for its central point the castle, from which streets run radially through the town and the park.

The great designs were frequently originated by Frenchmen. or at any rate architects with a French training, as in the case of the scheme for buidding the Berlin Gendarmenmarkt by Bourdet in 1774.

Modern German town planning might well, after the depression of the nineteenth century, seek some instruction in the past. A certain romantic temperament, however, peculiar to us Germans, led us to overlook the lofty archi tecture of the eighteenth century, and we turned round towards old little towns, like Nuremberg and Rothenburg. I believe that the study of town planning in the eighteenth contury would be good practice for everyone. although it cannot-and. in fact, must not-be used as a standard. We find the town planning of that century continued in America, and embodied in the scheme for a general plan of construction of Chicago under Daniel H. Burnham. Whatever doubt the reader may entertain as to the de tails, what surprises him most is what might be termed the "will of a town." There is no longer now any ques. tion of a town being founded by the fiat of a sovereign; it is now a plirely democratic creation. It is the community which nowaclays has to take over the role of the princes of the cighteentli century in the foundation of cities, so that we may well sa." "Usui civinm, decori urbium." "

## Growth of Legal Control Over Town Development in England

Mr. H. Chaloner Dowdall, M.A., of the Northern Circuit, barrister-at law, presented a paper on "The Growth of Legal Control over Town Development in Englancl, Together with Observations on the Expense Incurred by Local Authorities in Carrying Out a Scheme Under the Town Plaming Act." He sairl in the course of his remarks:

There are threc ways in which the State may contribl action within its territory:

First, the State may establish conditions of general ap. plication and rely on the action of isdividuals acting with.

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Restoration of Selinonte, Elevational View. From a Drawing by M. Jean Hutot.
in those conditions to produce results. beneficial to the State. This may be called the common law method.

Sccondly, the State may confer on local authorities power to lay down conditions of local a-nlication, or power to acquire and control property within their locality. This may be called the local government method.

Thirdly, the State may itself lay clown conditions of local application, or may itself acquire and control properts. This may be called the method of direct State control.

Each of these methods, either singly or in combination, operates in the spliere of land development in which town planning occupies an increasingly important position.

The earliest system of land development with which we are concerned is that which was introduced and ma tured by feudalism, namely, the common law system, which governed all land development in England until the middle of the eighteenth century, and which still remains in force, subject only to those statutory limitations which have been introduced since that time. It is impossible to deny that much of the land, both urban and rural, has been and is being•admirably developed under this system. A country gentleman of the eighteentli century often bestowed as much interest and intelligence in the development of his estate as a great manufacturer does on his factory to day; and the squares, terraces, and semi public parks of London and the provincial towns are in many cases achievements which command admiration. More recent developments of unfettered enterprise are of even greater interest-model factories, model villages, garden cities, and the like are rising up in every part of the country.

In the eighteenth century, under the stress of growing manufacturing industry, the common law system was feit to be inadequatc. Villages grew into towns, traffic increased. and accommodation had to be found for a fast -multiplying population; landlords in urban districts, de. siring the fullest return from their land, often built houses closely packed together, without proper ventilation, ac. commodation or access: the roads in bad weather became almost impassable.

The cighteenth century, even in England was not great at representative institutions, but the Parliament of that time thoroughly understood trusts and private bills, and the remedy was sought through other means. A vast num. ber of Improvement Acts and Turmpike Acts and Canal Acts were passed whereby a corresponding number of. bodies of commissioners or trustees were authorized in
each instance to execute the trusts specially reposed in them.

Public improvements are still often effected under puwers conferred by the local Acts which every year pass through Parliament, but by the time that the Towns Im. provement Clauses Act was passed in 1847 one may say that the great period of special Improvement Acts promoted for each particular locality was drawing to a close; for the Reform Act of 1832 had been followed by the Poor Lav Act of 1834 and the Municipal Corporations Act of 1835, and the principle of carrying on local government by some uniform scheme of popularly elected representative bodies was now admitted.

In 1848 was passed the first Public Health Act, and by that of 1872 every municipal borough. local board district, and Improvement Act area was constituted an Urban Sanitary District, and similar powers were conferred on town councils, local boards, and improvement connmissioners. These powers were more clearly defined and consolidated by the Public Health Act of 1875. and extended in regard to matters with which we are here concerned by Acts of 1888 and 1907. By the Local Govern. -ment Act of 1894 a uniform type of more popularly elected urban district council was substituted for the local boards of health and improvement commissioners.

And now, having very briefly sketched the growth of local governing bodies previous to 1909 , a word must be said in conclusion as to the nature of the Town Planning Act of the year.

The Town Planning Act relates to land in course of development or likely to be used for building, and in cer. tain cases to land adjacent thercto, whether already built upon or vacant, and it introluces a new and ingenious method of procedure; the effect of a "scheme" approved uncler the Act is that of a Private Act of Parliament, but the "procedure regulations," which take the place of standing orders in Private Bill or Provisional Order procedure, are specially adapted to the requirements of the case; the central criticism and control, instead of being exercised by a committee of either House or by Parliament itself, will be exercised by an expert department of the Local Government Board, Parliament only reserving to itself a right of veto in certain circumstances. The local authority also, which for this purpose may be either a Rural or Urban or Borough Council, or a combination of them. appears, either spontaneously or possibly under comnulsion, as promoter of the scheme and as responsible for its execution. The Act, in short, gives to the Local


Restoration of Sellnonte, Elevational Vlew. Fròm a Drawing by M. Jean Hulot.


Government Board a perfectly general power to make local Acts of Parliament, called "schemes," with reference to streets, roads, and other ways, including stopping-up or diversion of highways; buildings, structures, and erections; sewerage, lighting, water supply, ancillary works, extinction and variation of private easements, and all incidental powers. The only limitations on this legislative power vested in the Local Government Board are, first, that if anyone interested gives notice of objection to any scheme, or if the scheme suspends any enactment of a public general statute, then either House of Parliament mav within a limited time exercise a veto; and, secondly, ans person injuriously affected must be compensated.

This short account of the nature of the Town Plaming Act would be incomplete without some reference to the Development Act of the same vear, the road improvement clauses in which establish under the Treasury a Road Board, with power to construct and maintain new roads or to subsidize the construction or improvement of roads. orincipally in rural districts, to which the powers of Urb an District and Borough Councils do not apoly.

The Development Act gives the Road Board power to compulsorily acquire land for the construction of new
speculative builder we need hardly concern ourselves here, for this conference should certainly result in limiting to a great extent his powers for evil.

More attention must be directed to that prominent figure in our time, the progressive municipal administrator, who discards antiquated methods and appeals for the votes of the urban elector from his platform of "efficiency."

It was hinted above that even the enlightened town planning enthusiast needs some watching. The "clean slate" has a fascination for many people, especially for the capable administrator dominated by a theory. The civic reformer in every age has been disposed to sigh for the "clean slate"; but these reiormers must not be impatient. and must remind themselves that the tablets on which they draw out their scientific schemes are not foursquare, but of infinite variety in contour, and that the surface of them is already deeply bitten with lines plougherl cut by the comings and goings of many generations. For cities are not only made. but grow. Furthermore. the growth is conditioned not only by physical but by human environ. ment, and is closely dependent on history.

If we ask, Are these things to count for nothing? there


General Scheme of Mall System, Washington.
roads, and also to acquire land some 220 yards on either side of the new roads, the arbitrator for compensation in such cases being appointerl by the Lnedrbief Justice and the general control ceept in the hands of the Treasury.

## Town Planning and the Preservation of Ancient Features

Professor G. Baldwin Brown, M.A., Hon. A.R.I.B.A., in a paper on this subject, said the aim he had in view was the reinforcement, by arguments suited to the occasion, of the old principle that in the laying out and altera tion of our towns utilitarian considerations should not override the claims of beauty and of historic association; that zeal for city improvement and extension should be tempered with a conservative care for older monuments, and for those natural features which give individuality and charm to civic and suburban sites. The plirase in the title, "The Preservation of Ancient Peatures," is intended to include the natural beauties of the situation or sur roundings of an inhabited place. as well as its older buiklings that possess resthetic or historical value. With the
can be but one answer. Every responsible person who is concerned with "town planning" will acknowledge that
 reverent attention of the present: but here again the dan ger is that considerations recognized in principle may in practice be crowded out through the clamorous insistence of hygienic, artistic, and conomic claims.

The increasing evidence of the solicitude of the British Government for the safeguarding of this portion of the national assets is an encouraging feature of our time The policy that established the recent Royal Commissions in the three parts of Great Britain for the survey of these ancient monuments with a view to their preservation, is of the happiest cmen for the future. It is novel for a general Act of the British Legislature to throw the agi of the law round the beautiful objects of Nature as well as these of Art. It should be pointed out that the Govern bient is in this, following the example of some of the mor enlightened administrations of the continent, notably thos of Prance and Prussia.

The recognition by the Govermment in the recent


Vlew of Proposed Schemie for the Washington Common.

Town Planning Act of the national importance of this preservation of ancient features carries with it a logical consequence. It is obvious that there will now rest upon all the various departments of the British public service, concerned in building or pulling down, the obligation to assist in a loyal spirit in carrying out in matters of detail the expressed policy of the administration.

One practical object which is here in view is the de. vising of means by which alterations and improvements in our towns may be carried out without the disastrous demolitions of fine ofd buildings or the obliteration of the characteristic natural features of a site.

The arrangement of new streets and spaces in accordance with the configuration of a site, so that natural indications are followed out in Art. is so obvionsly right that one would apologize for mentioning it were it not for the glaring contraventions of the principle in certain modern towns. This does not mean that artificial lines of communication are never to be allowed. It is, on the other hand, a most grievous mistake, always as regards Art and often as regards economics and hygiene, when the configuration of a site is combletely altered by huge struc-
tures of utiiity or or display. In Edinburgh the running of solid causeways rather than light bridges across the low iying valleys has had the effect of cutting off communication between the upper and lower levels and of thrusting the latter down into sipualor. The cities of the well-to-do and of the poor are in this way slarply sun. dered. with the worst possible social and economic effects.

The demolition of ancient moniminents in the interests of urban extension and improvement is the last, but the nost important, point with which this paper is concerned. Its importance resides specially in the fact that in this department whatever is done is irrevocable. If in planning out a new quarter of a city a mistake be made, it is gener. ally possible later on in some measure to correct it; but when a fine architectural monument of the past is des. troyed or mutilated it is gone for ever.

It is possible that cue permanent result of the congress may be the establishument of standing committees to carry out its objects, and if this prove to be the case it might be practicab'e for one of these committees to undertake the very useful post of adviser to those in trouble about their ancient momments. giving them information as to




Chicago: Proposed Civic Centre. hfign by Messrs. D. H. Burnham and E. H. Bennett.
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where they could best obtain the sort of professional as. sistance they require.

## Cities of the Present

Mr. Chas. Mulford Robinson, Rochester, N.Y., U.S.A., read a paper on "Cities of the Present as Representative of a Transition Period in Urban Development.-The Evidence of Standardizing Streets." In the course of his remarks he said:

The city of the present is the town of the past at, generally speaking, an ungainly age. In the olden days, when, as we look back, we see shining toon it "the light of early morning and the maivete oi childhood," it was pre-eminently picturesque. The picture still delights the artist spirit in us.

But we know now that in those days the town was neither very wise nor very logical, nor was it industrially productive. To be sure, it was a sturdy young fighter, against fces of its kind; often it mischievously made a noise in the world; generally, too, it was light-hearted. It was, in truth, a real child city, playing well, fighting well, and, when tired, sleeping well. Indeed. like a child, it was prettiest and most picturesque when it lay asleep. Here and there we discover yet one of the number that has not wakened, and we steal up to it on tiptoe to gaze at the little slecper and sigh for civilization's childhood -for the care-free days of urban short frocks and touslen] curls. Piaying and sleeping were the occupations of the conmminty. Now few can work for themselves. Labor is become the community interest, and the fighting, play ing and sleeping are only individual or neighborhood con cerns.

So the towns of to day may be fancied as of long legs and arms, with hair slicked down and faces grown sad and serious. They have become poor fighters but great workers; their sleep is fitful and restless. They are the embodiment of a wealth-producing energy, and they have lost the joy of life. Their frames are not fully develoned for the work they try to do.

The city of the present is the town of the past, sometimes grown in size, but not adjusted to new conditions. l.et us take as illustration one very simple, though very important, matter that is within the memory of us all. Not in the picturesque mediæval city only, but in the city of cur own remembrance, it was necessary that the workman live near his work. That necessity is passing.

Nowadays architects and lawyers may have their office in the city and their home in the outskints; merchant and banker and broker may sleep in the country though their labor is in town; in multitudes the more progressive clerks and salesmen and their families occupy the long rows of detached and semi-detached dwellings that make up the outer residence zones of cities. Thousands of men. to be sure, still go to bed over their shops, still sleep with. in call of the factory whistle; but other thousands, in a throng that grows with astonishing rapidity, considering how radical the domestic upheaval involved, now have daily change of scene and air, entering at nightfall into a Deace which industry and commerce may not molest.

Obviously this is a social readjustment of incalculable whe But it hisenpressed itself very irandequately on the city plan. Though business sections and home sec tions have become divorced, and consequently have developed entirely different traffic requirements, yet. gener ally speaking, the street plan has remained unchanged.

Adequate recognition would involve two groups of changes, and these, when made, or if made, must definitely differentiate the city of the present from the mediæval town, and even from the city of the last century. These changes would be, first, the provision of long, straight broad radial highways of easy gradient. Such thorough fares, shortening time and distance to the outer zones. would facilitate the daily ebb and flow of travel, and would increase the area available for home building. Second, the changes would involve a re-arrangement of minor streets, adjusting them to the needs of the sections which they serve, largely new needs in home sections.

How unlike are the needs of various sections must be obvious at a glance. Contrast the traffic requirement of a street in the business district, a street in a laborers' residence district, and one in a region wholly given up io villas in spacious grounds.

To illustrate concretely, let us take the Borough of the Branx. New York-a region of delightfully varied topo graphy, and iilustrating within its considerable area almosi everv kind of suburban development. Yet here a general ordinance dealing with the arrangement of streets require; that all streets 60 ft . wide shall have a 30 ft . roadway, all streets 80 ft . wide a $42 \cdot \mathrm{ft}$. roadway, any street 100 ft . wide a $60 \cdot \mathrm{ft}$. roadway, etc. For example, as to the other aspect of the matter one may turn to the city of Washington, which we like to think of as so admirably planned There a law requires that all new streets shall be not less than 90 ft . in width.

Consider the economic loss involved in such "mechanical standardizing"-an evil of which the United States has no monopoly. In fact, Mr. Olmsted, summarizing his observations on a city planning trip in Europe some months ago, remarked that such standardizing was to be found "in not a few quarters of European towns, perhaps most noticeably in England."

The economic loss that results is of two kinds, and it is all reflected in the rent. In part this loss is represented by the actual municipal outlay for the paving and maintenance of the unnecessary street space, and in part it is represented by the increase in rent traceable to the amount of building land taken out of the market in order to supply the needless street space.

Fsthetically, streets gain nothing by excessive width. The grass and flowers, and air and light, can still be had. Assuming that it is our right to force them on the community, we still cou!d narrow any distinctively sece ndary street to such proportions only as the traffic really, all things considered, needs. For this would lengthen the abutting lots, and we might then establish a building line in front of which no structure on a given street, or portion of street, should project. If the community still feit the need of forehandedness, it could secure an easement over those restricted spaces; the desired amenities would become attributes of the home rather than of the strect. and better so.

Childhood is very dear and picturesque; but it passes at last in all our human institutions. Of these none is so complex as a city, and for none is absolute efficiency and adaptation to function so important. To plan streets on a system devised to meet the needs of an outgrown age is to impair their efficiency and to cause an economic waste which bears heavily indeed upon us all, and cruelly upon the poor.

In the ideal city of the future the system surely will not persist. Already there are numberlesss instances of its breaking down, and so fundamental is the planning of the streets that no other merits of the modern city can atone for shortcomings there. To our lost urban chikdhood, the streets of the little city of long ago were better arlapted than are most streets now to our lately-attained and strentuous urban manhood. We need to recognize the modernness of the problem, and to approach it with unprejudiced freedom and common sense.

## Cause and Effect in the Modern City

This paper was read by Mr. H. V. Lanchester, F.R.I.B.A., and is reproduced herewith in part.

The causes influencing the outward aspect of the city are of the widest imaginable range, embracing the whole life of man, and is it is hardly possible to conceive any factors, whether physical, psychological, racial, or social, that do not act and are not themselves reacted on by the structural environment of the community.

To state the matter more fully, we have the large factories and warehouses grouping themselves along first the river, for the sake of water power and transport, and subsequently the canals and railways when water power became unimportant and transport the main requirement.


The Chicago Exhibition, 1893: Court of Honor. From a Drawing by Mente.


Chicago: Michlgan Ave. Looking South. Design by Messrs. D. H. Burnham and E. H. Bennett.

We have the original city gradually taken up by commerce and exchange, the residential districts filling up by degrees the spaces between the star points composed of mills or factories, and the retail traders following along the main radial arteries. The most attractive district will naturally be selected by the wealthy, and the others will secure occupants on a basis of necessity or convenience.

The governing or official centre will, unless firmly fixed by tradition, slip into a position between the commercial centre and the wealthy quarters, while the leading places of entertainment will gravitate in the same direction.

There is, by the way, one factor that, dating from the remote past, still operates at the present time, to which we may devote just a moment's attention. Explanations of the tendency towards the formation of a "West-end," so clearly marked in almost every city (where the naturai formation of the cite does not forbid it), have been frequently attempted; the most usual is to regard it as a question of the prevailing wind, a solution which I have always felt to be doubtful. My own conclusion is that, the time of leisure and recreation coming towards the latter end of the day, man naturally turns his steps towards the brightness of the evening sky. Try the experiment; place yourself at four or five o'clock where the conditions in all directions are fairly similar without any preconceived intention, and see whish way you feel naturally inclined to move. Will it not be westward?

To resume our inquiry into the causes influencing cities as they are. Having maintained that these are not mainly economic, it may adnear inconsistent to admit that the general distribution of the city is chiefly determined on ecunomic grounds. But one may admit it and yet deny that this general distribution bears the more important part in the impression received. For it needs investigation to grasp it, while the character of the buildings, their local massing, and arrangements are obvious to the casual observer. It is in these cases that the ideals come into play.

Thus the British convention for a church or a house differs far more from the French or the Italian than the merely material requirements demand, these differences being symbols of similar ones in the conventions of life. National character and national ideals are the paramount influences, arising out of climatic demands and historic traditions.

Thus we find the English house designed to stand ia more boisterous climate than the French; but the English house in a sheltered position remains English, and the French, however exposed, will be French.

More important is it to take the broad differences in the manner in which two nations would approach the problem of erecting an important public building-say, : Law Courts, a case in which the very name starts us on our way, when we compare it with the title Palais de Justice; ours, short and businesslike, suggests the aim of fulfiling the practical requirements in a convenient and economical fashion, while the other hints at the first necessity of creating a mental impression of the dignity and paramount force of the law. The building abroad would not be wedged in between a congeries of narrow streets that it might be conveniently near the established quarters of the lawyers, nor would the designer be at pains to make the traffic lines in the building as short. and direct as possible; indeed, we find a spacious carelessness as to the number of steps to be taken between the various rooms, suggesting the intention that time is well spent in passing from ahll to hall and through vestibule, corridor, and staircase, if by this means the majestic dignity of the building may penetrate and impress itself on the mind. The varying importance attached to emotional influences of one kind or another must be regarded as one of the causes making for difference in the character of the city among the nation and even in different districts.

Is it not an almost invariable rule that the Anglican church shall build in some form of Gothic? Again, how would it appeal to the householder if his garden were left unfenced, as in the United States? Even the garden city
community compromises with posts and chains; while haif our building by-laws are based on no real necessity, but on traditional ideals.

As to the house itself, probably nothing determines the general character of the city so much as the dwelling unit.

The Englishman's notion for a house "all his own" does more to fix on us the type of our city than any othe: consideration. This is obviously not a matter of acodoes more to fix on us the type of our city than any other consideration. This is obviously not a matter of economics, but one of ideals; the feeling of privacy and of a certain dignity as householder, mixed perhaps with other less admirable motives, turns the scale in favor of methods that may not be more convenient and economical.

There are other qualities in our countrymen that cannot be regarded with so much equanimity, and which we can only stigmatize as inimical to the best developments of civic design.

In the main they arise from an unfortunate tendency to specialize in interests rather than to take a broad view of life as a whole. One thinks of nothing but commerce; another devotes himself to sport; while a third regards the acts as only to be taken note of at recognized times and seasons. if at all. The latter will perhaps fill the house with interesting pictures, his gardens with carefully selected flowers, or maybe he will go, with mind attuned to appreciation and criticism, to a pageant or play; but he will pay no more attention than the trader or the sportsman to the aspect of the streets through which he passes. Until national feeling is awakened in these res. pects, and we realize that our art is not a thing to be taken in specified doses at specified times, the ideal of the city as a thing of beauty in all the aspects of street, square. and park will receive but poor support support from the general public.

## Town Planning in Sweden

The progress of Sweden in town planning is recounted in part in the following paper, which was presented by Dr. Ing. Lilienberg, of Goteberg:

Sweden in the seventeenth century was strong, while the organization of Russia and Germany was unsettled. When Sweden had lost its greater political power it: Government always kept up the influence over the interior conditions and regulated the forming of the towns as well as the construction of the buildings.

And so we see that since the beginning of the sevell teenth century towns in Sweden haive been built according to fixed plans. A great number of towns were then laid out by the orders of the kings, and the royal charters were usually accompanied not only by drawings of plans that were to be followed, but also by regulations as to how these towns, generally speaking, were to be built. In the case of newly-laid-cut towns as well as those already existing, a grant was made of the ground required by the inhabitauts for their future main means of sustenance; and in this we see the beginning of the great landed properties usually owned by Swedish towns.

As a consequence, the governing powers had a very direct and powerful influence on the life and future of the towns: but this patriarchal time is over. There was a long period of transition in Sweden, which may be said to have liad its actual beginning in the public law of 1734, in which was anticipated a special law tuncliing the buis:ing of towns. and which lasted until such a one was forth coming, viz., 1874. But during these 140 years of waiting building operations were fortunately of such a comparatively insignificant nature that one did tolerably well with royal circulars and building by-laws for the various towns and, as a rule, by working out the plan for the develop. ment of a town and sulbmitting it to the king for confirma. tion.

However, in the fifties the towns begans to develop more rapidly than before. and in 1866 large extension plans were approved for Stockholm and Gothenberg, as well as other places, which plans were expected to be followd by: a large number of plans for smaller towns. The
desire to get stability and miformitv into the by-laws for the building of the various places now becanc inevitable, and forced on the building law for towns of 1874.

This embraced only the technical regulations for the planning and building of towns in conformity with the reguirements of hygiene, comfort, communication, and protection from fire; and a ivil !aw for the regulation of the juridical differences that might arise between the different economic interests that were of a conflicting nature in the execution of the town plan was not forthcoming until the jear 1907.

So far as I know, the law of $18 / 4$ is the first buikding and town planning law applicable to a whole country ever drawn up. which included all the various subdivisions 1 have just enumerated. It is true that at the moment it is being recast, as not beins in all respects in conformity with the times, but in very many respects it is still a pattern ior a law of this description, since it is dictated by a broad regard for the requirements of the citizens for Las: commmications, comfort, air. and light.

All town pians are carefully draivn on the seale of one two thousandth part of the actual dimensions. On the pian. or en a suppiementary plan, particuiars of the height and siope of all parts of the ground are indicated by the use oi appropriate means, and the plan is accompanied by the necessary explanations.

The town plan must be so prepared as to ensure:
That streets shall be wide and shail run in the directions most suitable ior traffic;

That large and suitable sites shall be provided for ma:kets, harbors, and other places where there will be much traffic;

That wide promenades (or boulevards), with shrubberies in the middle and roadways on each side, shail traverse the town;

That as many as possible other public planted open spaces shall be provided in the town.

When a new plan is nrepared, or an existing plan is altered, for the regulation of one or more districts of a town, regard must at the same time be had to the future regulation of other town districts which may possibly come into existence, so that an harmonious arrangeament of the whole town may be obtained.

In Swedish towns a private landowner may not send a plan for his property to the Government for approval. He has to apply to the surveying department of the town. and the schcme will not be sent to the Government unless it has been adopted iby the town council. On the other side, the town council has the right to make a scheme for a part of a town without any demand of the owner. The law of 1907 has, to a great extent. influenced the Englisin Town Planning Act of 1909.

In order to faciiltate the working out of a scheme and to stop speculation the community may claim a prohibition of wecting of buildings on a certain area that is to be planned.

In Swcden such restraint cannot be imposed for a longer time than six months, while, for instance, in the law of Saxciny it may last for two years.

When the law proceeds to divide the costs of the carry ang out of the plans between the owners and the community. ancl. besides, to setile all disputes between these two parties, it presumes it to be indubitabse hat not only the town but also the private owners will derive benefit from the scheme being carried out. The burdens have, thercfore, been divided between the landowners or those who are building and the community in this way: that the former have to bear the costs of the strcet ground up to the normal width, fifty-nine English feet, whereas the town has to pay for all the ground over this normal width.

In carrying out a scheme Swedish towns have a good help in being allowed to acguire right of expropriation, not onlv for the carrying out of a complete pian, but also of the whole tewn districts, provided these are insanitary or overcrowded.

The right of expropriation may also be acquired by a
town in order to secure main roads for traftic over certain districts not included in the town plan. With regard to such districts the town has right to get general rules laid down relat:ng to the building thereon without the necessity of making out a scheme for the streets. Our Swedish law enacts that the expropriation commissions must not take. into consideration the increase in value which has resuli ed ircm the carrying out of a town plaming scheme."

## Civic Improvement

Professor S. D. Adeshead. F.R.I.B.A., of the Department of Civic Art, Schoor ai Architecture, University of Liverpool, in the course oi a paper on "City" Improvement" said:

It is not often that an occasion arises for the planning oi an entirely new town, but opportunities for making improvements are constantiy happening. This is a con gress of architects. and our interest is in the first place an architectural one; thereiore, important as are those sociological, economic, and engineering problems which are always invotved where an alteration in a city is pres jected, I propose to deal only with the architectural is. sucs, and particularly with improvements in connection: with English towns.

In an age of constant international communication, the barriers which separate nations in the direction of their arts are the first to be broken down. At a time when Engiand and Germany exchange icleas by the frequent visits of their socictics and deputations, by international congresses and exhibitions, with cities like New York buist up in a decade entirely from "motios" borrowed from European models of the past-at such times it is impera tive that we look far afieid.

Lack oi cohesion in style is, of course, more noticeable: to us than to a ioreiguer. True we have had the infli ence oi Mr. Norman Shaw in comection with cur domestic work, but it is to our monumental work that I particuiarly refer. In America they have had the strong per. sonal influence of pionecrs like the late Charles Follie MacKim. anci in France a national style has clung about the traditions of the Ecole des Beaux-Arts. The lack of cohesion in style which I see in England may be largely: due to the Gothic revival of 1870 and thereabouts, ce:tainiy its destructive influence was never quite felt in other countries as it has been here.

The expression of endarance, solidity, playfulness, ele gance, etc., are wrap-ed up in questions of style and character. It is the correct expression of these things whicin is, after all, the important thing, and this can only be done by a sympatheric use of traditional iorms and a recognition of stylc.

Many of the worst features of modern architeclure arise ont of an exaggerated regard for the trivialities of mociern life, or owing to a too evident desire to explain some details of construction which it is felt must appear on the face of the work.

But apart from this question of style, yet very closeiy a:lied to it. comes the question of scalc. A comparison oi London with Paris or with New York, or a comparison of provincial towns, Liverpool, Birmingham, or Glasgow, with London, shows us that, after all, the æsthetic value of a town approximates very nearly to its appreciation of scaic. More than hali the mistakes that are made in con nection with city improvements in England trise out of a lack of appreciation of scale. By scale I mean not only comparative size, but also comparative appropriateness and fitness. I mean that to make a town look big it must be framed up in huge but simple lines, be filled in and interpenctrated by interests analytically separable and subordinate to one another.

A great city must be built on a great scale; it must have wide strects. wide sidewalks, and big butildings simply composed; it must concentrate its interests at points. and must not spread it about with reckless waste. I do not look disparaginglv ahead; on every side I see evi. dence of the need for a bigger scale, and the advent si the Ritz Hotel and Selfridge's Store mark a change. Still,
it is heartrending to think of the number of costly build. ings that have been erected in London and our provincial towns during quite recent years which, though big in actual measurement, in scale exhibit a miserably poor appreciation of the importance of their place. It is only by a bigger comprehension and a better appreciation of the subtieties of design that we can hope to get better scale in the architecture and composition of our towns.

In regard to sculpture, our system in this country scems to be to erect wherever possible portrait statues of great men. So far as I know this is quite a modern idea. I stand to be corrected, but I feel very strongly that the esthetic value of a piece of sculpture is the only value it possesses which is of any worth. Its exthetic value is proportionate to the power it can exert in arousing $a b$. stract feciing and not concrete ideas in the crowd. I feel that the portrait statue as such is best consigned to the gailery, to be regarded as a gailery piece, or shou'd be treaied as a bust or medailion surmounting a pedestal or supporting a scuiptured group of symbolic worth; the right sort of scu:pture to be placed in the city and amidst the crowd is such as te:ls an abstract tale-a figure of Liberty, Maternity, Justice, Peace, War, or some such symboic subject inspiring to civic and national pride.

The finest type of sculpture is that which is purely allegorical, which stands simpiy for the peotry of nature and of human life. This is misplaced midst the busy throng. It should be reserved for the quiet corner and for the park; not the entrance gateway or the centre of the main boulevard, but in the recesses of the green arb curs around the fountains, midst the flowers, where its intimacy with nature and its retirement from the throl, of the citt enables it to exercise a mystic charm.

Then we have the fountains, lamp-standards, and other incidents of a utilitarian kind. Fountains, like alle gorical statues, are seen at their best midst green trees and in quiet and seclucled spots. We need more non-traffic olaces in our cities; such places need not all be in the parks. Here, in replanning our cities, great improvements could be made. The quietness of our railed-in squares corresponds in some measure to what I have in my mind.

In conclusion, I may say we hear a great deal about English architecture preserving English character. I am one of those who look upon the expression of char. acter as being an affectation when not a sulbonscious sort of thing. It is significant that at this congress are repre. sentatives from man nations. Facilities for travel have made it inevitabie that we be dependent upon one another. We would be foolish to close our cyes to the successes of our neighbers; we would be as foolish to shut our doors unon the things of which we ourselves are proud. Year by year the architecture of the civilized world will become more cosmopolitan and international. We should not resist. but should welcome such a result.

## The City Development Plan

Mr. Raymond Unwin read a paper on this subject, from which we take the following:

Mr. John Burns's Town Plaming Act has wisely concentrated the attention of town planners in England main iy on the development of the still unbuilt-on areas round (xisting towns where the greatest damage is now taking place. We must, however, not suppose that we can con sicier the suburban areas by themselves. City pranining really involves the whole problem of the proper organization ci city life. The high degree of specialization upon whicin modern industry and life depend points to the probabiiity that a very large proportion of the population of civiized countries will contin'te to live in, or immediately about. great city centres. The growth of our industrial towns during the last century found us unprepared. We need to bring into our city life that guiding oversight and direction in making the best of the facilities which its position affords, and that proper correlation of all the dif. ferent parts which are found so essential in a great modern industrial concern.

The first thing to be done in relation to the extension
plan is to determine the general lines on which the city shouid be encouraged to develop; determine which areas it is important to reserve for industrial purposes, for providing new raiway accommodation, docks, harbors, ware houses, etc., and which should be devoted to residences of various classes.

In considering the general form which it is desirable that town development should take two extremes may be mentioned. Fither the town may extend in solid continu ous rings, like the rising of flood water in a shallow basin. or it may increase by the growth of numerous detached townlets spreading from some centre, such as an existing village or a railway station on the outskirts of the town.

The essential idea that after a certain size the develop. ment of a city should be by the formation of supplementary centres on the outskirts, and the recognition oi the importance of securing that the indefinite expansion of these and the central town into closely built up areas should be checked, and that defining beits of park, wood land, or open country should be reserved, seems to me of the utmost importance.

If towns of great size are to be wholesome dwelling places, it seems necessary to adopt one of two courses. Either we must give to every house a considerab'e extent of ground, which means spreading the town over an excessively large area; increasing unduly the clistances which have to le travelled and creating the maximum difficulty in supp.'ying and maintaining all the various services and conveniences of communal life, either material or social: or we must develop on the principle of grouping our buiddings together in certain parts and leaving adequate open spaces around each group. This seems to me both the right and natural course. It is rendercd easy by modern means of transit, particularly by street tramways, which have been found hitherto, perhaps, the most effi cient means of conveying large numbers of people about urban areas. It renders easier and less costly the distribu. tion of water, light, heat, telephone, and all other such conveniences, and at the same time fosters a much more interesting and varied character of development. City life is essentially co operative in character, and I do not think that the ideal cit" life will be the setting of every individual house within its own quarter-acre plot of gar clen, but rather the placing of groups of houses within their own hundred acres of park. This is the method of development that has in past times been adopted when sufficiently highly organized groups have made settlements for themselves. In the great ecclesiastical establishments of the Middle Ages, for example, we find thris methoil adopted, and, to take a most extreme example. it is said that in the days of its glory the Palace of Versailles has housed as many as ten thousand people-the population of a small town-all sharing and enjoying those glorious parks and gardens which surrounded the palace. Contrast the possibilities for social life and organization of this palace with what there would have been if those thousand people had been scattered over the park, each in his own cottage. A great many considerations must influence the widths of highways and minor roads.

Having settled the purpose of different areas, deter mined the general character of growth and the approximate dircetions tesirabie for main and subsidiary high: wave, the town p'anner finds himself with the following combonent parts cur which to make his design-namely. the main centre pcint or c'imax dominating the whole, the secondary centres in diefinite proportion and relation to it. and the main highwars linking them up. the whole giving the bones or main framework of the design. Many of the difficulties which have lieen found to exist in American cities seem to me to arise from neglect of the proportioning of buitdings and the cther essentials. The whole oi the town being pianned in relation to the smallest unit-the buidding block-it consists primarily of a mass of detail framework having no relation to anything but itself. The excessive inconvenience of the indefinite multiplica. tion of small units of the building block is forcing the American cities to attempt the very difficult task of supe:


Chicago: Proposed Plaza on Michigan Ave., West of the Fleld Mus eum. From a Drawing by Jules Guerin.

imposing a framework upon this rigid mass of detail, a task not only enormously expensive, but, from the point of view of producing a successful artistic result, well nigh hopeless; and looking at some, at any rate, of the plans which have been prepared for the further development oi American cities one is led to think that the fundamental wrongness of this type of plan has not yet been recogniz ed, as apparently they are but reversing the order that ha.s to be adopted in the town improvement scheme, and are trying to superimpose on a framework of main highways another rigid framework of minor roads, which, though it may have some distant relation to the whole, bears no proper relation or proportion to the spaces resulting from the character of the main framework. That the minor roads in the northwest corner of a town should be parallel with the minor roads in the southeast corner, though it may look pretty on the plan, is a matter having in real ity no value whatever; but that the minor roads should have a definite relationship to the secondary or main roads of the framework to which they are adjacent is essential as much for convenience and economy as for securing a satisfactory artistic treatment of the street. No system cuts up the land into more awkward corners, or more thoroughly destroys the street facades, than that which consists of a framework of diagonal highways laid upon a rigid gridiron system of minor roads, and from no sys. tem do such satisfactory road-junctions result. In town planning it is essential to avoid being carried away by the mere pattern of lines on paper.

## Rome

Dr. Thomas Ashby, Director of the British School at Rome, read a paper on "Rome," from which the following is taken:

The natural topography of the site of Rome and the circumstances of the growth of the cit, alike render any systematic scheme of planing a very difficult one to adopt. The main lines of the strects were fixed from very early days by considerations of an entirely different nature. The Palatine hill, the nucleus of the city, was no doubt occupied by the original settlers, owing to the natural advantages of its position. It was almost entirely surrounded by abrupt cliffs rising from deep valleys, swampy at the bottom, and frequently fooded by the Tiber, and was only connected at a single point with the tableland on the north by the ridge of the Velia, on which the Arch of Titus now stands at its north-east corner.

The first extension of this settlement, towards the east and south, formed the Septimontium, including the two summits of the Palatine, the Velia, the Fagutal, Oppius and Cispius (these three all parts of the Esquiline), and (perhaps) the Caelius.

It is to the middle of the sixth century, B.C., that tradition assigns the construction of the Cloaca Maxima by the Tarquins, before which it is impossible that the Forum could have been used as a market place. Professor Lanciani has well pointed out that the three main cloacre of ancient Rome-the Cloaca Maxima, that of the Campus Martius, and that of the valley of the Circus Maximusare simply in origin streams, which have been first regut. l-dabl and then roofed over. The iregular enursa of the first of these indicates this fact clearly. The inclusion of the temple of Janus within the city boundary must have been a consequence of the fusion of a Sabine settlement on the Quirinal with the original community, and the selection by the united body of the Capitol as their citadel (arx) and the seat of the tcmplum Iovis Optimi Maximi.

The Viminal (between the Quirinal and the Esquiline) and the Caelian (or the remaining portion of it) no doubt became parts of the city, either simultaneously with, or not long after the changes just dealt with, and the result was the city of the four regions Suburana, Esquilina, Col lina, and Palatina.

The next stage in the development of the city is mark ed by the "Servian" wall, which, on the west and east, coincided with the pomerium, while on the north and north-east it included a great portion of the tableland
from which the Quirinal, Viminal, and Esquiline originate, and on the south it took in the Aventine, which re. mained outside the pomerium until the time of Claudius. It thus enclosed what came to be known, at any rate in the time of Cicero, as the seven hills of Rome-the Patatine, Capitoline, Aventine, Caelịan, Esquiline, Viminal, and Quirinal.

The "Servian" line of fortifications was laid out with considerable skill, following, where possible, the edge of the cliffs of the various hills, the wall being there constructed on the same system as that of the Palatine, with blocks of similar size. Where it had to cross the tableland, from which the Quirinal, Viminal, and Esquiline originate, it was necessary (for a length of nearly a mile) to adopt a more complicated system of defence. A ditch, 30 Roman feet deep and 100 wide, was dug, and the earth thrown up on the city side; this was supported by a mass. ive wall on the top of the ditch, and sometimes at the back bv a smaller wall.

The lines of the streets were, in the main, dictated (1) by the natural features of the site, with its seven hills and their intermediate valleys, and (2) by the position of the gates in the Servian wall, from which issued the roads upon which the supremacy of Rome depended. When the city later on outgrew its boundaries and issued beyond the Servian walls, the main lines of streets were already down by these military roads. The city as a whole, however, seems to have grown up quite unsystematically; it had narrow and ill built streets, and the central portion, between the hills and the river, was cramped and overcrowed, though it had already overflowed into the Campus Martits. This area, however, which had originally served for military purposes and for recreation, was mainly occupied by public buildings.

Julius Casar was the first to grapple with the problem. He realized the necessity of improving the communications between the Forum Romanum and the northern portion of the city, and the changes which he made in the Forum and the building of the new Forum Julium were directed to this end. These changes were difficult and costly. In a letter written in the summer of 54, B.C.. Cicero says: "Cæsar's friends (I refer to myself and Oppius) have felt no hesitation in spending 600,0001 . in extending the Forum. The owners of the property would not consider any smaller proposition.

Augustus continued on the same lines, completing the plans which Cæsar had begun, erecting a temple in his honor at the south-east end of the forum, and himself adding another Forum on the north-east of that of Cæsar. He also carried out a second delimitation of the rival banks. Whether it is from his reign that the actual entbankment of the Tiber dates, we have no means of know. ing. Certainly the ancient system, as seen at the Pons Aelius (Ponte S. Angelo), has some advantages over the modern; the walls were arranged in steps, which gave three different widths to the river at different periods of the year; the flood arches coming into use as required. This secured a faster flow in dry weather, and prevented the silting up which now so often occurs, and considerably increased the water supply. of Rome. The first public Baths mermachrexrippa, wote constructed in \%is time.

The next great epoch of change in Rome is the latter part of the reign of Nero. This Emperor compelled pri. vate proprietors to reconstruct their houses in a more substantial way, and to allow greater width for the streets. He himself constructed public thermæ in the Campus Martius.

Vespasian, the founder of the new Dynasty, rebuilt much of what had suffered destruction during the tumults which preceded his accession, and, above all, the Capitol; he also added a new Forum, with a temple of Peace in the centre; he erected the Colosseum on the site of a great lake in the gardens of the Golden House; and, as censor, carried out a new survey of the city. The results of this were probably recorded in an earlier form of the

marble plan of Rome, which, in its present shape, dates from the time of Septimus Severus and Caracalla.

Trajan's most important achicvement in Rome was the construction of his immense Fortm, which finally solved the problen of easy communication between the centre of Rome and the Campus Martius. It is not easy to see why this solution had not been adopted by any of his pre. decessors. The discoveries of $1812 \cdot 14$ and those of 1906 have shown that where the column of Trajan stands, and also on the site of the north-eastern hemicycle of his Formm, there had previousiy been other buildings at lower levels and a different orientation; and the reference of the inscription on the columm must be, not to the original height of the hill at the point where it stands (for we can no longer believe in the existence of a ridge connecting the Capitol and the Quirinal), but to the greatest heiglit to which the hillside was cut back.

The troublous times between 235 and 284 allowed oi little building activity, except for the hasty construction of the cuccinte of Aurelian and Probus (270-282). Thesc walls seem in the main to have followed the boundary of the regions (and the octroi line), though they took great advantage of existing buildings, which were indeed made use of to about one. third of the total length of the enteinte. The walls are of brickwork, with an internal gallery anc towers at frequent intervals. They have, of course, dic: tated in large measure the subsequent topography of the city.
'The upper portions of the city of Rome were deserted after the Barbarian invasions, and the destruction of the aqueducts on which they depended for their water supply. and medieval Rome occupied only the lower portions of the ancient city, the hills being dotted with isolated churches and convents, but otherwise given up to cultiva. tion.

The hills were free of buildings for the most par!, and largely occupied by villas and gardens until after 1870. It was only then that the upper parts of the city began to be once more inhabited, and even at the present day the sonth-west portion of the area within the Atrelian walls still gives an excellent idea of the quiet and peaceful bearty, the disappearance of which those who have known Rome for forty or fifty years cannot help viewing with some measure of regret.

## THE TOWN PLANNING EXHIBITION

The exhibit held in connection with the conference gave the members and wisitors an excellent opportunit; to familiarize themselves with the various schemes that are either being worked ont or projected with "town plan ning" work. In commenting on this feature, the Builder. London, says:
"It is ne exaggeration to say that the exbibition mark ed an epoch in the history of architectural progress, for, after all is said and done, it is as a branch of architecture that the town planning movement will go down to pos terity, and this collection on view at Burlington Housc was more comprehensive in its character than any
 iairly claim to have been earls in the field in organizing an international exhibition of town planning. That the intention was absolutels realized cannot be contended. but that the attempt comes as near as it did is something to be proud oi. Nll the nations that have done effective work in this direction were represented, and if their ex. hibits were not quite proportionate, the relative represent. ation approximated more nearly to the correct one than in the exhibition held in the summer at Berlin.
"The Royal Acadeny is to he congratulated on its prescience in making this the frest occasion on which it has; granted the use of its galleries to another body, and its liberality in so doing deserves the warmest recognition.
"As might be expected, Germany and Austria were well represented, while the United States took a leadins: position. England's exhibit was as much as one wouil expect, but France and Italy were disappointing, the form.
er showing little beyond a fine series of plans of Paris and Mr. I-Ierrard's stuciics of civic improvements, while the latter's exhibit was limited to a series of plans of Rome."

Of the illustration shown thronghout these pages, the: are several schemes pertaining to improvements in Eng land with which a large number of Canadians are already. acquainted. One of these is a model of a portion or Hanmpstead Garclen suburbs, a project which reflects great credit on its authors, and which has beyond doubt the :esthetic and practical advantages of building up a district according to a preconceived plan. Equal in importance is the drawing, by Mr. Robert Atkinson, oi Mr . F. Prestwick's wimning design for improvement at Port Sun light, which shows the proposed scheme for a centrai boulevard, public library and museum. Other views show a design for a superarclied bridge crossing the glen from Comely l3ank at Dunfermline, and suggested public build. ings in a park at the same place, from a design by the same author and Mr. C. E. Nallows; also the existing and proposed plan for Piccadilly Circus as worked out by Mr. John Murray; a sketch of the Leonard Stckes schente for the approach to Sir Aston Webb's plan ior rearranging the Mall as a national memorial to Quecn Victoria. Sir Aston Wiebs;s plan, unfortunately, is not available for illustration.
'The proposed Opera Place at Berlitr. from a desigi 1w Messrs. Mohring. Elberstadt and Peterson, shows a most comprehensive and splenclidly conceived scheme, as does also the suggested "place" with its monnmental buildings and lofty towers, and the view of Moobit Quars er, Berlin, both from designs by Messrs. Schmitz, Havestadt. Contag, and Blum. All of these designs give an ex cellent idea of how thoroughly Germany has taken up the task of beatifying her towns and cities. Also notewortly is the drawing by M. Jean Hulot of the restoration $\therefore$ i Selinonte, and Messrs. Nicolson and Corlette's plan show. ing the gromed scheme and arrangement of the new Gov. ermment buildings at Kingstown, Jamaica.

Owing to the proximity, and also to the analogy exist. ing in many respects, between the two countries, the several designs suggesting improvements for Washington and Chicago, illustrated herewith, and which constituted the major portion of the American contribution to the exhibit. will undoubterlly be of interest to Canadians in general. These are reproduced from the same contemnorary, which comments as follows: The designs for Washington are based on the original plans of L'Enfant, plans that had been to a large extent obscured and de. graded during years oi neglect in the last century. Rail. ways had been allowed to take positions destructive of the lines of L'İnfant's scheme, and the principal station ac. tually encroached on the fine open space known as The Nall, which runs from the Capitol westward towards the river. One of the first objects of the plan prepared under the auspices of Messrs. Burnham, McKim, St. Gaudens, and Olmstead was to rearrange the railway routes so that they should no longer interfere with the fine surroundings of the Capitol, and this has been done by bringing them together at a point about half a mile to the north-east of centre terminates in a magnificent semicircular place, the forecourt of the great joint station, which is mainly a terminus, though the lines running south are continued through, and pass under the Capitol square towards the Potomac river by means of a tunnel. Thus all the railways have been cleared out of the central area of the city, and one of the most detrimental features removed.

The Mall itself and the fine park crossing it at right angles, about the centre of its course, had never been laid out and planted in a suitable fashion, while the buildings fronting it are out of alignment and architecturally unworthy. These areas demanded a complete remodelling, and the manner in which this is now being carried out will be seen from the accompanying drawings. Many other problems are linked up with this great central improvement. and some of the other drawings show how it
(Concluded on page 76.)

# CONSTRUCTION 



Ivan S. Maedonald, Ediecor and Manager

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## BRANCH OFFICES


#### Abstract

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\section*{Vol. 4 Toronto, December, 1910 No. 1 <br> CURRENT TOPICS}


CANADIAN ELECTRICAL FIRMS who are desirous of extcuding their trade to forcign markets, might well censider the field offered by British South Africa where the importation of electrical fittings for the first seven months of 1910 amounted to $\$ 1,110,000$, as against $\$ 386$,000 for similiar supplies in the same period of last year.

THE ROCKY RIVER BRIDGE previously referred to in these columns, has been formally opened at Cleveland, Ohio. It is built entirely of concrete and its great central span of 208 feet is said to form the largest arch ever carrict out in this material. The bridge in all is $\% 0$ feet in length, and over 50,000 tons of concrete were reguired in its construction.

THE LAUNCHING OF THE "PIONELR." the new Government scow, at Port Dalhousie, mark Canada's scow, which was built under the direction of Superintendent Weller of the Welland Canal, is eighty by twentyfour feet in dimensions, seven feet deep and draws three ieet of water. It has threc bulkheads and the deck sides, and bottom are two and one-half inches thick.

STEPS ARE TO BE TAKEN at North Vanconver to regulate the planning and erection of buildings. A by-law now in course of preparation is to be introduced in the Comeil at a very early datc. The proposed measure is being carcfully: drafted so as to incorporate such reguhations as have proved to be the most effective and beneficial in the more important cities throughout the Dominion. At the present time such restrictions as apply. are at the best of a very vague character, and the need of a by-law and its proper enforcement by a competent Building Inspector, has been felt for some time past.

A FIND OF RICH, RED MARBLE is reported from the Province of Quebec. The discovery was made on the property of Thomas Armstrong at Trenholmville, and experts who have examined the vein pronounced it as being of a particularly high grade and eminently suitable for architectural and commercial purposes. A Montreal party, it is said, has in contemplation the purchase of the property with a view to developing same and placing the marble on the market.

DOUBLE TRACK MMPROVEMENTS along the line of the Canadian Pacific Railway, are now being rapidly pushed forward. An official ambouncement states that within a years time, the entire system between Montreal, Toronto and Victoria Harbor will be provided with ad. vantages in this respect. While the double-tracking is going on, all the wooden bridges will be replaced by steel and concrete structurcs. It is also the intention of the company to increase the accommodation in every yard from one end of the system to the other.

## * * *

"PITT HOUSE," or "WILDWOODS" as it was originally known, is one of two historic mansions in the outskirts of London (E.ng.), which are about to be brought under the auctioneer's hammer. It was to this place on Hampstead Heath, then the property of Lord North, that William Pitt, the "great commoner" retired in 1766 within a few days of his double elevation to the premiership and the Earldom of Chatham. The other house is "Moray Lodge" one of the few remaining "country houses" of London. It is a very old house, once surrounded by fields, but now within five minutes walk of the Figh street underground station at Kensington. It still has beautiful gardens and lawns, shrubberies and rosary. Lately it has been in possession of David Pullinger, a South African magnate, who now wants to sell it.

REBUILDING THE HIGHEST BRIDGE in America, say the Building and Industrial Nczus, without disturbing traffic is the unique undertaking wlich the Gaiveston, Harrisburg and San Antonio railroad, a branch of the Southern Pacific, between San Antonio and El Paso, has begun. This great bridge is 328 feet above water and 2,080 feet in length. At present the trains are supported by a temporary bridge of wood. This was built before a support of the old brigge was torn away. The new bridge will be a great viaduct resting on concrete piers built in the bottom of the canyon. The necessity of rebuilding the bridge arose from the purchase of big Malict locomotives and the handling of heavier trains in the through traffic to the Pacific Ccast. This Pecos bridge is higher than any other of the North American bridges and is surpassed in other countries by only two others, one in France, and one in Peru..
nitude and architectural merit is among the contemplated improvements at Cclombo, Ceylon. At a public meeting recently held at that place, a reguest was drafted and forwarded to the President of the Royal Institute of British Architects asking him to suggest the names of two or three distinguished arclitects who will submit to the design committee, and subseguently to the general committce, specimens of the ecclesiastical works of the realm. While the reguest was made directly of the R.I.B.A., other architects, whether in Ceylon or elsewhere, who are desirous of submitting specimens of their work or designs for a cathedral may do so and their work will be duly considered by the design committec. When the final sclection of an architect is made he will be asked to make a study of the subject on the spot to acquatint himself with local conditions before the work is commenced.

BUT LITTLE IS KNOWN on this Continent, and even in most European countries, regarding moler bricks, a Danish product which was first exhibited at Aarhus in the summer of 1909. The salient feature of the brick is its unusual lightness, combined with great strength. The clay from which it is manufactured is found in certain localities in Denmark, especially in Jutland, on the shores of the Limfjord. In a dry condition the moler clay is white or of a lightish grey color and is largely composed of shells (Silex algoc). It is claimed for these bricks that, apart from their lightness, they are not liable to crack even when a nail is driven into them and that they possess insulating qualities and can be used in the construction of stoves when in close proximity to wuilen partitions or for the brickwork of steam boilers.

THE MEDICAL HEALTH OFFICER of Hamilton has started a crusade to close all houses, which, in his opinion, are not fit for habitation. A similar effort, which was made a year ago, resulted in one or two structures being permanently vacated, but as there are still quite a number of dilapidated and unsanitary frame dwellings, it is the intention of Dr. Roberts, the official in question, to conduct the present campaign along more comprehensive and vigorous lines in order to relieve the city of a grave and dangerous condition. Practically every city has its quota of tumble-down, antiquated, disease-brectling shacks, and while their removal or enforced vacancy might, in one or two cases, work a possible hardship, yet the physical and moral welfare of the community demands that such steps should be taken. Although the Hamilton Bcard of Health has no power to order the razing of such structures, it is invested with authority to at least close them up and see that they are not a menace to the public's health. Under these circumstances, the object aimed at is eventually attained, as with the pur. pose and earning power of these houses thus destroyed, together with the accumulation of the yearly taxes, the owner is forced to either get rid of his holding or else replace it with a better and more improved structure. The "Ambitious City's" policy in this respect can be adopted by other municipalties to advantage.

A SOMEWHAT NOVEL PLAN for constructing concrete walls without the employment of forms, either wood or metal, was adopted in extending the exercise grounds of the Allegheny County Work House, at Claremont, Pennsylvania, where concrete slabs, molded in a simple way, were employed as forms and used in such a way as to become an integral part of the permanent wall construction. In all, 710 ft . of walls, twenty-three feet high, were constructed at an expense to the county of between $\$ 1.90$ and $\$ 2.00$ per cubic yard, exclusive of the cost of tools, labor and superintendence. The slabs used are reinforced with a triangular mesh, and are uniform in size, being two feet wide, four feet long and three inches thick. They were cast in open forms laid on the ground, ancom making them a small wire loop was placed in the forms, six inches from each corner, the ends projecting up into the concrete when applied. The upper layer of the concrete which forms the exterior of the wall is made of sand and fine gravel, and has been given a fairly smooth surface. When properly liardened the slabs were set on end in mortar, the distance between them being thirty inches, thus making the completed wall three feet thick. The slabs are fastened in position by a wire which passes through the loops inserted in the moulds and which project on the backs of the slabs. They were placed at exactly the proper distance by inserting wooden spacers, which were removed after the concrete was poured and spread. The wall was designed by Arch. F. C. Sauer, of Pittsburg, and constructed under the direction of the superintendent of the Work House, A. H. Leslie.

BUILDING SUPERSTITIONS in remote times, says an exchange, found expression in sacrificial offerings during the erection of a building, either public or private. Sacrifices were not only made at the completion of structures of all kinds, but also during the time the work was in progress. The foundation themselves were usually laid in blood, whether the structure was a castle, bridge, cottage or temple. Originally-tracing the subject back to heathenish times-the sacrifice was offered to the god under whose protection the building was placed. In early Christian times the bloody rite was retained, but was given another significance. In those days it was generally believed that no edifice would stand unless the cornerstone was laid in mortar mixed with blood. Usually the blood was obtained by sacrificing a dog, a pig, a wolf, a black cock or a goat, and not infreguently some malefactor's blood was poured out to make the ceremony more impressive.

RENOTE IN SITUATION as it is, and only brought to the attention of many by such occasional and fascinating tales as the "Foot Prints," Lower California nevertheless, is not without its town-planning schemes, such as is now evident in all progressive countries throughout the world. An announcement has just been made by U.S. Consul George B. Schmucker, Ensenada, Mexico, of the completion of plans for founding an entirely new city on the line of the new San Diego and Arizona Railway, near the old towns of Tia Juana, and the international boundary. The plans for the New Tia Juana, as the place will be known, call for well-constructed streets, a modern hotel, a casino, a sunken garden, a theatre, a Spanish bull ring, pavillions, and other places of amusement, including a lecture hall, plunge baths and library. The scheme in general has been worked out on quite an elaborate scale, and while the primary object of the enterprise is to found an amusement resort, a town of considerable industrial importance is also anticipated.

ACCORDING TO A LATE ISSUE of the London Daily Newos, the village of Brightling, about 9 miles inland from Hastings, possesses probably the most novel collection of strange buildings to be found among the British Isles. Ahont half a century ago a certain Squire Fuller, the chicf resident, who was possessed of great riches, spent money lavishlv in the erection of numerous quaint build. ings, with the idea of rendering his memory imperishable in the little village. Squire Fuller's eccentricity earned him the sobriguet of "Mad Jack." Perhaps the most re. markable of the buildings is the Sugar Loaf House, in which the "Mad Squire" was anxious to immune a man for seven years, during which time the victim was neither to shave, wash nor hold any communication with the outside world. His food was to be passed in through a window. There were several candidates for the experiment, but the authorities intervened and forbade the execution of the wild scheme. The observatory-contains in the dome a camera obscura, which the Squire placed there so that his tenants could keep observation on the cattle without going into the fields. Cleopatra's Need!e, built of local sand stone, stands at an altitude of 600 feet above the sea, and its base is covered with innumerable visitors' names. "Solomon's Temple," built in the style of an Eastern mosque, with massive marble pillars, was used by "Mad Jack" as a card room. The Squire's tomb, buiit to resemb.e the Pyramids, has a beautifully decorated interior and bears carved quotations from the Squire's iavorite authors. The Squire's coffin was placed on a stone trestle above the ground and the door of the tomb locked with a key which was afterward destroyed. Beacon Tower was originally intended to guide ships into Pevensey Bay, but the Squire planted trees all round and thus rendered it useless to mariners.


# N ATTRACTIVE TORONTO BUNGALOW OF SPANISH TYPE 

Residence of Frederick Paul, Castle Frank Road, Toronto-an essentially domestic dwelling structure, built on a site abounding in natural advantages, and thoughtfully considered in every particular.

WHILE MANY MODIFICATIONS have come to make the bungalow the essentially domestic structure that it is, little has been done to vary its height from that of its early prototype. It still remains characteristically a one, or one and a half story structure, and any residence in excess of this height can hardly be regarded as coming well within the meaning of the term.

Situated back about seventy feet from Castle Frank road, on grounds, some three quarters of an acre in extent, is one of Toronto's few represented homes in this respect. It is the residence of Frederick Paul, and an excellent example of the Spanish bungalow type. The location itself could hard:y be improved upon. The site is resplendent with oaks, pines, spruce and maples, whicin, together with the wide expanse of the Rosedale Ravine to the east, south and west, affords the occupants every advantage of a beautifully wooded outlook. In construction, the walls of the house are of hard brick finished on the exterior with a rougheast cement plaster, and roofed in with unglazed Spanish tiles; the windows throughout being of polished plate divided into small diamond panes in the upper sash. The design, in keeping with dwellings of this type, is devoid of any architectural elaboration; the general color scheme of gray walls, red tile and brown painted woodwork, together with wide corbelled eaves and effectively grouped windows, being mainly relied upon to produce a simple, homelike and unpretentious effect.

Although low in outline, the fact that the house is approximately fifty feet wide by seventy feet long allows for an exceptionally well arranged plan with practically the entire scheme of rooms on the ground floor.

Entrance to the vestibule is through a heavy oak door having an old-fashioned thumb latch and hung on heavy wrought iron hinges. This leads in from a deep. broad
porch paved with red Welch quarries. The vestibule, which is similarly paved, and the reception hall are both wainscotted in ash to a height of seven feet with a gres plaster frieze above, decorated with an arrangement of antique arms of various periods. To the right of the hall is the living room, a particularly homelike and roomy interior, with a heavy beamed ceiling and a large inviting fireplace directly opposite the door opening in from the hall. There is a certain sturdiness and a sincere sim plicity in the general architectural scheme and the sub stantial character of comfortable leather covered chairs and couches, such as one would expect to find in residences built two centuries or more ago. The ceiling which is twelve feet and six inches in height, is arranged with sloping sides, with the beams having the effect of being immediately under the roof; while adding materially to the general domestic character of the room, are the built-in bookcases which occupy all available wall space, other than that utilized by the fireplace, the sliding doors and the octagonal bay window. The fireplace is faced with tapestry brick, ranging in colors from brown to red, and set in with Moravian tiles, reproduced from some of the famous tiles of the old world. The hearth is paved with quarries similar to those used in the vestibule; and the fire box proper, which is equipped with a crane and heavy hammered dogs, has an opening four feet wide, thus enabling the owner to burn large logs of wood. Above the mantel shelf the chimney is divided off by wood straps and finished with panels of stucco of a yellowish tone in oils, in keeping with the treatment of the walls below the heavy wood moulding. The frieze and ceiling are in grey plaster. Upon the walls are many oils and water-colors, chiefly the work of Canadian artists.

Adjoining the living room is the dining room which


BASTMENT PAAN
General Scheme of Rooms, Residence of Frederlek Paul, Castle Frank Road, Toronto



Residence of Frederick Paul, Castle Frank Road, Toronto. One of Canada's few Representative Homes of the Spanish Bungalow Type. The House is Situated on a Site Approximately Three-Guarters of an Acre in Extent, and Overlooks the Rosedale Ravine on the East, South and West Sides. This View Shows the Structure in Perspective from a North-west Point. Langley and Howland, Architects.


This Vlew Shows the Maln Approach and the Heavy Oak Entrance Door, Hung on Wrought Iron Strap Hinges. The Walls are of Hard Brick. Plastered on the Exterior With a Roughoast Gement; the Roof Is of Red Unglaz: ed Spanish Tile, and the Windows Throughout are of Polished Plate Glass with Small Diamond Panes in the Upper Sash. Langley and Howland, Architects.


Living Room. Residence of Frederlck Paul, Castle Frank Road, Toronto. A. Partlcularly Homellke Interlor With Unusual Ceillng Eeams, and a Large Fireplace Bulit of Tapestry Brick and Set in With .Moravian Tiles. Note the Substantial Character of the Furniture, and the Bookcases Which Form an Integral Part of the Entlie Wall Scheme. Langley and Howland, Architects.


Vlew of Living Room, Looking Toward the Dining Room, and the Sun Room Beyond. The Arrangement In General Brings the Scheme of Rooms Well Together, and Permits of the Living Room and Dining Rooms Belng Thrown into One Large Apartment if 80 Desired. Langley and Howland. Archltects.


Dining Room, Resldence of Frederick Paul, Castle Frank Road, Toronto. Panelled in Ash to a Height of Seven Feet, and Finished Above Plate Rall With a Stencilied Frleze In Olls on Rough Plaster. The Buffet in the Alcove at Right, and the China Closet on Elther Side of the Fireplace Are Bullt-in. Langley and Howland, Architects.


Sun Room, Resldence of Frederlck Paul, Castle Frank Road, Toronto, Whlch Opens from the Dining Room by a Plate Glass Door, and Overlooks the Ravine at the South a nd West. Langley and Howland, Architects.
also has a beamed ceiling. These two rooms open one into the other, so if desired, they can virtually be thrown into one large apartment. The dining room is lighted by large windows facing the west, as well as from the sun rocm which is placed immediately beyond. The walls are panelled in ash to a height of seven feet and finished with a


Reception Hall, Residence of Frederick Faul, Castle Frank Road, Toronito. Langley and Howland, Architects.
hand painted frieze on rough plaster. In the east wall, set on either side of a large fireplace, of the same general character of the one previously described, are built-in china closets with doors of plate glass with small irregular panes. At the rear of the room is an alcove with a fixed dresser and to the left of this, the door of the butler's pantry which connects the dining room with the kitchen.

In connection with the fireplace it might be well to mention that both have gas connections, with no idea, however, of burning gas as a fuel, but for the purpose of readily lighting the wood, thus saving considerable trouble when kindling a fire.

On the east side of the house on a line with the reception room, which is directly to the left of entrance, are two bedrooms with a bath-room between. The bathroom has tiled floor and walls, and besides the usual appliances, is fitted with a shower bath of marble. From the owner's bedroom, which is situated in a south-east position to the rear of the house, is a private verandah opening from the room by means of a pair of French doors, and overlooking the ravine. The main hall is cut off by doorways so as to give entire privacy to the bedroom suite, thus doing away entirely with an objection so common in houses of the bungalow type.

One of the features of the house is that stucco plaster has been utilized throughout, there being no wall paper in any of the rooms; the necessary decorations being accomplished by painting and stencilling. All the woodwork is in ash finished in dark brown, and the floors throughout are oak, no paint having been used at all in the interior of the entire structure.

The sun room, which is heated with hot water, as is also the rest of the house, is primarily used for flowers and plants. The walls are of grey plaster and a water tap is provided for the special purpose of taking care of the flowers with the least possible inconvenience. This room overlooks the ravine, as does also the kitchen, which is large and airy and provided with a modern refrigerator, which is supplied with ice from the outside. The butler's pantry, previously mentioned, is fitted with cupboards and running water, and the features of the service department generally are modern and complete in every respect.

The back hall, leading from the front hall, is utilized as a picture gallery as is also the stairway to the upper story. On the upper floor is a bathroom of considerable size and a bedroom of unusual proportion. This floor is planned so that additional space can be added if so desired; in other words, there is a good deal of space which is now unoccupied.

All hardwarre throughout the entire structure is of simple fashioned black iron, a style which is admirably adapted to the general architectural scheme, and particularly suited to a house of the bungalow type. Another feature is the lighting fixtures, which are of heavy Pom. peian brass in rather severe design. These fixtures are in evidence in several of the views shown herewith.

The basement of the house has a ceiling of six feet


Fireplace in Living Room, Residence of Frederick Paul, Castle Frank Road, Toronto. The Bricks Vary from Brown to Red, and the Hearth is Laid with Red Welch Pavers. Note the Crane and Sturdy Character of the Heavy Wrought Iron Fire-Dogs. Langley and Howland, Architects.
eight inches in the clear. This part of the house is exceptionally well lighted in every way, and the plans provide for a handsome billiard room if so desired; the fireplace in this interior being already provided. The space occupied as a tool room, under the sun room, is of sufficient size so that it can be easily utilized as a garage if so desired.

The house was designed and erected under the supervision: of Architects Langley \& Howland, Toronto.

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is proposed to deal with these, while it is interesting to note that thongh in this portion a definitely formal treatment is aclopted, in the little valleys in the outskirts, such as Rock Creek and Piney Branch, an avowedly naturalistic effect is preferred.

The city of Washington has made more actual progress in the materialization of its civic scheme than any other in the United States. Chicago, by comparison, has hardly begun, and offers, moreover, a much less inspiring problem to the designer, the site being level and the exist ing town most monotonous in its lay out, besides being cut up in all directions by the multitude of railway tracks; necessary to the conduct of its large business as a manufacturing and commercial centre. All the more credit, therefore, to those citizens who have had the courage to initiate and prepare the comprehensive scheme shown herewith. . . . Where sections of the plan have been worked out in detail a marked degree of skill is displayed in treating awkward problems. In considering the proposals as a whole. however, we cannot help feeling a doubt as to whether the effects indicated in the drawings are ever likely to be attained in actuality. It appears to be essential to the dignitv these designs suggest, that a certain uniformity of height should be adopted in the buiddings. The height shown is based on the present limit for buildings in Chicago, but is it likely that the central area of several square miles can be entirely filled by buildings of this height, and, if it were, what satisfactory provision can be made to overcome the awkward transition from these to the two or three story dwellings that stretch for miles around them? Would it be practicable, in the U.S.A., to introduce any ordinance ensuring uniformity of height in any given street or area, and without this how can even the most monumental plan secure that ordered dignity of effect essential to the great city?

In Boston a system of zones obtains, with stipulated heights for buildings in each zone, but these heights are permissive, and in no way compulsory. While it would not be advisable to make hard and fast rules, at the same time no civic scheme is complete that omits to provide for control over the height to be adopted for buildings in the various sections of the city, determining not only the height to which structures may be carried, but also thit to which they must be carried. The English Town Plan. nin- Bill, as its name implies. does not extend its opera tions to this, but no city can be assured of achieving the ultimate power of monumental expression without regulations of this character.

Up to the present these have only been imposed in special cases and to a very limited extent. Even in Paris there are numerous instances where municipal control in this matter could have been put in operation with advantage. Of what avail is it to attempt to achieve a fine and impressive city by the study of its horizontal components only, while the vertical ones are left to chance and to the accidents of commercial necessity. Such control need not insist on a montonous uniformity, but control of some sort there ought to be, preferably exercised by a body of broal minded men, possessing a sound knowledge of the prin. ciples of architecture as applicable to the city as a whole.

## FIRE PREVENTION.*—By Frank B. Gilbre'h

IT IS AMAZING that so little has been done to prevent destruction by fire, and to apply the lessons which are taught by every great fire. All great fires are alike; buidding material behaves the same in the case of a fire, whatever the location.

The building of the Mutual Life Insuranc: Company, at San Francisco was a steel-frame structure, eight storeys high, of the best construction in 1852, when it was erected. The laying up and the filling of the joints in the brick, stone, and terra cotta were as nearly perfect as

[^0]possible. The exterior wall completely enclosed the stecl irame, which was put together with bolted connections. Th floors were of hollow terra cotta flat arches, and the partitions were hollow terra-cotta blocks The damage to the building which necessitated the removal of the upper six storeys was practically all done by fire. This building is excellent for an illustration because it shows the good and bad points of many different kinds of incombusible materials which were used in its construction.

The lessons from this and from all fires point to the conclusion that no structure of the future should either be built of wood or should contain any wood. A very small quantity of wood in a so-called "fire proof" building atmost entirely of non-combustible materials will furnish sufficient heat to destroy it. Concrete construction is the best form for the elimination of fires, because the amome of damage done by a fire in a conerete buikling dipends upon circumstances which atre within control and predeterminable. With concrete made of properly selected fireresisting materials practically no damage is done, execpt by prolonged high temperature.

The results of recent tests by Professor lra H . Niolson and his assistants, Mr. J. S. Macgregor, prove conclusively that a properly designed concrete building, with as few projecting corners as possible, will withstand long: periods of the hottest hard-wood fires, with no resulting damage that cannot be repaired with mortar. These tesis were carried out on full-sized rooms with walls of concrete made of different kinds of material.

Concrete for walls can be poured in moulds with sufficient accuracy to permit of painting or wall-papering without further plastering or smoothing, which means that the best of this fire-resisting material is brought to the surface of the wall where the flames wuld strike. If a fire does occur in a building made with concrete cast in smooth forms, the damage is less than in any other type of building, and the danger of spreading is less. Water cloes not injure concrete; in fact, it improves its quality. There is no wood to swell and afterwards to shrink and crack the plastering, and no hollow spaces that the water can flow through, damaging the contents below. A concrete building is water-tight from foor to ceiling, and small cuantities of water can be easily handled through small scuppers. cither into the air space of the vaulted wall or through the wall to the outside. The fire is never liedden by the construction; consequently no mnecessary streams of water are flooded into the building.

In a concrete residence there are few parts that cannot be made better and cheaper of Portland coment than of wood. Chair rails and picture moulding could be made of concrete, and the ormamentation around the windows and doors could be moulded in metal moulds as cheaply as straight members. Windows might have cement sashes, with wired glass, and self-closing shutters or self-drepping shutters of rolled-up metal or asbestos. The flooring need not be of wood. There are many first-class nancombustible materials besides Portland cement that would fill every good requirement of wood and still be fire-proof.

Government could aid fireproof construction by passing laws restricting the use of wood in buildings; by levying taxes, discriminating in favor of fireproof houses and against wood in construction; by teaching the people low to build fireproof houses, by establishing a Government bureau for disseminating information regarding honest and unbiased fire tests on material, together with Government experiments on different full-sized buildingskinds, types and materials-with butletins of the progress; by building fireproof houses for the use of the Government Departments, and disseminating information concerning them by means of bulletins. It is not argued that concrete should be used exclusively; there are many cascs where other non-combustible materia's have special merits but now that a cheaper and incombustible substitute for wood is available, wood construction, wood trim, and wood finish should be legislated and tased until wood is climinated from all building construction.


# HE USE AND VALUE OF COLOR IN ARCHITECTURE* 

"Color is used to assist in the development of form, and to distinguish objects or parts of objects one from another,.....it is the only visual means by which things can be known."

"THE USE AND VALUE OF COLOR in Architecture" is a subject which must almost necessarily appeal to all interested in the progress of art.

Color is used to assist in the development of form, and to distinguish oljjects or parts of objects one from another, and is also used to assist light and shade, helping the undulations of form by the proper distribution of the several colors.

In certain cases I shall merely point to instances which the study of ancient art shows of the use of color, and indicate what seems its value in works of architecture.

As an introduction, it may be as well to consider the position color holds in relation to man. For, as Nature colors all her works, it can hardly be inappropriate for man to do the same. Mankind has a passionate love for it, whether it be exhibited in Nature's works or in works of art; it is the only visual means by which things can be known.

The Egyptians, Greeks, Persians, Assyrians, and other races enriched their buildings and monuments with color, and the mediaval nations used it in their buildings.

Color applied to buildings is not a new art, not a discovery of modern times, for we have instances of past masters who excelled in this class of work. Ruskin says: "The noblest thing is a buideding, and its highest virtue, is that it be nobly sculptured or painted." (By the term "painted," he means every mode of applying color.)

In our early modern buildings color seems to have disappeared frem the outside. Viollet-le-Due says in his article on painting: "The Romans during the Empire scem to have been the first people who erected monnments of white marble or stone without color; as to their stucco work this was ahnays colored, whetler inside or oul." Decorative painting once played a most importatat part on the outside of buildings. The Notre-Dame at Paris shows the mouldings, columns, and figures decorated by color. The value of color may not le truly guaged, but it can be regarded as an educative pawer, and a necessity of cultured life, and when applied with due regard to its relative importance it gives a sense of pleasure, interest, and added value to a building which might otherwise be commonplace.

In reviving the uses of color in architecture, we should look to examples of the past as instances of experience for the schocling of the present. The seed is sown, mature it, and study it in its gradual growth until it blooms forth in flowers of richest coloring.

The two principles, then, on which this sulbject can be based are: first, Structural Decoration; and second, Decorated Construction. Structural Decoration may be defined as that color introduced in buildings by using such materials for the structure as have in themselves the color required for decorating these as works of architecture. Decorated Construction may be defined as, whether build-

[^1]ings have, or have not, been decorated by colored materials used constructively, the application of colored or other decoration.

Construction suggests design, and decoration cannot be without design. Flowers are constructed, and, however small or however large a thing may we, the very color of each thing has structure and design. Ruskin said, "that he would not consider architecture in any wise perfect without color, and further thought the colors of architecture should be those of natural stones, partly because they are more durable, and also more perfect and graceful."

In foreign countries proof of the work and use of color in architecture can be seen in the monuments that remain to-day. They are in ruins, butt true principles on which evidence can be based are still visible. Religion played a great part, and must have influenced the coloring and treatment of buildings. The Egvptians were great believers, and they based their buildings on religious principles. They believed that without religion no state could stand. Hence the reason we find the Egyptian buildings adorned with figures and sculpture, and most profusely painted. The principles of the Egyptians were based on application, and they possessed great power of conventionalizing natural objects.

In Egypt the most important buildings were covered with applied color, and the use and value of the color in architecture is apparent in all directions. Even their builders were careful designers, and the decorations they used were always carefully desigued and treated with color.

The treatment of ceilings was a common subject in Egyptian architecture, and they made great scope in this direction. The colors used by the Egyptians were principally red, blue and yellow, with black and white to define and give distinctiveness to the various colors. Green was used generally, though not universally as a local color.

Structural decoration in color was not often practised by the Egyptians. They used colored, glazed and decorateil brickwork, but not to a very large extent. They, however, derived much matter for application in decoration from the suggestions conveyed to them by the structural forms; both in nature and the primitive methods of building in wood and stone.

The Notre-Dame of Paris is a notable example of decoration. The ornaments placed in 1257 on the top of the transept gables were gilt, with grounds of dull red and black. The outside colors were much more vivid than those inside, viz.: bright red tones such as vermilion (glazed with brilliant red,) crude green, orange, black and pure white, etc.

St. Mark's at Venice is another example, as the interior is richly veneered with colored mabbles, casing the lower part of the walls; above, and extending in one great surface over vault and dome, is a lining of richly colored glass mosaic, in which are worked figures of saints, mingled with scenes from their lives, set off by a broad background of gold. Mosaic is the real and essen-
tial decoration of the church, to which all architectural detail is subordinated.

Ruskin says of St. Mark's: "that the effects depend not only upon the most delicate sculpture in every part, but also on the most subtle, variable, inexpressible color produced by transparent alabaster, polished marble, and lustrous gold."

St. Mark's is wholly covered with slabs of Greek, Africano, verde antico, and other beautiful marbles.

Many countries show the use of color in architecture, viz.: Babylonia, Assyria, Persia, Greece, etc. The Babytonians, Assyrians and the Persians are three important Asiatic schools. Babylon was situated upon the Euphrates, and developed the brickmaking industry, and cultivated the use of glazed and colored brickwork. Not many of their examples remain, if any, but many beautiful and interesting specimens of decorative skill have been unearthed from the ruins of monuments, etc. The style of the Assyrians seems to have been borrowed from the Egyptians, and modified by the difference of the religion and habits of the Assyrian people. All things architectural were carefully and delicately decorated with colors, especially in the interiors of the buildings. In Persia and India is to be found the most magnificent exposition of extreme color applied externally, and executed too in that splendid material, enamelled earthemvare, which is imperishable in a dry climate.

Greek architects used the color with which their works were decorated to emphasize leading features, and to give a fuller expression to such details as they wished to display. Some of the best products of Greek art are to be found at Athens, and these were built chiefly with ivory white marble from Attica. The temple of Theseus, Athens, and the Parthenon are notable Greek examples, which later shows the use of color applied to marble externally.

Color, to be perfect, must have a soft outline or a simple one, and the best examples of the use of same in architecture are to be found in the East.

The Romans were a race of builders who profited by the experience of the past, and wasted little time over failures which would have been certain to overtake them had they neglected what they had the wisdom and modesty to admire. The Romans were aided by the skill of the Greeks, and attempted to make architecture of building withourt spending the necessary thought, in order to develop from the essentials of their own buildings, that which was required to complete them as works of artistic design. Discoveries of mosaic, enamel, colored materials in structure, metal work, etc., are proofs of what had been done in the Roman cities.

A few words may be said about marble and its uses. It is the most delicate stone, but has been abundantly used in many countrie's; and in almost every part of a building. In this climate it is only suitable for interior work. Marble is the most beatutiful stone that the architect has at his command. The materials which are used for permanent color decoration are marble and mosaic, and these materials hold a foremost position. How many churches are 'inere erected without the use of marble and mosaic

The Westminster Cathedral, by the late Mr. Bentley, is a splendid example of modern work. The interior of this building shows the walls and vaults, etc., lined with these materials, and it is, perhaps, the most striking example of late years, showing the use and value of color in architecture. The Catholics are great believers in color, as used in decorating their churches, especially on the interiors.

The Byzantine decorators in erondopted the glass mosaic method as the chief vehicle by which to express their ideas. This, as well as marble mosaic, had been much favored by the Romans for introducing color in conventional decorative design at an early period. The Byzantine decorators used the Roman methorl of adopt-
ing the practice of covering their structure internallyif not so much externally-with slabs of colored marbles.

The Church of the "Sancta Sophia," Constantinople, has its walls and piers lined with beautifully colored marbles, and the floors are laid with colored mosaics of various patterns. The vanlts and domes are enriched with glass mosaics of the apostles, angels, and saints on a glittering golden grourd. Sancta Sophia and St. Mank's, Venice, as mentioned before, are volumes in themselves, showing the use and value of color in architecture. The interior of the church of 'S. Miniato, near Florence, is an example of the medirval Italian use of colored materials, and both inside and outside it is structurally decorated in color. This small church was erected during the 12 th century, and is an example of its kind showing the use and value of color in architecture.

In our cities and manufacturing towns the architect, in attempting to add the charm of color to his building, has to encountere the smoke demon. Many efforts have been made with various materials, such as glazed earthenware, etc., but such material gives a restless appearance, and is fatal to that repose which color demands when applied to a building. Terra-cotta is much used at the present time. These materials can be washed from time to time, and by this means would be a relief from the ordinary type of brick building; which when continuous have a monotonous effect.

A modern structure in glazed materials is a house in Addison Road, Kensington, designed by Mr. Halsey Ricardo, whose abilities in structural decoration are well known. In this example of domestic work there are intentions which stand for a new development in English architecture. The effects of the city atmosphere have, no doubt, determined the uses of glazed bricks, which are varied in color. The basement story is faced with bluegrey semivitrified Staffordshire bricks; the upper part or framework, as it were, is carried out in Carrara ware of a pinky cream color, relieved in the upper stages by darker bands of the same material. Glazed brickwork is introduced in the panels formed by this Carrara ware, the lower panels being of a soft deep green, and the upper of a bright blue. The roofs are covered with green Spanish tiles. Mr. Ricardo says "that to build with imperishable materials in London, or, indeed, in any manufacturing city, has become now a reasonable aim, and several examples have arisen in response to this desire."
"The erections of to-day have not a fair chance of acquiring the results that a building acquires in a cleaner atmosphere. Time and habitation pull a building togetller, give it the human look that a new building so sadly lacks. Another course then is open to us, and to attempt this course one must see what can be done with materials able to withstand the corrosion of the atmosphere, and avoid the permanent disfiguration of its impurities." Such materials, to meet these requirements, must be glazed materials, and the whole building must be built of such. The use of glazed materials causes the question of color to crop up. Glazed material is substantially impervious both to rain and wind, and it is a clean material. The use of this material is increasing year by year, and if carefully considered it can produce satisfactory results; proof of which is in the house already described, situate in Addison Road, Kensington.

Before concluding this essay, I will mention some examples in stained glass. If we wish to see some of the finest in the world we have not very far to go. There are examples in Oxford and Cambridge, one being the 14th century stained glass window in the ante-chapel, New College, Oxford. In stained glass the primary colors ẅère chiefly used. The five sisters' windonv in north transept gable of York Minster is an excellent example.

The same general principles which govern other methods by which decorative art in color and line are practised are also applicable to stained glass. During the period between the 11th and 15th century the use of glass

as a means of introducing color intr architectura! compositions had been largely developed, if not originall: discovered.

In the course of this article I have attempted to describe the use and value of color in architecture by giving a brief outline of the methods adopted by the ancients. It has been found in examining the works of the past that color had always a necessary function to perform in the typical periods during which architecture flourished as a real living exponent of thought. The past instances give evidence showing how closely the chief interests of individuals' and communities were linked together by the services of art. The examples that have been quoted help to show the truth of these statements concerning the various purposes served by decoration; and the manner both by structural and applied means in which color was introduced.

It is color which gives a town its look of home, and which unites all its buildings of various styles into unity of character. It is color which can bring us and our architecture into the stream of local tradition, and also into touch with a past which must not be allowed to die.

Had nature applied but one color to all objects they would have been indistinct in form as well as monotonous in aspect.

We must appeal to experience and be inclebted to the past for its wondrous works, if we expect to realize our ideals for the future; for color is essential to the completeness of any work of architecture, as distinguished from simple buildings, even if only its aim is to please.

## SAND AND GRAVEL FOR CEMENT AND MORTAR.

CONSIDERABLE INFORMATION that may be of value to Cabadian architects and builders who are inter ested in concrete work is published in a bulletin issued by the U.S. Geological Survey, concerning field and laboratory studies made during 1909 of a large number of sands and gravel found in various localities where the erection of federal building liad been authorized. One striking feature, says the report, brought out by these investigations. is the great variation in the quality of materials used for concrete aggregates in different places throughout the country. Broadly, the sand and gravels in common use may be grouped into three classes on the basis of origin-(1) glacial deposits; (2) coastal plain de. posits; (3) stream deposits. The deposits of the first and second classes have, in many instances, been modified by water action, and the third class may be considered as composed partly of materials derived from deposits of the first two classes and partly of materials derived directly from the breaking down of the country rock. All three classes of deposits contain more or less silt, clay, loam, or other very finely divided impurities.

In many communities the run of bank sand and gravel is used directly in concrete work without any attempt being made to clean it, except, perhaps in rare instances, by dry screening or rough sizing. In some cases it has been stated by local contractors that the run-of bank sand made naturally just the correct theoretical mixture of sand and gravel to produce the least voids in concrete. In practically all cases it has been found by experiment that these suppositions were erroneous, and that to use run-of-bank thaterial for structural concrete work is a haphazard:and careless method. It is certain that under such conditions not only is the proportioning and the sizing of the mixture indefinite and variable, but that the large quantities of impurities which are unavoidably included tend. to weaken the strength of the concrete. Where gravel is coated with dust or dirt of any kind, the cement is compelled to set against this film of foreign matter rather than against the gravel itself, and is consequently easily broken away from the stone. Where such impurities are mixed with the sand and gravel, the cement can not set perfectly and form a firm bond be-
tween the sand and gravel. In recent years, particularly in the large building centres, there has developed a greater appreciation of the importance of clean sand and gravel for use in concrete and mortar. Leading architects, engineers, and contractors are now demanding in their specifications sound, clean, washed materials, free from dust, loam, clay or any kind of dirt. The soundness of the sand is an important consideration, since not all sands that look good and feel sharp prove to be satisfactory. Some sands are largely composed of grains of limestone and colomite, and are softer than silica sand, and other sands may contain many grains of feldspar, which easily decays and crumbles. The presence of much mica in small flakes is also deleterious, as well as the presence of grains of pyrite and limonite. It is, of course, impossible to find deposits of sand and gravel that will yield 100 per cent. of desirable material, but it is gratifying to note the improvement that may be effected in a sand or gravel by a suitable process of washing. Where sand or gravel is taken from below water in streams and lakes, a certain amount of washing is accomplished, whatever the process of excavating may be, but where the material is pumped up from a deep stream, agitated in clean water, screened and drained, a very thorough cleaning is generally accomplished. In the case of bank deposits of sand and gravel, the material should be rolled and tumbled about in a rapid jet or stream of water, particulariy streams that will size the material and deliver the oversize to a crusher. The crushed material is then returned to the washers and screens in the form of angular frag. ments, which are a very desirable addition to the aggregate.

EXPERIMENTS MADE to determine the effects of frost, if any, on the subsequent hardening properties of cement, mortar and concrete, that have been previously mixed ready for use, are recounted in a paper by $H$. Burchartz, in the Journal of the Society of Chemical Industry; an abstract from which is published herewith. "Tests were made on two samples of cement, which had been prepared in the dry and wet ways respectively. The cements were mixed with water to a stiff paste, and the times taken for hardening to begin, and for complete setting, under the conditions given below. The temperatures and humidity of the air were noted. (1) The cements were allowed to set under normal conditions. (2) They were kept as nearly as possible at a temperature of 0 deg. C. (3) They were subjected to a temperature of -10 deg. C, for (a) 3 hours, (b) 24 hours, and (c) 3 days. These frozen samples, at the expiration of the time stated, were broken up with the hammer, and after being allowed to thaw, were stirred for 3 minutes. The times for hardening and setting were measured from this point. It was found that preliminary freezing did not affect the times of heardening and setting. The samples kept at 0 deg. C., however, were about four times as long as the other in reaching each stage. The same cements were used to make mortar and concrete. The mortar consisted of 1 part by weight of cement to 3 parts by weight of standard sand. The concrete was made up of 1 part of cement to 5 parts of gravel. Two classes of each were prepared, sufficient water being added to make the mixture (1) 'earth-damp,' and (2) wet. Test pieces were made (1) irnmediately after mixing, (2) after subjecting to a temperature of about -14 deg. C. for (a) 3 hours, (b) 24 hours, (c) 3 days, and subsequently thawing. The test pieces were allowed to set under damp sand, some for 7 days, and the remainder for 28 days. Tensile and crushing tests were then made. The results showed that cooling for a few hours only had a negligible effect on the hardening of mortar and concete, but that the rate of hardening was nutch lower after a prolonged freezing. They also showed in a striking manner that the falling-off of the rate of hardening due to the preliminary freezing was relatively much greater for the "earth-damp" than for the wet mixings.


Residence of Mrs. C. C. Cummings, Corner of Hawthorne and Dale Avenues. A Modern House In Character of the Old English Type; Set on a Spaclous Site and Bullt of Credit Valley Random Rubble. J. A. Mckenzle, Archltect.


Ingle Nook, Resldence of Mrs. C. C. Cummings, Toronto, Showing the Wall Fanelling and Bullt-In Shelf and Seats.
J. A. McKenzie, Architect.


# N ALL-STONE HOUSE OF OLD ENGLISH DESIGN 


#### Abstract

Residence of Mrs. C. C. Cummings, Toronto,-an unusually interesting house which incorporates a number of noteworthy features both in design and plan.


IN VIEW of the architectural possibilities of stone as a material for residential work, it is difficult to account for the scarcity of houses of this character in many sections of the courtry. Especially: so, can this be said, when one considers the abundance of good material that is fcund in many localities. To-day, outside the eastern portion of the Dominion, the all-stone house is more the exception than the rule, and while in Toronto and in several parts of Ontario, there are a number of excellently constructed homes of this tyde, yet compartively speaking, such structures are vastly outnumbered by houses that are otherwise considered.

A recently erected Toronto home of stone construction is the residence of Mrs. C. C. Cummings, Hawthorne and Dale avenues, which is designed in character of the old English type of house, with casement windows, numerous fireplaces and beamed ceilings. The walls are built of


[^2]J. A. McKenzie, Architect.

Credit Valley random rubble with long thin stones, and the exterior is rather striking on account of its large cornice and English half-timber work in all the gables. The stone work has been very carefully executed, and might easily be taken for an ashlar job, the beds being so nearly para!elled, and the rock face being allowed to project as little as possible. The openings are trimmed with Indiana lime-stone, and the deep reveals add very


Second Floor Plan, Residence of Mrs. C. C. Cummings, Toronto. J. A. McKenzie, Architect.
materially to the substantial nature of the whole structure. This effect is further augmented by a slight drawing oi the bay window between. the grade and ground floor; while an interesting feature are the columns of the palm room at the rear, which taper gradually into the columns of the balcony above.

Entrance to the vestibule is by a hooded porch with turned columns and paved marble foor, which readily indicates the character of the interior.

The vestibule and hall, which connects directly with all main living rocms, and also the back or servants' ha! 1 , is panelled throughout in select quarter cut oak, finished in dark Early English. The ceiling is arched with a serics of cross groins, executed in stucco and tinted in a harmonizìng tone. A large ingle nook with a broad fire-


Receplion Room, Residence of Mr. C. C. Cummings, Toronto. Decorated in Louis XVI, Style with Silk Wall Panels and White Enamelled Woodwork. J. A. McKenzle, Architect.


Corner in Living Room, Residence of Mrs. C. C. Cummings, Toronto, Showing the Tiled Fireplace and Bullt-In Bookcases. The Walls are Strapped with Moulded Oak and filled in with Leather Panels with a Heavy Plate Rail Above. J. A. MaKenzle, Architect.
place, made of Roman brick, is immediately to the right, the shelves above supported on brackets, and the seats being built in. Beyond this, heavy oak stairs with carved newels rise to an oriel landing, provided with a fixed seat and having leaded glass windows of special design. These stairs continue up at the point to the third or attic story, and also give access to the billiard room in basement.

To the left on entering is the reception room, finished in white enamel, and decorated in Louis XVI. style with coved ceiling and cast ornament, all of which was carefully modelled according to the architect's design. The walls are panelled with silk with cast ornament at the corners of each panel. Directly opposite the doorway, is an ingle nook with a mantle faced in onyx, and a large mirror above shelf. The floor is of light oak, and the furniture in keeping with the scheme of the room is in Louis XVI. style.

The living room, which adjoins, is twenty-four feet long, including bay, by thirteen feet wide. A feature of this interior is the large mantle and the built in bookcases and window seats. The mantle has 6 in . by 6 in . reddish green
 J. A. McKenzle, Architect.
tiles, with a hammered brass hood and turned oak columns. The window seats, which fit into the large bay, are made of cak with plenty cf slope to back and bottonis to make them luxurious and comfortable. These entirely conceal from view the radiators which run under the five windows, the hot air passing up through the oak s!ars between the seat backs and the stool of the window. The wall scheme is carried our in leather, sitapped with moulded oak, and has a heavy bracketed plate rail running round the room over doors, while the ceiling has heavy oak beams with stucco between.

Double French doors, broken into small lights, connect the living room, dining room, and palm room, one with the other. In the dining room, the walls are panelled to the top of door with large veneer circassian walnut panels, and finished above the plate rail with an ornamental frieze; the ceiling being broken into fine panels by heavy circassian walnut beams. A fireplace of small
narrow brick with a hammered brass hood is at the end of the room near the window, and a dinner wagon or servery with two china closets, are built-in on the side next to the pantry.

The palm room is enclosed with French doors, between the columns, and is heated by indirect radiation through large registers in the middle of the room, the cold air being drawn down at the base of each column.

Off the rear hall is a servants' sitting room or sewing, a spacious pantry and a large modern kitchen; the latter room being tiled in glass to the top of doors, and provided with a large combination porcelain zinc and drip board, with cupboards builtin. On the main shelf of the cupboard is a small opening leading to the rear porch with dcors flushed on the exterior and interior of wall for milkman to leave his bettles. Connecting into the kitchen is a large built in ice bcx having separate compartments lined with opaque tile. The ice is put into this box from the rear porch. The range sets in an alcove and is practically screened from view with a hooded conical top from which a large vent pipe carries the steam and smeil of all cooking into a heated flue. In one corner of the kitchen is a cunboard for brooms, etc., and a clothes shute leading to the laundry. The pantry has a counter extending round three sides and is provided with tilting flour bins and numerous small shelves for cutlery, also a copper zinc for diswashing. There is a slide and counter with a revolving barrel underneath connecting pantry to dining roon. The house has a very complete set of 'phones, electric beils anl indicators throughout.

On the second flcor all the principal rooms are finished in pine, with hinilt-in seats in windows and especially designed pine mantles. The seats have panelled sloping backs, with the bottoms as lids over boxes for storage purposes. There are five bedrcoms in all, with one used as a sitting rocm, together with three modern bathrooms, and a large balcony which is closed in during the winter months with a temporary sash. In the secrvants' quarters, which are placed at the rear of this floor, there are two bedrooms, a bathroom, necessary c.oset space and a rear balcony. This portion can be shut off from the balance of the house by means of one door.

The attic has three large bedrooms, a large linen closet and a large fur closet lined with Spanish cedar. Over the bay of the living room in the attic is a unique girls' playrocm, with seats, bookicases and radiators, all fitted up like a room in miniature. The ceiling is five feet and the door is four feet six inches. This room is octagonal in shape, with small windows in several sizes, and is plastered and decorated. This floor a!so has a bathroom. The bathrooms are all tiled to the top of doors, and all closets are supplied and fursished by tanks in the attic. The bath-tulss in the two principal bedrooms are porce. lain recess tubs built-in and tiled close up to the top.

The basement contains a large laundry with three porcelain tubs, a work-table, drying attachment and clothes shute. There is also a large store room with is fireproof vault and fireproof door. The boiler room is equipped with a pair of twin Daisy boilers connected up to be used in tandem or separately. There are separate hot water risers and returns to every part of the house with neatly stamped tags on valves controlling same, so that any part of the system mav be cut out without inter fering with the balance. The equipment also includes a large sized independent heater and a large sized domestic hot water tank, which assures hot water whether the other heaters are working or not. The billiard room, which is located in the front part of the basement, is finished in ash, and has a large brick mantle and stucco ceiling, the walls being burlapped and stranped in ash with a moulded dado cap.

The house itself faces the east, and the plan was carefully laid out so that each room will, during some portion of the day, receive its quota of sunshine. It was aiso placed on the lot in deference to the beautiful old oaks and elms that make it so attractive. The designing and supervising architect was J. A. McKenzie, Toronto.


Firse prize Design, Competition for a Small Brick House, Submitted by Willam Boyd, Jr., Pittsburg, Pa.

A.DEPARTMENT•DEALING WITHHITE:AROHITECTURAL ANDCONSTPLCTIVE POSSIBIIITIES.OFBRICK

## BRICK HINTS FORTHE ARCHITECT-BRICK POINTERS FOR THE ONTRACTOR-BRICK SUCGESTIONS FOR THE MANUFACTURFR



Comparative Dlagrams Showing the Extremes to which Modern Bullders Have Gone in the Erection of High Buildings. Mr. Berg in his Articte on the Opposite Page Maintains that these Lofiy Structures are a Menace to the Life and Property of Future Generations.


# The Dominion's resources in raw materials, and the importance of properly equipped plants. Character of bricks produced and methods of manufacture employed. 

IT IS POSSIBLE to make bricks in many different ways, and to produce bricks of many qualities. The purpose of this article, however, is to deal briefly with the methods of manufacture, and the character of bricks commonly employed in this country. When we speak of brick making, we must not only consider the industry from the standpoint of manufacture alone, but also from what is equally important, the standpoint of profit. It is, therefore, advisable to take certain conditions into consideration. as well made brick not only finds a ready market, but also brings the manufacturers a sub stantial return on his investment. While it is bighly important to have proper materials, it is equally as essential to have proper machinery, capâble management, and a piant so organized that it can be run the year round re gardless of weather conditions. All of this, of course, means that the equipment installed must be the best adaptcd for the purpose required, and also that the plant must have the right kind of a drying system, and proper kilns. It is of little avail to discuss the individual choice of brick, as each and every person may have his set ideas or prejudices in this respect. For factories and ordinary buildings, say up to four stories in height, the selection of brick is not in itself a serious matter, nor one that requires any great restriction as to quality. What is known as stock brick or common mud brick, which, in most cases, is made from top soil, is quite generally em . ployed in such structures. When properly manufactured this product turns a dark flat color, and it is adopted by many for residential work of the less expensive type. Atthough such bricks vary considerable in quality, it munt be said that in Toronto bricks of high grade, capabie of standing a fair crushing test, are made by this process.

Paving brick, or vitrified brick, and in this connection migigh be mentioned. hollow tile and terra cotta, are manufactured by what is termed the "stiff mud process." These bricks are frequently turned out in large quantities, and if the material is of a suitable character, a very strons brick. as a rule, is produced. Of course, much depends on the machinery equipment, proper driers, and well constructed kilus, but where a plant is thoroughly considered in this respect, it can be operated at a big profit, especially so, if it is provided with down draft or continuous kilns and waste heat drying system. Recent improvements have done much for this branch of the inclustry, and machines are now made with an individual capacity of from 50,000 to 200,000 first-class bricks per day. 'These bricks are principally used for paving. and in some few instances for the exterior of biildings, but rarely on the interior. A very high grade of material burned to vitrification, will stand a very high crustaing test varying possijly from
 brick will not deteriorate and go back to clust, but is, practically speaking, a piece of metal that is not suscep. tible to disintegration.

Bricks manufactured according to the so called "dry' press process" are made from either clay or shake, the so called shate or shate-clay being preferred. 'Ithis methorl of mamufacture is greatly growing in favor, and is gratually coming to be recognized as the best and easiest way of producing a high-grade brick that can be put on the
market at a good profit. In this process, especially with shale, the most important thing is to have strongly constructed and accurately adjusted machinery so that a heavy, even pressure can be annlied at the right time, thus making a dense and solid brick throughout the whole body, which will properly vitrify in the burning. It is imperative that the shale material should be uniformly and hard pressed before an attempt is made to burn it; as where the proper pressure is not exerted throughout the body of the brick, it cannot be burned to solidity, but on the contrary becomes very spongy, and almost useless as a buikling material. In many cases in the past, mechanical inefficiency and carelessness in this respect, has been a curse to the pressed brick industry, and has incidentally incurred many big failures. A well built and well equipped plant will turn out at least 95 per cent. of high grade bricks from every kiln. while the remaining 5 per cent. taken from the bag wall. or where the hardest fire would strike them, forms a residuc of clinkers. Some four years ago it was publicly staterl that pressed brick could not be successfully made in Canada, outside of one or two places in Ontario. This, however, has since been disproven by facts, as we find there is an abundance of material in various parts of the country that will not only make a high-grade product. but what stand both quick burning and quick drying. In several parts in and about Ontario, with a good plant, the righ kind of equipment and capable management. a first-class article can easily be manufactured at $\$ 4$ a thousand and less, and of a quality which at the present time should not for any reason be marketed for less than from $\$ 15$ to $\$ 25$ per thousand. The particular brick referred to is also metallic in character, and like paving brick, stands from 4.000 to 9,000 pounds per square inch, besides being practically immone from deterioration. In appearance, it is very smooth and handsome. being produced in different colors, ranging from buff to dark red. according to the material employed, and it is the choice of manv individuals for residences of the better class. We also frequently find this kind of brick for facing business buildings on the street side, but the interior and side and rear walls are invariably laid up with a lower grade material. While appearance is essential. structural efficiency is upvermost, and it is difficult to understand in this latter respect, how one part of a building is not considered just as important as the other, especially so, in warelouses or office buildings where heavy loads are carried on the walls. If the so called "stiff mud bricks" which are equally as high in crushing strength as the facing brick, were used for the interior and rear wall construction, a building of this class would practically endure for all time to come. Inferior brick made out of low grasle materials, and low in crushing strengtin, should not be recognized as suitable for this class of work i. buildings rangine from six stories upwarels, and according to the writer's opinion. it would be advisable for the building authorities to carefully give this matter their respectful consideration.

In many parts of the country where a good quality shale or clay is not available. a product known as sandlime or silicate brick is being successfully manufactured and extensively used in many important buildings. We

| 88 | $C$ | $O$ | $N$ | $S$ | $T$ | $R$ | $U$ | $C$ | $T$ | $I$ | $O$ | $N$ | [DесемвеR, 1910. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |

know that silica is a very pure and high grade sand, and that it has been used these many years in the production of glass. Exhaustive tests show that these bricks have a crushing strength from 2,000 to 6,000 pounds per square inch, and that they improve with age, in that the brick when subject to atmospheric changes becomes practically a hard impervious sandstone that will neither crumble, flake, nor deteriorate. With a high grade silica or a silica sand, and a modernly built and well equipped plant, the production of this character of brick is easily accomplished. Care, however, should at all times be exerted in the method of manufacture, and the raw materials should be put through a cleaning and drying system before being transferred to the storage bin. The lime should be treated by steam until thoroughly slacked, and then placed, in a pulverized state, in a separate bin. Proper mixing and measuring are very essential, and especially designed machinery has been invented for this particular purpose. The proper proportions are from 5 to 6 per cent. of high carbon lime to 94 per cent. of good sand. After passing through the measuring and drying machines, the mixture is transferred to another mixer, and a small quantity of water is added. The material is then moulded by a powerful machine, which is capable of exerting a 1,700 to:n pressure, and which makes the brick sufficiently strongs so that it can be easily handled to cars, having a capacity of 1,000 bricks each, and conveyed to the hardening cylinders, which holds in one unit 22,000 bricks. While in the hardening cylinder, the brick is subjected to a high stean pressure, which is taken away from the engines after the day's pressing is over. This process thoroughly penetrates them, and forms a chemical action through the carbonate of lime and fine silica, which perfectly cures the brick, and makes the product ready for the market :n twelve hours' time. This branch of the industry is a very profitable one, and a thoroughly considered plant can be operated either in dry or wet weather the year round.

In this connection a word might be said about building construction in general. They who have the power to recommend, should exercise the greatest discretion as to the material to be used. We must not only consider our own immediate needs, but the future as well, and should therefore build our structures so that they will not endanger life and property, either during the present time or in years to come. Personally, I should dislike to have the responsibility laid at my door for recommending the, construction of buildings that will deteriorate and collapse; and my hope is that we shall be sincere in our efforts in this respect, and do our duty to our fellow-men in a manner that will redound to our credit many years hence. No material stands higher in structural efficiency than well made brick. Canada, which has a most brilliant future before her, and prodigious resources for growing grain, is also blessed with an abundance of suitable materials for making all kinds of bricks; and what is more, facilities for manufacturing high-grade machinery for such purposes, and practical men with engineering skill to design and construct a thoroughly modern plant in every detail. We have, in short, if we have the ability to recognize them, advantages in this respect that enable us to co-cperate within ourselves, and to build up a home industry that would substantially add to our industrial strength and prestige.

Previous in this article, I have referred to brick as a piece of metal that will not either rust nor deteriorate. This in issels siumuly implies that well made brick has the stability of character of good steel, but unime meal is not susceptible to disintegration. That is where the advantage of brick lies. All materials should be carefully examined so that in their use, their life for safety could be determined and a limit placed thereon, and the pessibility of a collapse avoided. Life and property are assets which no community can hold lightly, and if we are careful in the selection of materials for our buildings, and in encouraging others to be so, we render a service that stamps us as being both progressive and
sincere. Every structure should be built so that the base would be in proportion to the height, and so constructed that if certain materials should fail through rust or deterioration, the structure itself would not fall down and destroy other property in its collapse. In this connection, I mean to draw attention to certain structures in many places in the United States which have been built up in a disproportionate manner; some of them pessibly 100 feet wide and 300 or 400 feet in length, and from 40 to 50 stories high. These invariably are of stecl frame construction, and in many cases a very low grade of rolled steel or iron is employed. Investigation has shown that many elements are acting on such stecl, and that in some cases, rust has greatly weakened the structural members. As is generally known, steel contracts and expands with heat and cold; crystallizes with electrolysis, and rusts, deteriorates and scales through atmospheric changes. Consequently, in the erection of our buildings, we should take that precaution in the selection of our materials that will assure our structure standing where weaknesses of this kind develop. As bearing out my statement in this respect, I append herewith an article entitled, "Rust as Shown in the Removing of a Seventeen Story Building," by T. Kennard Thomson, M. Am., S.O.C.E., which says:

The Gillender Building, a seventeen-story structure, at the north-west corner of Wall and Nassau Streets, New York City, was built in 1896, and removed in 1910.

When built, all the columns were encased in solid brickwork. The steelwork received one coat of paint in the shop and two after erection, but on removal showed little evidence of having been painted at all.

From the top to the bottom, wherever the spaces between the brick and steel were filled with Portland cement mortar, there was no rusting, bul, wherever the mortar did not fill such space completely, rusting had begun. Generally the undersides of the top and bottom flanges of the floor beams had begun to show rust while the web and upper surfaces, having been in contact with mortar, were in good condition.

The worst rusting of all was from the sixth floor down, on the north-east corner, where the columns had been against the adjoining building on the north side. The cover plates of these columns looked as if they had never been painted, but had stood in the open, exposed to all weather, for 6 or 7 years. On these columns onehalf, in volume, of many rivet heads could easily be bemoved.

This building had been erected by first-class contractors and with first-class materials, although the rusting had not yet made the building unsafe, there is no telling how soon it would have become so.

It would seem that if the columns had been encased and filled with wet concrete there would have been little clanger of rust, and they could thus easily have been protected from electrolysis. Oil or oil paints should not be placed on steel to be thus encased.

Messrs. Trowbridge and Livingston are the architects for the thirty-nine story Bankers' Trust Building which will take the place of the Gillender Building, and Messrs. Marc Eidlitz and Son are the contractors, to whom the writer gives his thanks.

IN ORDER to be more conveniently in touch with architects and contractors, the Roman Stone Company, Toronto, has moved its head office from the factory at 90 100 Marlborough avenue to Suite 504505 Temple Building. Owing to its many excellent qualities, "Roman Stone" is rapidly growing in favor, and is being broadly specified throughout the country. The company has enjoyed a very successful season, and reports a number of important contracts on hand at the present time.

## POSITION OF AI.A. ON COMPETITION PROGRAMMES.-Cont d from Page 48.

at last reached the conclusion that the most effective means within its command for the Improvement of competition practlee lies in seelng to it that its own members co not take part in ill-regulated competitions.

Architects generally have for many years regarded the Institute as the highest authority on the ethics of the profession, and the Institute is certainly within its province when it in= structs its members as to what is good competition practice and reguires them to conform to it, just as when it instructs them on other questions of professional ethics and requires them to conform to these instructions.

In consonance with thes thoughts, the convention of 1907 adopted certain principles as in its opinion fundamental to the proper conduct of competitions, while that of 1508 decided that any competition not conducted in accordance with them should be formally disapproved by the Insticute.

In practice it was found that it was impossifble to gain a knowledge of all or even of any large proportion of the competitions throughout the country so as to disapprove those not in harmony with the Institute's principics. It was also difficult and expensive to notify all members each time that a competition was disapproved. Thus many badly conducted competitions escaped attention and were open to the parifipation of members.

It became obvious that the converse of this scheme provided e. more practicable course. The convention oz 1909, therefore, adopted the principle that participation in any competition the program of which has not been approver by the Institute is unprotessional conduct.

The convention gave the board authority to approve acceptable programs and power to delegate that authority. Thus it became necessary for the board to establlsh a standard by which to test programs submitted for approval. Fortunately, the opinion of the profession as to the essentials of a good program being well crystaiized, the board found its task easier than it had anticlpated.

The formulation of these essentials resulted in a "Circular of Advice Relative to the Conduct of Architecturar Competitions" which serves the purpose of informing the public on the whole subject; of Instructing architects as to what the Institute regards as good practice; of strengthening the position of advisers chosen to conduct competitions as well as of setting up a standard to which programs must conform if they are to recelve the approval of the Institute.

The board delegated its power of approval to the Standing Committee on Competitions and to a sub-committee for the terrltory of each Chapter. Each of these sub-committees deals only with competitions for work to be xecuted within its own territory. Programs for work not within the territory of any Chapter are passed upon by the Standing Committee.

The Circular of Advice ts, in general, an essay on competttions and it is in the main-as its name indicates-merely an advisory document. The board found comparatively few things so essential to the proper conduct of a ompetition as to be made mandatory. Its instructions to the committees charged with giving the Institute's approval are that the program should conform to the spirlt of the Circular of Advice, dut as this statement might be interpreted in varlous ways, more specific directions are given:

1. Approval mist be vilhheld if a program appear not to be in consonance wish law.
2. Except the latu require an open compctition, approval may not be fiecn to one in. which no precaulions are taken that the competilors are competent fo desion and exectete the toork.
3. As expericnce shown that unless a profesvional aduiser be in charge of them, competitions are almost always hopelessly bad, the In. stitute will give its approval to no competition that is not in charge of such an adviscr.
4. The Inslitutc will apmove no program that dors not conslitute a contract between the owner and competitors guarantecing that in award of the commisision to decign and supervise the worte woill be made to one of the competitors, wor will it aanction a program which faits to establish the ter:ms of the wimner's cmployment as those of the Institute's schedtrle. There must also be provision for adequate compensalion in case of the architect's dismissal or of the abandonment of the work.

It would seem that no argument is necassary to show that, lacking any of the above requirements, the programme falls to reach such a standard as the institute shouda set for Its members.

A brief summary of the advisory portions of the circular would show that they treat the subject as follows:

1. It is pointed outt that competitions are not generally to the advantage of the owner, that it is better to employ an architect on the basis of his fitness for the work and that if a compctilion must be held, the intcrests of the owoner toill be best aerved by equilable and definite agreements between himself and the competitors.
2. The role of Professional $A$ diviser is acfined and his employment urged.
3. The owncr is adrised not to hold a competition open to all comers, but to carefully select his compctitors.
4. The kinds of compefition recognized by the Institute are affined.
5. Strict anonymily of comperitors is uroed.
6. The owner is advised to avoid variolts pitfalls in respect to the cost of the proposed work, competitors' and builders' estimates, etc.
7. The owner is wroed to reccive the advice of a compelent jury before making the award.
8. Reasons are given why drawings should be as few in number and imple in character as will express the general desion of the building. 9. A propramme is outhined in detail, some twenty olatements beino mode as to its csacntial contents.
9. The qucstion of what conatitute proper apreements between
owner and competitors, and betwcen owner and winner is treated at length.
10. The proper conduct of architects and of the owner is considered. The circular was Issued upon the 30th of March, 1010, and was widely circulated among members of the profession and the pubic generally through owners, editors, educators, etc. Coples of it may be obtained from Mr. Glenn Brown, secretary of the American Institute of Architects, the Octagon, Washington, D.C. Its reception was marked by general approval and it has since then been in successful operation. Many programs have been brought into harmony with Its requirements and have recelved the approval of the Institute. In some instances, the owner on recoiving the clrcular has decided to abandon the ldea of a compelillion, ng the clrcular has decided to abandon the ldea of a compelillion and has chosen his architect directly, a much to be desirtil reult. In the instances In which the program was not brought Into harmony with the principles approved by the Institute, the results have justified members in not taking part in the competitlon, since the outcome in most cases shows elther fallure to appoint any competitor as architect or fallure to proceed with the work for which the competition was held.

Very truly yours.
Frank Miles Dey,
Chairman.

## RIZE DESIGNS

FOR A SMAILL
BRICK HOUSE

Awards in recent competition conducted by the "Bick Builder,"
B aton-Of interest to d signers and archive tural atudenta.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF BRICK, in domestic architectural design, has been more pronounced in moderate -riced clwelling in England, possibly, than any other country in the world. The domestic architecture of England is, without question, superior to residential design in any other country in the world, and the English designer of moderate priced dwellings is truly a builder in brick. During the past decade, however, the architects $c^{r}$ the Eastern States in the American Union have shown a strong tendency toward the development of the artistic npolication. of brick in dwellings, from the moderate priced cottage to the luxurious mansion, and it may be said that in this connection they have done some noteworthy work, and the brick buildings as designed to -day by architects of ability are of a vastly better type than these erected twenty years ago. There is no question about the fact that the architectural possibilities of brick, especially in domestic work, even to-day are not thoroughly appreciated bv many of our architects. The recent work of our Canselian architects has shown a better appreciation of possibilities of this grand o!d building material in their higher priced residences, but we have not as yet deve'oped as much as we should have in the in the artistic and practical use of bricks in the moderace and low priced dwellings.

The "Brickbui der," of Boston, recentlv conducted a competition for a brick house to cost $\$ 4,000$, and the designs submitted which were awarded prizes are, to say the least, most interesting. The report of the Tury of Award as published in the "Brickbuilder" was as followi:

The mandatory conditions of the program for this competition (A Brick House, the cost not to exceed $\$ 4,-$ 000.00 ) necessarily made the problem rather a difficuit one if the condition as to cost was to be met, and it was so recognized by the jury, who approached their part of the problem in rather a skeptical frame of mind as to the ability of any one to produce a design which should meat this condition and at the same time have the charm and gocd planning which should be demanded in a competition of this kind. It was recognized by the judges that in the vast majority of competitions for low priced houses heid within the past few years, apparently no attention had been paid to the condition as to cost, whereas, in practice, in houses of this class it is a vital factor, a small variation from the limit set being of serious importance to the prospective builder of a moderate cost house.

After consideration, $\$ 5.00$ was agreed upon as a fair price per square foot, though it was recognized as rather low for :building in the immediate vicinity of the larger


Second Prize Design, Competition for a Small Brick House, Submitted by Francis D. Bulman, Boston, Mass.


Third Prize Design, Competition for a Small Brick House, Submitted by Stewart Wagner, New York City.


Fourth Prize Design, Competition for a Small Brick House, Submitted by A. R. Nadel, Boston, Mass..




Third Mention Design, Competition for a Small Brick House, Submittèd by Charlee F. Hogeboon, Brooklyn, N.Y.


Fourth Mention Design, Submitted by Albert G. Hopkins, Boston, Mass.
cities. This set a limit of 800 souare feet to the allowable area. While this simplified the work of the judges in considering the three hundred and twelve designs submitted. they were disappointed in the large number which were necessarily ruled out of competition; nevertheless it was felt that after this test the best designs remained for further consideration. The prob.em necessarily demanded great simplicity both in plan and elevation, and its solution a careful discrimination as to what should and what should not be included in a house of this class. The conditions of the program made the plan of seinndary con. sideration; their practicability and general arrangement were, however, steadily kept in mind.

First Prize. A very able and charming design with good details, a design which would be most interesting if executed. The plan is one of the best arranged and effective of those submitted.

Second Prize. A very simple and characteristic brick design of the Colonial type, which wou!d depend for its effectiveness very largely on the texture of brick and method of laying. The cornice is unfortunately weak. The plan, however, is excellent, and the design one, on the whole, which gives the greatest promise of being built within the appropriation.

Third Prize. A simple, straightforward design, economical in plan and construction. While the second floor has been sacrificed by the method of roofing the gain in economy is justified by the results on the exterior. The second floor would be improved if there were but one room over the living room-three bedrooms being all that could reasonably be required in a house of this character.

Fourlh Prize.' A design rather reminiscent of Ens. lish work and one which would probably be even more interest:ng in exccution than in the drawing.

First Mention. A good brick design which is injured by the large scale of the onenings in the stair bay, while the composition is hurt by the importance given to the entrance gate.

Second Mcution. An interesting and unusual plan. The garden elevation is the simpler and the better of the two given.

Third Mention. A very interesting treatment beautifully presented. The details are good but would add materially to the cost of construction.


Fifth Mention Design, Submitted by Charles D. Schnelder, Cleveland, Ohlo.

Fourth Mention. A design which on account of its great simplicity is a good solution of the problem; one which would again depend largely for its effect on the kind of brick work and method of laying.

Fifth Mention. This design was felt to be rather too much broken up and lacking in the simplicity requisite for a house of this class, though interesting in its effect.

Sixth Mention. This design is the most picturesque of all the designs considered. It is, however, hardly fitted to be carried out entirely in brick.


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## CORRECTION

WE BEG to take this opportunity to correct an error in connection with the advertisement of Benjamin Moore and Company, Toronto, appearing in our November issue, which stated that their "iron-clad paints" were used on the steel work of the new Pennsylvania Terminus, New York. This should have read "The Grand Central Station," a contract possibly of equal importance and magnitude. It might be mentioned, however, as regards the Pennsylvania Station, that the "Benjamin Moore products" were broadly specified, as is evidenced by the fact that the company supplied more "concrete paint" for this structure than all other concerns put together. The selection in either of the above cases, was made purely on the basis of quality, and it is upon this basis that the company has built up its large business, both in Canada and the United States. One of the reasons for this firm's success, is the fact that they have made a business of specialization and have therefore locen in a position to market the highest quality paints and products that can be manufactured for ardhitectural and structural purposes. Among their specialities are such well known products, other than those previously mentioned, as "Muresco" Wall Finish, "Sani-Flat" Oil paint, and "Impervo Brand" Varnish. Over a half million pounds of "Muresco" alone, were sold in Canada this year.

[^4]tablished a Canadian brancli through the Canada Ford Company, Canadian Express Building, Montreal, who will hanclle all their well-known manufactures, including steam turbines, high speed engines, electric generators, motors, transformers, electric lamps, fans and other apparatus, steam and clectric locomotive, and street car and underground rolling stock.

## "BITUNAMEL"

THE PROBLEM OF PROTECTING steel and iron from rust and corrosion is something which at the present time is giving engineers and architects no little concern, Investigations have shown in a large number of instances that where proper precautions are not taken in this respect, that the structural life of such materials is infinite-. ly less than originally calculated. Possibly nothing can be cited to more fully bear out this point than the Gillinger Building, New York, a 17 -story structure which was recently razed to make way for a larger and more important building. Despite the fact that the steel work had been given three coats of paint, it was found during the process of demolition that rust had developed in certain parts of the structure to an alarming degree, especially from the sixth floor down; and that in general there was very little or no evidence of paint having been used at all.

What is claimed to be one of the best protectives for stecl and iron work is known "Bitunamel," an enamellike coating of a bituminous nature manufactured by the Atlt and Wiborg Company, Turonto. Although comparatively new in Canada, this product has been used extensively in the British Isles, where for a number of years back it has successfully wiihstood the test of a damp and wet atmospheric conditions. Steel plate, pontoons and water tanks coated with "Bitunamel" from 10 to 18 years ago are still perfectly protected, with absolutely no in dication of rust of corrosion: Nothing perhaps attests to its virtue in this respect more than the fact that "Bitunamel" is employed on the Cunard Liners and other ocean going vessels as a rotection against the action of the salt water. Besides being possessed of great elasticity and tenacity, this product has a great covering capacity and is easily applied, one coat usually being sufficient in most cases. In addition to its advantages for steel work "Bitunamel" is also used extensively for water-proofing stone and concrete foundations, and is being employed in this particular on a number of important structures throughout Canada, including Burwash Hall at Victoria College, Toronto. Samples and full information regarding the many merits of this product, together with a list of buildings and structures on which it is employed, will be sent to architects, engineers and owners upon request.

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[^0]:    *Abstract of a paper read before the American Society of Mr chanical Engineers.

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[^2]:    Ground Floor Plan, Residence of Mrs. C. C. Cummings, Toronto.

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