Quality concrete facts from Portland Cement Association

Concreting in cold weather

Table 1. RECOMMENDED CONCRETE TEMPERATURES FOR COLD-WEATHER CONSTRUCTION*(air-entrained concrete)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Line</th>
<th>Condition of placement and curing</th>
<th>Thin sections</th>
<th>Moderate sections</th>
<th>Mass sections</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Min. temp. fresh concrete as mixed for weather as indicated, deg. F.</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Min. temp. fresh concrete as placed, deg. F.</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Min. temp. fresh concrete as mixed for weather as indicated, deg. F.</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Max. allowable gradual drop in temp. throughout first 24 hours after end of protection, deg. F.</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Adapted from Standard Recommended Practice for Cold Weather Concreting (ACI 306-66), American Concrete Institute.

Table 2. RECOMMENDED DURATION OF PROTECTION** FOR CONCRETE PLACED IN COLD WEATHER (air-entrained concrete)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Degree of exposure to freeze-thaw</th>
<th>Type I or II cement</th>
<th>Type III, accelerator, or extra-bag cement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No exposure</td>
<td>2 days</td>
<td>1 day</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Any exposure</td>
<td>3 days</td>
<td>2 days</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Protection for durability at temperature indicated in line 4, Table 1. **Adapted from Standard Recommended Practice for Cold Weather Concreting (ACI 306-66), American Concrete Institute.

Basic guides for winter concreting

2. Use air-entrained concrete.
3. Don’t place concrete on frozen subbase. Be sure that all ice, snow and frost are removed from surfaces the concrete will touch.
4. For durability, the concrete should be kept at the temperature shown in line 4 of Table 1 for the period of time shown in Table 2. Consider using high-early strength concrete.
5. Cure concrete to prevent loss of moisture. When heated enclosures are used, provide extra moisture by sprinkling or use live steam for heating. Vent salamanders and other fuel-burning heaters.
6. Do not allow use of so-called antifreeze compounds in an attempt to lower the freezing point of concrete.
7. Leave forms in place as long as job schedules permit. Reshoring is necessary until concrete reaches required design strength.
8. Keep job condition records. Record, at least twice daily: weather conditions, temperatures of the air around the concrete, and the concrete surface.
9. Don’t use water reducers or retarders if concrete is to cure below 60°F—they may prolong the set.
10. The use of calcium chloride or admixtures containing soluble chlorides is not recommended under certain conditions:
   a. In prestressed concrete because of the possible corrosion hazards.
   b. In concrete containing embedded aluminum (e.g., conduit) since serious corrosion of the aluminum can result.
   c. Where galvanized steel will remain in permanent contact with the concrete.
   d. In concrete subjected to alkali-aggregate reaction or exposed to soils or water containing sulfates.

Curing:
Specimens cast and moist-cured at temperature indicated for first 28 days. All moist-cured at 73°F thereafter. Type 1 cement.

Effect of low temperatures on concrete compressive strength at various ages.

Write for free informative literature on cold-weather concreting.

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- What is the calibre of the contractor's work?
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- Andrae has never missed a completion date on an assignment.
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- Windows open to a full 90°.
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- Color coordinated hardware and screen that blends with the wood finish.
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ALUMINUM-STEEL CUSTOM FABRICATED IN CONTEMPORARY FINISHES

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**ROL-LOK SIDING**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>EXTERIOR FLUSH FACE</th>
<th>INTERIOR FLUSH FACE</th>
<th>SINGLE SPAN</th>
<th>DOUBLE SPAN</th>
<th>TRIPLE SPAN</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>16G. AL.</td>
<td>12'6&quot;</td>
<td>14'0&quot;</td>
<td>15'0&quot;</td>
<td>16'6&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18G. AL.</td>
<td>12'3&quot;</td>
<td>13'6&quot;</td>
<td>15'0&quot;</td>
<td>16'0&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20G. ST.</td>
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<td>14'6&quot;</td>
<td>15'0&quot;</td>
<td>16'0&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22G. ST.</td>
<td>13'6&quot;</td>
<td>14'0&quot;</td>
<td>14'6&quot;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18G. AL.</td>
<td>11'0&quot;</td>
<td>12'3&quot;</td>
<td>12'0&quot;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18G. ST.</td>
<td>17'6&quot;</td>
<td>17'0&quot;</td>
<td>17'0&quot;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22G. ST.</td>
<td>17'0&quot;</td>
<td>15'6&quot;</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20G. ST.</td>
<td>16'0&quot;</td>
<td>16'2&quot;</td>
<td>16'6&quot;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22G. ST.</td>
<td>14'6&quot;</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Above values based on 20psf. wind load and max. defl. of 1/180 span.

**INTERLOCKING JOINT BETWEEN DECK PANELS**

When Rol-Lok elements are assembled in the uninsulated deck configuration the interlocking tongue along each panel edge is continuously staked at 2 in. centers thus securing the two elements into one rigid tongue and groove cellular metal plank. Engagement of successive panels during installation is simple, easy and as rapid as ordinary roof deck erection.

**S’ PANEL LOAD TABLE**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>EXTERIOR FACE</th>
<th>SINGLE SPAN</th>
<th>DOUBLE SPAN</th>
<th>TRIPLE SPAN</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>16G. AL.</td>
<td>9'6&quot;</td>
<td>10'6&quot;</td>
<td>11'6&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18G. AL.</td>
<td>9'3&quot;</td>
<td>10'3&quot;</td>
<td>11'3&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20G. ST.</td>
<td>9'6&quot;</td>
<td>10'0&quot;</td>
<td>10'9&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22G. ST.</td>
<td>9'9&quot;</td>
<td>10'2&quot;</td>
<td>10'1&quot;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Above values based on 20psf. wind load and max. defl. of 1/180 span.

**U’ PANEL LOAD TABLE**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>EXTERIOR FACE</th>
<th>SINGLE SPAN</th>
<th>DOUBLE SPAN</th>
<th>TRIPLE SPAN</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>16G. AL.</td>
<td>8'9&quot;</td>
<td>10'0&quot;</td>
<td>10'9&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18G. AL.</td>
<td>8'6&quot;</td>
<td>9'9&quot;</td>
<td>10'8&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20G. ST.</td>
<td>9'6&quot;</td>
<td>10'6&quot;</td>
<td>11'5&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22G. ST.</td>
<td>9'9&quot;</td>
<td>11'0&quot;</td>
<td>11'9&quot;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Above values based on 20psf. wind load and max. defl. of 1/180 span.
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**Notes of the Month**

Notes From the State Department of Industry, Labor and Human Relations

BY: Charles A. Hagberg, Administrator, Ind. Safety & Buildings Div.

One of the basic requirements of a safe building is that the exits provide an adequate means of egress for the occupants and visitors.

During the past year we have had several requests to allow longer distances to exits than the code allows. Most of these requests have come from designers of large single story factory buildings requiring large undivided areas for various manufacturing operations. By approval of petitions for modification, the commissioners have permitted distances in excess of 150 feet in a sprinklered building provided that other substantial safety methods and devices were used to provide equivalent safety. The Commission asked that smoke and heat vents be installed in the roof, smoke curtains provided, standpipes installed, fire extinguishers provided, and that the employer have certain key people trained in emergency rescue techniques.

An exit is usually referred to as a door or opening to the exterior of a building. This is a very simple definition but it does not cover all of the exit requirements. Actually, an exit should be broken down into three distinct parts: (1) the exit access; (2) the exit way; and (3) the exit discharge.

The exit access is the distance a person has to travel from any point in a building to a protected enclosure or to the outside. An example of this is the distance from any point in a multistory building to the stairway enclosure. Another example is the distance from any point in a single story building to a fire protected corridor or to the exterior of the building. The exit access must be measured along public passageways which usually results in rectangular measurements on the plans. The location of office equipment, machinery or stored material usually precludes the striking of arcs to measure distance to exits. The distance to exits

(Continued on page 28)
The Crisis of the City: British Views

A symposium on The Crisis of the City with five British guests was held on September 16, 1967, at the University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee. The program was sponsored by the Institute of World Affairs, University Extension, UWM Institute of Urban Affairs and the History Department in cooperation with the Wisconsin Chapter, The American Institute of Planners. The guest speakers covered planning in Britain from its evolutionary, social and political aspects, from the urban preservation and civic design point of view to the actual problems and prospects of planning itself. If we stop ourselves for one moment to truly understand the implication of what we are told, namely that the United States population will double within the next fifty-year period, and that, if trends continue, more than eighty percent of our people will live in metropolitan areas, then it seems none too soon for us to get concerned about planning in the United States with a deeper understanding of the planning process and its inevitable necessity. Although it is true that the United States has not yet reached the crisis of land shortage that Britain has faced for the last thirty years, much of what we can expect here can be forecast by what happened in Britain. Since we can learn much from the successes as well as failures of the sophisticated British planning system, we here reproduce the first two lectures with the intent of continuing the others in future issues.

Evolution of City Planning in Britain

J. B. Cullingworth, Director, Centre for Urban and Regional Studies, University of Birmingham, Birmingham, England

My job this morning is to provide a broad background sketch of the British planning scene as it evolved. I will try to pick out the main issues and tie them together in a way which makes sense. Town and country planning as a function of government in Britain developed out of public health and housing policies, out of concern with sanitation, inadequate water supplies, disease and so on in rapidly growing industrial towns of 19th century Britain. These health and sanitary problems were very largely overcome by the turn of the century, although, unfortunately there are a number of legacies that are still with us. The way in which controls were exercised over new house building meant a very considerable improvement in the sanitary equipment and livability of residence properties. But as we so often find when we solve one problem of social policy we thereby create or more usually uncover other social problems. This was particularly true in this case. The new bylaws, as we call them, to control houses were expensive. There was a widening of the gap between an economic return for the investment in working class housing and the rent paying capacity of working class families. It was this which led to a growth of public housing policy. The second point about this particular development was ugliness. While low housing might have been sanitary it was frequently very ugly. In a curious sort of way this was a meeting point for public health and architecture. This led fairly quickly to legislation permitting local authorities to prepare town planning schemes. I should point out here that local authorities in Britain are rather different from authorities in the United States. There are far fewer of them. They are much more heavily supported by Central Government and they have a much wider range of function. This early town planning legislation to enable local authorities to prepare schemes was extremely cumbersome and I want to dwell a minute on the problems because this will show the way in which the machinery we devised in 1947 was geared to overcome these particular problems. Problems which are essential features of the situation, and, as I am beginning to understand, problems which are facing you in the United States. The first and perhaps the most important initial problem was a compensation one. That, if controls were exercised and somebody was prevented from doing what previously he had a right to do, then he had to be compensated. This made planning extremely and prohibitively costly. Secondly, the schemes were essentially local ones and there was little coordination between one scheme and another. They were land-use plans that were inward looking rather than being wise plans that bore some relationship to each other. Partly as a result of this they were often completely unrealistic. To give one small example of this, half the country was covered with planning schemes at the outbreak of the second war and in these schemes there was sufficient land allocated to house 350 million people which was ten times the population at that time. So, we had an increasing acceptance during the end of the war years that the planning system we had devised could not cope. But at the same time there was increasing attention to the problems of the growth of the cities, to the idea of green belts and to a policy of moving population or overspill, to use the inelegant word which we use, in new towns.
Now, restraining urban growth, a very important feature of British planning policy, is a peculiarly English sort of an idea. It has a very long tradition. In fact, Queen Elizabeth I issued a proclamation in 1580 that the city of London was big enough and should not grow anymore. Cynics say that Queen Elizabeth II is likely to achieve a similar success. But this policy of restraining the growth of large cities obviously was not a field of action for individuals, for private enterprise, for idealists. One needed a massive planning machine to be able to effect it. The corollary of this — building new towns — was, and there have been a remarkable number of new communities which have been tried, usually without success but in a surprising number of cases with success, privately in Britain. Many of these developments had a strong religious or idealistic overtone. The classic formulation, of course, was that of Ebenezer Howard. This formulation was influential, not only on thought but also on action. Because the first real new towns of any significance in Britain were two new towns built under Howard's influence in 1903 and 1923. This is the second element of evolution of planning in Britain. The first, the emergence from public health and housing; the second, the restraint of urban growth and housing the population in new towns. There was a third and there still is a third stage which is becoming of increasing significance in our thinking. The mounting concern that we had in the thirties with the growth of cities and particularly with London was very much tied-up with a regional problem, the decline of the north or the relative decline of Scotland and Wales, the outlying provinces of Britain. One and a quarter million people migrated to London during the end of the war years. The fact that is underlying this, particularly the massive unemployment, eventually brought things to a head in the late thirties and we followed the typical English answer to this by setting up a committee. This committee is one of the most famous — and as far as planning is concerned — one of the most important, the Barlow Commission. This commission together with two others reporting on ancillary matters all pointed to the need for a comprehensive, national, regional and local planning system, to machinery for regulating all development and to a solution to the compensation betterment problem. It would be interesting to speculate if anything would have come out of this at all if it had not been for the War. War is a great catalyst of social and political action. During the war we had considerable experience of administrative controls, especially of industrial location and development. We began to acquire the skills to do a job which previously had been politically out of the question. Politically, without any doubt, we now had enough experience to see that it was administratively possible. The War and the aftermath of the War made it politically possible to undertake things of this sort. War at one and the same time occasions a real questioning of the society and its inadequacies and a real determination to make things better. So, a new and better Britain was the slogan. It had been a slogan, however, at the end of the first World War. With the experience we had and the lack of success which attended our efforts, we were determined that an administrative machine would be established which would enable the new and better Britain to be built. The machinery which was established, and I will deal with this very briefly, was first the establishment of a central government department. The local level planning powers were taken away from the majority of the existing local authorities and given to a very much smaller number. In fact, the number was reduced for England in Wales from 1400 to 140. There was no regional machinery, politically the time wasn't right for this. So, one just had the central government department and 140 local planning authorities. We instituted a system of development control. All building with minor exceptions, advertisements, changes of use, anything which could be called development or change of use, became subject to control. Control exercised by local planning authorities, who were responsible for drawing up plans with no appeals to the courts. The only appeal would be to the Ministry of Town and Country Planning. This is something which distinguishes the British system from the American system. In Britain, particularly in the planning field, the public official has a range of administrative disgression which is certainly not the case with the planning machine in the United States.

Each of the 140 planning authorities was required to prepare a development plan for its area. This was not a zoning plan, this was a broad generalized plan of land uses and theoretically a statement of planning policies for this area rather than a detailed plan for land uses, a framework of control for development rather than a straightjacket for it. Now the fact
that individual developers had and still have, of course, to apply for planning permission, in
effect means, the State has nationalized development rights. Nobody has a right to develop
his property. In 1947 we also nationalized development values. So not only did a person not
have the right to develop but even if he were allowed to develop, the development value that
was thereby given rise to, was not his. It was a community value. No compensation under
this system was allowed for refusal of planning permission. There were certain transitional
arrangements. Briefly, what we did, was to set up a fund for buying out all development rights
throughout the country. People who had existing development rights were compensated at a
time when they wished to develop. This system broke down.

The Sea Coast, Cornwall

We also introduced legislation for building new towns. It established machinery for
setting up government sponsored development corporations that would be responsible for
developing new towns with finance provided by the Central Government. We also instituted
a system additional to that of planning control for industrial location control. No industry
would be allowed to develop more than a certain footage without a certificated permission
from a central government department which was concerned and I quote the legislation: “With
the proper distribution of industry.” A final thing which I just pick out of the list of salient
features of the British planning system was the establishment of national parks and other
measures to protect the countryside and the coast line.

Symond’s Yat, The Midlands

The policy, to the extent that one can talk about planning policy, was regional. It was
for the restraint of economic growth in the southeast of England and in the Midlands, the
boom areas of the country, and the more than proportionate channeling of resources for
development into the areas of comparative stagnation. A policy generally of restraining the
growth of large cities, encircling them with green belts, fitting out the congested urban course
and replacing the slums. These broadly were the policies which have been followed in Britain
since the war. Policies, I hasten to say — not achievements. The machinery for implementing
these policies has involved a very large amount of action and development by public
authorities. Not just the controls, I have been so far speaking about, but actual development.
Housing is a nice case in point. Over 50% of all house production in Britain currently is
public housing. A quarter of all houses in the country are now public houses. Well, what are
the achievements? Some 23 new towns. We are now on a second round of new towns and
their number is going up all the time. These 23 new towns are now accommodating 800,000
people. Sixty expanding towns accommodate some 150,000 people. We demolished since the
war about 1 million slum houses and are currently demolishing at the rate of 75,000 a year.
We have established 10 national parks, covering about 9% of the land area of the country.
By this means and similar means we have one-third of the coastline of the country protected.
We have managed to effect a large scale movement of jobs from the congested areas of the
south and the Midlands to the less prosperous areas of the north. Other things are much more
difficult to measure. It is much more difficult to assess qualitative issues, questions of amenity,
improvement in visual environment and so on. We certainly have not stopped urban growth.
How far greater the urban growth would have been without these controls is a nice
issue for debate. The compensation betterment provisions, which I mentioned earlier, broke
down, as you can well imagine. It was very much a matter for political argument and they
broke down in the early fifties. But we have reinstated them again in quite a different form
this year. The system of development control has become horribly bogged down in details.
What were intended to be flexible plans have tended to become rigid. But above all, the
problems we haven’t really coped with, because we didn’t expect them, are the problems that
arise from a large population increase, from a very much unexpected increase in wealth, and
from a much larger and even more unexpected increase in personal mobility. As a result of all
these factors, we are now going through a process of re-examining what we are doing, how we
are doing it and why we are doing it. We are beginning to try to get the proper coordination
of transportation and land use plans and a new type of development plan. There is an
emergence of regional thinking which is the necessary prelude to regional planning. This
Planning in a Democracy


Planning in a democracy is a very large subject and I got to be fairly selective. I think one should begin by saying that essentially the notion of democracy on the one hand and planning on the other are really in conflict. Democracy, which ever way you look at it, does imply at the minimum that there is a possibility of change of government over reasonably short periods, while planning does imply to some extent continuity of policy over time. Having raised this issue, I am not going to pursue it any further. But I think it is one of the problems which lies at the heart of this particular subject, a problem we are willing to face up to and a problem which we face very acutely in Britain, especially at the Central Government level, where we are trying to effect a gain, particularly in economic planning, some element of continuous policy. But the British Government because of the nature of British democracy is very much tied to the short term. So, that whenever we begin with tremendous aspirations, we are constantly forced back to the short term. What we really want to focus on in a general way are two aspects of democracy in planning, the very local and that what has come to be known in Britain as the regional. The structure of planning on the local level in Britain focuses around roughly 150 authorities, the cities which have home rule, we call them county boroughs, and the surrounding areas, which are divided up into counties. Unlike your counties, counties in England have substantial powers. Below the counties there are a series of county districts. These act with the counties in planning procedures. The county councils are the statutory authorities, but the county districts participate at the local level. Power really resides at the county level. So, roughly 150 local planning authorities and the essential instruments with which they carry out their work, is a twenty-year development plan which has to be approved by Central Government, and which is reviewed every five years. Incidentally, all of this is now in the melting pot. We are just able, coming at this time, to talk about the planning structure, although it is likely going to be changed. For substantial protection for individual people, affected by planning, there is a rather elaborate appeal procedure whereby individuals affected can appeal against the county. The elected member in English local planning authority is unpaid. The permenent role, as it were, is played by the full-time official. There is a very clear distinction, as there is not in America, between the amateur unpaid part-time elected person and the full-time official. This is quite important and...
I shall be coming back to that later. Now the aspect of the local element that I want to touch on is really citizenship participation or relations with the public. I think you can break this down without doing too much injustice to reality into roughly four aspects. First, there are the people directly affected by planning decisions, that is to say, the occupants of individual houses or the owners of particular plots. Then there is the conception of the general public, that is to say, the public as a whole in a broad sense covering the whole of the planning authority and then there is what you might like to call two kinds of groups. There is the functional group, a particular group of citizens who have a particular interest in that aspect of planning policy. It might be the tenants of public housing, it might be a spontaneous group interested in amenity or preservation. And there is what you might call the area group, a particular planning decision affects a particular community, something less than the total area of the planning authority. Now, I think it is true to say, that apart from the first type — the individual directly affected — the other three, the general public and the two kinds of organized groups don’t really get adequate democratic rights. They don’t, I think, get their fair crack at the whip. And it is really this that I want to pursue further because it brings out the fundamental difference between American local government and British local government. First of all, I think this fundamental difference is the nature of British democracy. We have a tradition of very strong government. Everybody accepts the notion that once an authority is elected it be allowed to get on with the job. There isn’t really a lot of concern as there is in the United States with the kind of continuous dialogue between the governors and the governed. In particular there is a very weak tradition, if it exists at all, of your particular notion of the elected member as a sort of an honest broker who puts his finger to the wind and bends according to which way the wind blows. This is not so in Britain. It does bring out a very big difference between the two. British democracies have evolved out of an essentially aristocratic tradition. The notion of a social elite being the political elite is being carried over because it has been acceptable to all parties. It has been acceptable to the Conservative Party for obvious reasons and in some areas of our local government, particularly the more fashionable counties, the arrival of democracy hardly affected the kind of social elite which governs. Persons controlling the county council very much remained the same as before 1898 when we first brought one man one vote to the county council. In the cities, where there has been a substantial revolution — most of the major cities in a normal year — if anybody can quite define that, is controlled by the Labour Party. They too accept this tradition because it suits a notion of a party coming to power with a particular program in mind. This notion of democracy, of strong government suits that kind of a party, the assumption being, if you don’t like it then vote for the other side at the next election.

A second aspect of this British democracy element is the extent to which the British governmental tradition emphasizes the idea of responsibility and here we touch on another very clear distinction between American and British democracy, and that is the idea that democracy resides not so much in a sort of civil rights, individual rights notion, but in the governors being responsible and responsive. That is to say, the individual elector chooses at the polls and then when the next chance to vote comes he knows exactly who is responsible. We have no notion of spreading power which is very characteristic of Federal and local government in the United States, the idea that if you split them up you can control them better. There is a much greater element in trust in government in Britain. Whether this is right or wrong is not for me to say, I am just describing it. The idea is then that you can always identify, theoretically anyway, those who are responsible. This system has a sort of centralized focus too. I suppose I should add in parenthesis that there is also a very strong tradition of secrecy of government. We do not have anything like your notion of open democracy. Our governors believe that if they keep it secret all the better and anything that is revealed you try to squash as quickly as possible. Finally, I suppose, one should add that in local government at least we have a very well developed system of professional experts. All the functions of local government are backed by very strong professional associations. I suspect, much stronger than yours, for the very good reason that they conduct also their own training and inter-requirements. The university system in Britain does not comprehend all the major professions as it does here. Much of the training of professional experts in government is conducted by the professional associations themselves. This, of course, gives them tremendous strength. In effect it means then, like all bureaucracies and experts, they are not keen to have outside amateurs to interfere with the essential problem of just doing the right thing. So much for the discourse on the nature of democracy. The second aspect which gives British democracy and planning its characteristic is the nature of our legal system. Britain and the United States have a common legal heritage, but in our country there is even less recognition of the emergence of administrative law. We still fail to recognize it formally. Of course, we have to informally. We have a great hodgepodge of varying institutions, and we have never,
as the French have for example, recognized that there is administrative law that has to be recognized as a separate jurisprudence. As far as planning is concerned it has meant that some aspects of planning have become curiously overlegalized. I mentioned the inquiry system which is essentially a method whereby the minister acts in a quasi judicial capacity, holding the ring as it were between the individual objector and the local planning authority. Coming back to my original definition of that first aspect of democracy, the defense of individuals directly affected, it has been catered for, but we have not yet adequately recognized the role of the community sufficiently and that there is a vital element in administrative law which recognizes the public good. The other aspect we ought to consider, if we are to understand the British system adequately, is the nature of planning itself. Here we have problems in common to both countries. Planning is a very difficult concept for the general man in the street to comprehend. It is difficult enough for me and I have tried to look at it for the last seven or eight years. Planning is inevitably problematical, theoretical and abstract. It is always promising something that never really quite emerges. The requirement that is placed upon the public to understand demands that it keeps a constant watch over time for very large periods of time. Inherent in planning anyway is a restrictive element, so that the public does not view planning very sympathetically. Where it does begin to comprehend it still dislikes because it cannot identify a product of it. Unlike in education you cannot point to nice new schools or more children getting university entrance. You cannot point to healthier children and you cannot point to decline in identifiable diseases. So, one must say that planning is restrictive and abstract. I think to many people it appears dictatorial. That is common in both countries. Finally, there is a special British element which we ought to mention. British planning itself until very recently was dominated — and I am exaggerating here — by largely one ideology. Planning essentially arose first out of social problems and inadequate housing, the need to control the market because it was felt that unrestricted development produced contagious diseases and then later acquired the aesthetic notion of the perfect environment. Planning until recently had been dominated by architects who felt that there was a notion of environment which was unquestionable as being the best one in which people ought to live. This was essentially a static notion, not static in the sense that you have to have planning controls and also achieve this final perfect city, but static in the sense that it did not want to recognize changes which occurred in peoples’ habits which might interfere with this notion. There was a large discount of the effect of communications. It was not properly understood that the notion of a specialized land-use pattern, open space here, residential there, employment factors there, inevitably involved movement in communications. This, I think it is fair to say, was not adequately understood, nor was the effect on this of tremendous increase in personal mobility. Secondly too, precisely because this planning idea emerged out of a reaction to the effects of unrestricted industrialization in the 19th century there was reluctance by planners to pay much attention to economics. Indeed quite to the contrary, it was a resistance, to what were felt to be quite orthodox, economic theories about the market mechanism, being the best determinant of the distribution of resources. There was very little contact then between planners and the economists. This again is a factor which is changing now. Why would I ask that more attention be paid to public attitudes in this? I think for a very vital reason and that is, however effective your machinery is — and we have a well articulated and powerful machinery — however effective your plans and policies are, over time you will lose on this unless you get at least some response and sympathy from the public. We saw in the 1950th in Britain a tendency for the planning machinery to slowly be eroded because there was a lack of sympathy or understanding in the public at large. The position we really arrived at until quite recently was that planning was fixed in the public mind as being essentially a process of control. The image of planning was seen in one peculiar stage in the planning process. It was epitomized by the widow being dispossessed of her house in order to widen a road, or the small owner occupying a shop being shifted out of a redevelopment area, not being able to return because the rents have been vastly increased and being replaced by a multiple. It was never seen in terms of the road which emerged in that road widening where traffic could move rather more speedily and more safely. Alternatively it was never seen in terms of the product of the redeveloped area, where mothers could at last shop safely with their children and did not have to wonder whether they were under the nearest bus. There is a hope and there are moves afoot, I mentioned the proposed change in the planning process, which I believe will attempt at least to some extent to meet this problem. We are very aware of this in Britain. One of the attempts of the new planning machinery will at least try to enlist the public and try to promote the end product of planning, to the extent of which it enlarges the life of the community. On the elements of the functional group notion there has been a spontaneous growth of local groups concerned with planning. There is no doubt in my mind that this tendency will increase.
The last fifteen years of Dankmar Adler’s life (1885-1900) found him, as he jokingly referred to himself in one of his letters, “a man of distinction” in the architectural profession. His words, whether in a formal address, conducting a meeting of the Illinois Institute of Architects, or in an architectural magazine, carried weight and influence. He wrote on a variety of subjects and was considered an authority on theater construction and on foundations, as we have seen in the previous article.

It is impossible to cover here the wide range of his interests which included articles on such subjects as Slow Burning and Fireproof Construction, Mechanical Plants of Large Buildings, Convention Halls and Light in Tall Office Buildings. At the time of his death he was writing a series of articles for an architectural encyclopedia on Acoustics and The Theater.

The end of the nineteenth century was the time of the banquet orator with heady speeches following enormous seven-course meals. It must have taken a spellbinder to keep the members of the A.I.A. or the Western Association of Architects awake, but Dankmar Adler seems to have been a lucid and vibrant speaker, his addresses generously peppered with humor and we trust that he succeeded. His competition was heavy and at any given meeting the audience might also have heard from William Le Baron Jenney, John Welborn Root, Louis Sullivan or Daniel Burnham.

The best known of Dankmar Adler’s speeches was delivered in November, 1896, at the Thirtieth Annual Convention of the A.I.A. as part of a symposium entitled The Influence of Steel and Plate Glass Upon Style. (It was reprinted in 1952 in Lewis Mumford’s book Roots of Contemporary American Architecture with the title Function and Environment.) Hugh Dalziel Duncan in his book Culture and Democracy says, “The sociology of architecture if ever undertaken as a study in America could scarcely find a better beginning than this article.”

Referring to an essay by his former partner, Louis Sullivan, whom he calls “a clear thinker and brilliant writer,” Adler elaborates on the dogma of “form follows function.” “Every architectural work has a function,” he says “a purpose which has called it into being and its success is measured by the degree of approximation to fulfillment of functions which characterize its form, but,” he goes on, “form is not determined by function alone but by environment as well, which in the last quarter century (preceeding 1896) placed many new materials at the disposal of the architect. Nothing can be more interesting than the observation of the existence of a living vigorous style, joyous in the consciousness of life, free to assimilate the old and create the new... The architect is not only an artist, but also an engineer, a man of science and a man of affairs. ... He is of the world as well as in it... The architect must, therefore, fit himself for the duties thrust upon him. The world calls on him to do the work of today with the tools of today.” Like Michelangelo, he points out the architect must learn all phases of his craft “pour all into the mold of contemporary requirements and bring forth his contribution to the architecture of...
the new world, the new age of steel, electricity and scientific progress. . . . The new material and processes, the new requirements, should not, however, in their introduction into architecture and in their assimilation by our art, be treated as things apart and by themselves, but as related to and part of all that has gone before in the long history of human and artistic progress."

Ten years earlier, almost to the day, Dankmar Adler had spoken to the third annual convention of the Western Association of Architects of which he was President. He began his speech with these words of welcome, "Seeing assembled before me the men who have made and are still making a most eventful epoch in the development of architecture I cannot find words to express the feelings of gratitude, of pride and of self-congratulation which force themselves upon me as I realize how great is the privilege granted us in being part, not of a Renaissance, but of a naissance in architecture. For it is indeed being born into our world a new style, the style of America, the style of the civilization of the nineteenth century, developed by its wants, its conditions and its limitations, and nurtured by the best in the lives of you whom I see before me. . . ."

In this speech he develops two of his favorite themes: the necessity of creating a truly American style of architecture, and the "mock competition" which makes the erection of public buildings a sham. "These competitions," he says, "must be rescued from the slough of corruption into which they have fallen so that they may be made so that the best architects in the land will consent to participate in them. That they become the pride of our nation and our profession is a task to be performed by this and kindred organizations. . . . To accomplish this we must be united and true to each other so that we may influence for good not only the national and other legislative bodies but the great American people which creates and moves all with a restless power which no amount of corruption can long withstand."

It is interesting to note that Adler and Sullivan refused to enter any architectural competitions. The A.I.A. Convention of November 1891 was held in Boston and Dankmar Adler was in line for the presidency. However, he much preferred continuing his work as secretary. He describes the convention banquet in a letter to his wife:

"I sat next to Mr. Chandler, the President of the Boston Society of Architects — on his left, Hunt on his right. Next to Hunt was Prof. Charles Eliot Norton, the one who thinks modern architecture is going to the damnation bowwows. (Charles Eliot Norton was Professor of Fine Arts at Harvard and the most important art and architecture critic of his times — ed.) Opposite me was Edward Atkinson and General Walker of the Caucus of 1880 and President of the Institute of Technology so you see I was in good company. I had to lift my voice to be heard above the roaring of the lions. I am sorry to learn that one of the committees has nominated me for president. If the other has done the same I will have to accept. If it has not, I shall properly decline the honor, even if
I also lose the secretaryship. You know I am set in many ways and am in the condition of the pike fisher and think I shall throw away the trout that I am not fishing for, if I cannot get the pike for which my line is baited.” And the next day “I have just (finished) with a meeting of the Board of Directors and with some press boys. . . . I had a close call as to the presidency but headed off Kendall, the other nominee, who wanted to decline in my favor. So the matter is all right and I can accomplish the work I wanted to do in my own way.”

One of the burning issues of Dankmar Adler's day was that of the height of office buildings. It had been determined by 1885 that because of Chicago's soil problem no buildings should be more than thirteen stories high. The successful erection of the Auditorium tower, five stories higher than this, convinced Adler that this regulation was unnecessary. Writing in The Economist in May, 1891, he expresses concern that too strict regulations by the city, and the appointment of a city engineer who could become a political foil would hamper the freedom of the architect. “The more freedom,” he writes, “is given to the most progressive and enlightened of our real estate owners and architects, the higher will be the standard and more certain will it be that our buildings will embody in them the most advanced thought and the latest discoveries.”

In 1892, he wrote a lengthy article for the Engineering Magazine entitled Tall Office Buildings Past and Future. “It is the purpose of this paper” he writes, “to study the tall office building, to enumerate and compare its qualities good and bad, and to determine whether or not it is merely an ephemeral and erratic manifestation of human ingenuity. . . . Those who endeavor to look into the future often ask what will be the fate of the 'skyscraper' when all the streets of our cities are lined with structures of that type? Will not the congestion of traffic in our streets be such as to make it impossible to reach these hives of human industry? Will not the shadows thrown into the streets be such as to render the rooms in all but the top stories too dark for use? Will not our streets then become analogous to those of the medieval cities, and will not our cities, filled with structures of this type, become as unwholesome as were the walled towns of the middle ages?”

He attempts to answer some of these questions with the argument that high buildings will make for speedier transaction of business, “the average distance traveled by each person between home and office will be much less if people are concentrated in fifteen tall buildings than if scattered among fifteen lower buildings” — also, the height of the buildings will make for less dust and noise in the upper stories even if the lower stories would have less light.

“The skyscraper, therefore, is an institution whose effects upon the affairs of life are altogether on the lines of the demands of the American worker. So long as he will continue to transact his business with a rush, and to separate strictly the times and places for business from the times and places for recreation and pleasure ‘the skyscraper’ will aid him in achieving his ends. . . . The tendency of mankind to compress itself within the confines of large cities may be an unwholesome tendency and one fraught with danger to the human race, but, if so, the race as a whole has failed to perceive its unwholesomeness or to note that its condition is other than agreeable. On the other hand, the desire to live as part of a large and closely-packed community has become constantly more widespread and more intense. Notwithstanding the many conditions tending to render life in cities disagreeable and unpleasant, it seems useless for humanitarians and philosophers to argue against a tendency so old, so strong and so constant.” This in 1892!

Dankmar Adler, as we know from preceding articles, was a self-made architect, self-taught from his own reading and experience. However, he realized that he was one of a vanishing breed. In April, 1892, he wrote for The Inland Architect and News Record an article advocating the founding of a Technological School at the University of Chicago, for the education of architects.

“The culture of our day is many-sided,” he writes, “It has become something more than a knowledge of the humanities. It involves a knowledge of nature and all her known phenomena and processes, and of the means employed to learn her secrets; a knowledge of man and of his story, of his aspirations and wants, of his discoveries and of the many processes and conditions which are part of human civilization. . . . The self-made architect is leaving the scene, nor will the stage much longer have room for the architect of merely technical or merely artistic training. We shall soon enter upon the reign of the architect of a culture broad and deep and of high standing among the best in his community and we who are of an obsolescent type, we also shall profit by the advent of our successors.”

Although there is as yet no School of Architecture at the University of Chicago, at Dankmar Adler's urging a curriculum in architectural engineering was established at the University of Illinois in 1894. In 1885 Adler was Chairman of a committee on statutory Revision of the Western Association of Architects and he presented to the members of its Second Annual Convention a proposal for the licensing of architects. Milwaukee's well-known architect, E. Townsend Mix was also on the committee. Up to this time, in Adler's words, architects were “the professional brethren of every one who may paint the word Architect after his name on his sign. The public have the
right to demand protection against professional charlatanism. This can be secured by a state regulation of the practice of architecture. Let no man be permitted to practice architecture without a license from a competent state tribunal; and let the condition of the granting of this license be that the applicant shall have successfully passed such examination as this tribunal may find expedient for determining his qualifications."

He goes on to draft a bill to be presented to the legislatures of the different states for passage and also one to establish the office of Commissioner of Architecture and a Board of Public Buildings to be presented to the Congress of the United States.

The convention heartily endorsed the proposed legislation which became the model for all future laws throughout the country. However, it took eleven more years of unremitting effort on Adler's part before the first such act was passed on June 3rd 1897 in Illinois. Wisconsin's first statute regulating architecture was not passed until 1917.

Adler was the first Chairman of the Illinois Association of Architects, having been appointed by the governor. When the Illinois Chapter of the A.I.A. was formed through a merger of the Chicago Chapter and the Illinois State Association of Architects he helped to write its charter and was its first treasurer. He also helped to revise the building ordinances of the city of Chicago and served on boards of arbitration in labor disputes.

He fought tirelessly for fairness in competitive bidding with emphasis on the privilege of the architect to award contracts to "the bidder who presents the best record as to the capacity to do the work well and in the time required and whose proposal appears upon careful canvass of the situation the most favorable to the client." (Inland Architect, Jan. 1892).

The 1890s was the era of the literary club and Chicago had its share. Among them was The Sunset Club which was founded "to foster rational good fellowship and tolerant discussion among business and professional men of all classes." Its declaration of principles stated that it had among other qualifications —

"No Club house, No Constitution
No Debts, No Contribution
No President, No bores
No Stewards, No encores. . . .
No long speeches, No dress coats
No late hours, No perfumed notes.
No meanness, No vituperation
Simply tolerant discussion and Rational Recreation."

On December 7, 1893, the club held its 64th meeting at which Dankmar Adler, "the architect of the Auditorium" was one of two featured speakers on the subject: Are There Any Canons of Art?

Once more he touched on one of his favorite themes; that art is something that may be found in almost every walk of life. "I believe," he says, "that he who in doing the work which fate has assigned to him will do that work honestly, thoroughly and lovingly, with a desire to do something more than merely discharge it as a duty — whoever does that is in a certain sense an artist, no matter how humble his vocation. . . . The underlying principle (or what should be the underlying principle) of art is to arouse the highest emotions of man in a manner that is readily comprehended by those to whom the artist addresses himself. . . . I believe that the day will come," he concludes, "when painters and sculptors (and he might have included architects as well) will meet their contemporaries and speak to them in a language they can understand and through these contemporaries they will speak to posterity." This might have been his epitaph, for Dankmar Adler surely was a man of the people and a master of his craft.

Bibliography


Collected articles and speeches of Dankmar Adler as noted.


Culture and Democracy, Hugh Dalziel Duncan, Bedminster Press 1965.


Genius and the Mobocracy Frank Lloyd Wright, Duell, Sloan and Pierce 1949.
The Need for co-operation between Architects and Engineers

John P. Jacoby, President of the Wisconsin Chapter, The American Institute of Architects, was featured speaker at a luncheon sponsored jointly by the Wisconsin Society of Professional Engineers and the Engineers and Scientists of Milwaukee, Inc. Mr. Jacoby's thoughts were warmly welcomed by the engineers attending the luncheon, definitely indicating a willingness for co-operation between the engineer and the architect, as the speaker suggested in his following address:

The need for cooperation between the architect and the engineer, is a need we all understand and yet very little or nothing is done about it. It seems that as individuals we co-operate very well on a particular project, and also on a social basis, but our Societies have not caught on as yet. I believe the main reason for this lack of communication is because of the great number of Societies. If the architects had only one Society and the engineers had only one Society, it would be simple to get together.

In order to help you understand the make-up of the AIA, I will briefly outline its structure.

The Wisconsin Chapter of the AIA is the State wide organization and is divided into four sections: The Northern Section, the Northeast Section, the Western Section and the Southeast Section. Each Section is concerned with local activities and the members usually meet monthly or bi-monthly.

The State Chapter has one or two membership meetings a year and the State Executive Committee meets monthly to carry on State level business. Each Section has at least two Directors on the State Executive Committee and they are required to report State business back to their Sections and local activities to the State Executive Committee at each monthly meeting.

For progress, we depend heavily on the work of the Committees and this is, where I believe, we can combine our efforts for the good of all of us.

Our State Committees are grouped into four Commissions.

The Architect and Engineer Liaison Committee is in the Professional Practice Commission. The Chairman of the Committee is Chuck Harper and the Director Advisor or Commissioner is Doug Smith of Eau Claire.

To summarize, State Legislation and matters effecting the entire profession are handled by our State Chapter. Local matters are handled by the local Sections. Opportunities for united action by the Architects and Engineers are many. Especially in Code Revisions and Legislation.

Architects and Engineers are bound closely together in the area of legal liability especially now that third party suits are becoming more common.

In recent years the problem of the Architects and Engineers have become more numerous and complex and it is obvious that this is only the beginning.

The Architects and the Engineers are becoming subject to tighter restrictions in order to protect not only the life and limb of the occupants but also the public in general.

In the past the Architect and Engineer were considered specialists and were subject to reasonable and occasional human error.

Today, with more technical information available and highly complicated buildings containing sophisticated mechanical systems, a higher level of competence is expected from the Architects and the Engineers and it is difficult to avoid legal problems.

The trend is toward strict liability for all professionals and we are included in this trend. It seems that if someone is injured, he should be provided for, regardless of who is at fault and because of this, third party suits are becoming more common.

Some of our greatest problems are concerned with supervision of construction and here we must lean heavily on the integrity and skill of our consultants. Good contractors give us very few problems. However, we cannot select the contractors which we consider to be the best members of the team and many claims against the architect are started because of mistakes of the contractor.

If a contractor mis-calculated in his proposal or purposely bid low to get the job, he may be looking for short cuts or an opportunity to substitute lower priced material and equipment to make up for his low bid. This is when our problems are compounded and we must rely heavily on the skill of the consulting engineer to catch such substitutes and omissions in his particular system.

The public and legislators should understand that the architect or his consultant cannot observe all of the work during construction at the same time.

We do not offer this type of service and the owner does not pay for it. Any attempt to observe all construction and conduct tests would slow down construction to the pace of one man. We hope that the engineers will help to obtain realistic legislation on responsible supervision of construction.
The design and construction of a contemporary project today is a complicated process. It requires a team of architects, technicians, engineers, contractors, sub-contractors, suppliers of materials and equipment, planners, insurance counselors, attorneys, etc. When an architect heads the design team, he is responsible for the work of his consultants and should therefore select the consultants very carefully.

In one case, an umbrella type canopy over an entrance collapsed shortly after it was constructed. A structural engineer, who claimed to be an expert, had been retained for the structural design. The collapse was due to a mis-calculation on the part of the engineer.

Since the collapse was the result of a mis-calculation in design, the owner made demand on the architect for the cost of repairs. The architect in turn, made claim against the structural engineer who was actually the cause of the loss. The engineer was not insured and was unable to pay more than a token amount of the claim. The architect was required to pay $58,000 of the loss because of the mistake of his consultant.

Most architects and engineers attempt to be as up-to-date as possible. The use of new materials is to be encouraged in order to show progress and to give the owner the latest and best systems available. However, the use of new materials and products is another great cause of claims against the architect and engineer and they should be used with caution. There is great temptation for manufacturers or salesmen to over-sell, and it is my belief that they should be held responsible for improper use of their product and materials if they fail to meet the claims as published.

The burden on the architect and engineer has also been increased because of the Workmen’s Compensation Laws.

When the contractor or his insurance carrier has paid the statutory amounts for Workmen’s Compensation, he is ordinarily released from liability for common law negligence. The plaintiffs may then sue the architect or engineer for an unlimited amount.

Thus, the architect, who was not negligent or was less negligent than the contractor, may be held for an amount which is many times that for which the contractor is held under Workmen’s Compensation.

This situation is basically unfair and should be corrected. There have been many cases of claims against architects and engineers and it is interesting to note that our professional liability program contains not a single successful claim against an architect for incompetence in or for dissatisfaction with the esthetic design of a building.

In order to stay in business we have been advised to follow these recommendations:

1. Use proper contract documents.
2. Improve internal management procedures for better quality control.
3. Be certain that consultants and associate professionals are financially responsible. Where consultants cannot respond financially for their own errors, the architect is usually held responsible.
4. Improve methods of qualifying staff members. Numerous claims have arisen from the work performed by a staff member who was not sufficiently qualified for the work assigned to him.
5. Know your client. Be discerning about his integrity and financial stability. Judicious inquiry in advance may disclose if he has a history of being troublesome or inclined to sue at the slightest pretext. Good clients are not out to get something for nothing.
6. Have a clear understanding with the client regarding exactly what he is entitled to expect. Keep him continuously informed and be sure he knows that extras can be expected on any project. The architect and engineer are skilled, creative, professionals but not a guarantor of perfection.
7. Owner’s legal counsel should be responsible for determining types and amounts of insurance; and examining policies and insurance certificates.
8. Untried materials should be avoided unless tests simulating actual use are available to establish fitness for the purpose intended.
9. Approval stamp on shop drawings should be worded so as not to assume Contractor’s responsibility for omissions, dimensions or correlation with the construction process.
10. The architect should obtain waivers of lien or other evidence that the contractor is meeting periodic payments to others. It is preferred that this be done through legal counsel and the form of such evidence should be determined by the owner’s attorney.

(Continued on page 23)
Are you a photography buff?
Are you interested in your own environment?
Then read this . . . and get with it!

AIA sponsors Chapter SLIDE SHOW competition

The Task Force for the War on Community Ugliness announces a competition to encourage the production of a slide show produced within and for a specific community. The show should clearly delineate those facets of the urban environment which are objectionable, but its primary purpose should be to indicate possible solutions to these problems. If the community has not as yet implemented or accomplished civic projects which would warrant their being cited, examples from other communities may be utilized.

The purpose of the show is not to emphasize superficial “beautification,” but rather to expose the viewer to the entire range of urban problems, including, but not limited to, urban design, housing, transportation, traffic, public parks and buildings, historic preservation, street furniture, graphics, and NON-design. The show should be directed toward the average citizen as well as to the student of all age brackets. It should NOT be a production focused primarily at the design oriented viewer.

Eligibility
The competition is open to all Chapter and State Organizations of the Institute which may submit slide shows produced by any corporate member(s) of the AIA except officers and directors of the Institute and Octagon staff. Shows which have been completed prior to the announcement of this competition will be eligible, but they will be judged on the criteria as established in the foregoing paragraph. The examples which compose the show can be either domestic or foreign, but at least 60% of the show must be made on locations within the community which is subject of the show.

Format
The show is to be composed of a series of slides, either 2" x 2" or 2 3/4" x 2 3/4", or 8 mm or 16 mm motion picture film. The narration should be in the form of a typed script, annotated so as to be properly related to the slide or film being projected. Narration may be on a 1/4" standard magnetic tape properly synchronized with the projected picture, and background music may be used if desired. Narration for a film show should be magnetic for 8 mm films and of the optical type for the 16 mm film. Color or black and white or a combination of both will be acceptable.

The show should run for a minimum of 13 minutes and should not exceed approximately 26 minutes in length. All slides should be numbered consecutively in the upper right hand corner when in the slide holder and as viewed from the rear of the projector.

Identification and Closing Date
In order to receive consideration, the show must be entered under the name of an AIA Chapter or State Organization, each one of which may submit as many entries as it chooses. Shows submitted by individuals will be returned to the senders. The show is to be addressed as follows: Slide Show Competition, The Octagon, 1735 New York Avenue, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20006.

It is to be sent prepaid and unless premiated will be returned to the sender prepaid. Included in the package in an unsealed envelope is to be a typewritten statement containing the following information:

1. Name and address of Chapter or State Organization submitting the entry.
2. Subject City.
3. Title of Show.
4. Media: □ 2" x 2"
       □ 2 3/4" x 2 3/4"
       □ 8 mm
       □ 16 mm
       □ Magnetic Tape
       □ Optical Sound Track
       □ Script
5. Name or names of the person or persons responsible for the production and their release to the Institute of all rights for its use if it is selected as a winner.
6. Type of equipment required to project the show.
7. Running time.

All entries are to be received at the Octagon not later than midnight, May 9, 1968.

Jury
A jury and its chairman will be appointed by the Board of Directors of The American Institute of Architects from among the corporate members of the A.I.A. All entries submitted will be viewed by the jury and the judgment will be made at the Octagon.
Awards

The jury will select three shows which they consider to be the best of those submitted. The organizations submitting the three winning entries will each be sent two round trip first class airline tickets from Portland, Oregon, to Honolulu. The organization receiving the tickets will be responsible for the naming of the individual or individuals to whom the ticket or tickets are to be presented. The Institute will not enter into the making of this latter decision. The winners will be notified approximately one month before the Portland Convention, June 23, 1968.

Institute’s Rights

The Institute reserves the right to reproduce and show any and all of the award winning shows without further reimbursement to the Chapter, State Organization, or individual who produced the entry receiving an award. The Institute reserves the right to reproduce any of the material submitted and distribute same as it may see fit. The Institute further reserves the right to make minor changes in the content and format of the entry where in its opinion it is deemed desirable to do so. It is the entrant’s responsibility to make sure that all material has been cleared for release by the AIA which will assume no responsibility for copyrights or photographic fees.

P.S.: The Chapter Executive Committee has referred entry to the Chapter Sections. Each Section will be responsible for development of this project. Any suggestions should be directed to your respective Section officers.

THE NEED FOR CO-OPERATION

(Continued from page 21)

The architects and the contractors have agreed that each should be responsible for their own errors and omissions and the revised AIA Documents now clearly define the responsibility of the architect and the contractor. We believe that this will help not only the architect but the consulting engineer also and should eliminate many of the adverse decisions which were due to Court interpretations of language in the construction contract documents.

The architects, the engineers and the contractors can all expect tighter enforcement of the Industrial Commission’s rules and Registration Board rules as a result of the Industrial Commission “Operation Safe Place.”

The Industrial Commission has completed its recruiting program and has a group of some 60 men who have been assigned to the eight regional areas of the State. These inspectors have completed a rigid training program and are beginning to function in the field.

Some of the Code Requirements which may have been overlooked in the past will now be enforced and as a result, some of us may be hurt.

We all know that no book of rules can be strictly applied in all cases and on all jobs. When we find rules which are unrealistic or unnecessary, the architects should join with the engineers and the contractors to correct such rules.

Some of the most frequent complaints from the Industrial Commission are:
1. Stamping of plans, shop drawings, etc., by Registered persons for work done by unregistered persons.
2. Registered persons using non-registered consultants.
3. Complete lack of supervision.
4. Lack of calculations, drawings and shop drawings for pre-fab. structural units when plans are submitted for approval.
5. Changes made during construction and not reported to the Industrial Commission before work is begun.
6. Work delegated to non-registered persons. This is O.K. if work is done under direct supervision of a registered person. But it is overlooked too often.

They also suggest that our societies should provide methods to enforce ethical standards.

Because of the Eminence law for engineers, I believe that many unqualified persons are being registered.

In closing it may be well to review the resolution adopted by the Wisconsin Registration Board of Architects and Professional Engineers on October 28, 1966.

That each Engineer and each Architect will:
1. Familiarize himself with the registration laws of the professions and will not knowingly violate such laws,
2. Accept only those projects in which he is legally and professionally competent, and will retain professional associates for those phases in which he is not proficient.
3. Refrain from approving, signing or affixing his name and/or seal to any plan, specifications, drawing or other document not prepared by him or under his supervision; unless specifically authorized by law,
4. Conduct his professional practice and his relationship with the other professions and the public in such a manner as to warrant the respect and confidence of the citizens of this State of this Country.

BE IT FURTHER RESOLVED THAT the Board will make a continuing study of the needs of each of the professions in order to integrate more closely the qualifications and practice of the professions and; that the Board, insofar as possible, will coordinate its recommendations for any legislative changes and; that the Board will exert influence among members of both professions to the end that the statements of principles set forth in this resolution shall be followed by all practicing architects and engineers in the State of Wisconsin.
The Annual Fall Workshop

One hundred and four members participated in this year's fall workshop held for members of the Wisconsin Chapter, AIA on October 20, 1967 at Lake Delton. Lawrence E. Bray, Vice-President, prepared the agenda for the workshop and presided over the meeting. President John P. Jacoby briefly reported on the progress of the Chapter which with 521 members has grown into the largest component of the North Central States Region, AIA. He also reported that members of the Executive Board had elected officers for 1968 at their monthly meeting held on October 19th. Lawrence E. Bray was elected President, Robert L. Yarbro, Vice-President and Thomas L. Eschweiler, Secretary-Treasurer. The newly elected officers will take office as of January 1, 1968.

Of the twenty-four active Committees working within the Chapter, two were selected to give full reports because their work was felt to be of particular significance in relation to the workshop agenda, these were the Building Code Advisory and the Professional Practice Committees. Preceding the actual workshop, thirty minutes were given to various brief reports of other committees, each significant in its own area of concern and for the profession collectively.

Ron Hansche, member of the Publications Committee, reported that the Wisconsin Architect magazine goes with this November issue into its fourth year of publication since it became a Chapter function. Nathaniel Sample, Chairman of the Legislative Committee, reviewed the activities of his Committee for the past six months which resulted in Assembly Bill 12, concerning "responsible supervision of construction," now being recommended by the Senate Judiciary Committee to the Senate for passage without amendment. Mr. Sample indicated that his committee will prepare specific proposals for legislative action, and he invited comments and proposals from the membership individually and collectively with regard to this.

Mr. Mark T. Purcell followed with a report about a newly formed joint committee between the AIA and the Bureau of Engineering. Members of this Committee are Mark T. Purcell, Jack Rose, Robert Potter and Douglas Smith with Mr. Culbertson and Mr. Yamamoto representing the Bureau. This study group, as Mr. Purcell has described it, met regularly since March of this year with the primary purpose of "clarifying of mutual understanding and to be a forum on which one side can hear the problems and answer the other." At each of the meetings one specific subject was discussed amongst which were the Architect-Owner agreement, the General Conditions and Architects fees. Priority, however, was given the discussion of contract. It was commonly agreed that the State Contract should follow the AIA forms as closely as possible, consistent with the Statutes. Legal Counsel for the AIA took the Bureau's Contract and made a mock-up putting it into the form of the AIA Document. The Bureau edited it with some changes which it was felt the Bureau had never clarified before, and at present, Mr. Purcell reported: "There is in existence a draft on which there is practically unanimous agreement, on which only editing for language remains to be done." This draft, will, of course, have to be reviewed by the Attorney General. Leonard Reinke, Chairman of the Community Relations Committee, briefly outlined activities of his group. He was followed by William P. Wenzler, President of The Wisconsin Architects Foundation who spoke on the possible future function of the Foundation within the framework of the forthcoming architectural school at UWM. The morning session of the workshop was entirely devoted to the Code and its revisions. Charles A. Hagberg and Morris A. Olson of the Department of Industry, Labor and Human Relations joined members of the AIA — Code Committee and its Chairman, Joseph Weiler, to answer questions brought up by members participating in the workshop. During the afternoon session, Secretary of the Wisconsin Registration Board, Mr. C. Hurc, restated the function and procedures of the Wisconsin Registration Board and also was available to answer questions put before him. Because of a pressing deadline date, we here can only skim the surface of the workshop in this review. At some future date we shall reprint a portion of the workshop for those members who were unable to attend. The presentation of Grant J. Paul concerning the use of computers in architectural offices concluded the workshop seminar. This was a day well spent for participants who had an opportunity of clarifying some of their problems directly with representatives of the two State Agencies so closely and directly concerned with the architectural profession in the State.
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in the architecturally popular shades of
deep browns and blacks with a moderate
amount of Ironspots.
Seamless flooring, or at least its concept, has been known as long as mankind itself. Compacted earth floors have existed for hundreds of years, and they still do exist in many parts of this world. Floors, as we know them today, have emerged through an evolutionary process from what was initially, earth, stone, tile, wood and other materials. In this process pre-manufactured units, adhered to a substrate with mastics, were another step. More recently, however, the seamless system in flooring has come about, with mastics, were another step. More recently, the use of synthetic materials to apply monolithic flooring either to old or new base substrates, as we all know, is not new in itself. But the introduction of polyurethane plastic into monolithic flooring has created a new set of parameters in the performance and economics of flooring. The seamless system consists of a liquid polyurethane resin used as the matrix of the completed floor, plus a plastic decorative color chip which is embedded into the matrix resin, plus auxiliary chemicals such as thinners and accelerators. Numerous techniques can be used to apply seamless flooring. Steps recommended as guide-lines include, careful surface preparation. New concrete ought to be acid etched, adequately rinsed and dried before application. Old concrete ought to be thoroughly cleaned, and if necessary, sand blasted. Wood flooring must be so prepared that all traces of old varnish or paint, for instance, are removed. Varnish, sealers, grease and dirt must be removed from all surfaces. Loose boards must be secured to prevent movement of the subfloor. Also, any loose or protruding nails must be replaced. If machine sanding cannot be done satisfactorily, plywood can be nailed down to cover old flooring. In any case, nails should be set and filled to prevent them from working loose and penetrating the seamless flooring. The sealer coat (also called prime coat) is applied at low solids and viscosity to assure penetration into the base flooring for satisfactory adhesion. The sealer coat also serves to avoid penetration of the resin from the “chip coats” which can cause resin starved areas and, later, delamination of chips. The seal coat is best applied by reducing the moisture-cure polyurethane with up to approximately 50% xylol or aromatic naphtha. The correct amount is determined by working with the desired resin. Application can be made with rollers, mops, squeegees, lamb's wool applicators or trowels. The coverage per gallon of sealer coat will depend on the porosity of the base flooring. However, for best results and faster curing, the sealer coat should not be applied heavy enough to “puddle.” Coverage will run between 200 and 500 square feet per gallon depending upon porosity of the base flooring, the percent solids of the sealer and the viscosity of the sealer. As soon as the sealer coat is tack free and any imperfections can be sanded, the state of cure is satisfactory for applying the chip coat. The chip coat is best applied at 40% solids in a relatively heavy film. The prime purpose of the chip coat also called “floor coat” and “body coat” is to cement the plastic chips to the floor. The application can be made by using squeegees, trowels or a similar type of tool. Apply the body coat to a small enough area so that, on completion of the resin application, chips can be applied at once for the desired decorative effect. The first “chip coat” should dry approximately 2 to 4 hours before applying the second chip coat. This period is apt to vary from 2 to 5 hours depending on the factors of humidity, temperature and air circulation. During application of the second “chip coat,” attention should be given to providing adequate coverage of any areas deficient of chips in the first application. Various techniques of compacting the chip coat can be used to provide a smoother surface after the second chip coat has been applied. The glazecoats are applied after the second chip coat has dried for approximately 4 hours. This time is again subject to the varying factors previously mentioned. Under certain conditions, the last chip coat should be sanded before application of the glaze coat. In these cases, the last “chip coat” should be allowed to dry overnight to prevent pulling away of chips that could not achieve an adequate bond under shorter drying times. The glaze coat is applied at 40% solids for best performance. Coverage for glazecoats will run between 200 and 400 square feet per gallon depending on the density of the compacted chip in the chip coat and the build required. Two glazecoats are suggested for the optimum system. However, for low traffic areas one glaze coat could be used. Flooring can be opened to traffic after an overnight cure with normal drying conditions. The advantages of Moisture Cure Polyurethane Resins in applying a seamless floor are — 1. Excellent abrasion and wear resistance are characteristic of polyurethanes. 2. The wearing surface does not need repeated waxing to maintain a pleasing appearance. 3. Resiliency is chemically built into the urethane resins and is permanent. Hence, the flooring does not become brittle or take a permanent set under high weight loads. 4. Absence of oil type plasticizers gives a surface which cannot be attacked by fungus. 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NOTES OF THE MONTH
(Continued from page 9)
listed in the various parts of the
Wisconsin code is the exit access
distance, except that in schools and
apartment buildings, the Wisconsin
code allows the measurement to be
taken from the door to the class­
room or apartment.
The exit way is that portion of a
building providing a protected pas­
sageway to the exterior of the build­
ing. This would include an enclosed
stairway, an enclosed passageway
or horizontal exit through or around
a fire wall or occupancy separation.
The exit discharge is the door to
the exterior of the building and any
platforms or steps which are an
integral part of the building over
which a person must travel to get
to ground level. A fire escape is
considered to be a part of the exit
discharge.

 CSI Announces Research
in Automation
The Construction Specification
Institute has announced approval
of establishment of a CSI Research
Foundation to conduct much-
needed research in automation as
it affects specifications practices.
President John C. Anderson, FCSI,
reported that the Institute Board
of Directors unanimously approved
this action. Anderson stated that
increasing applications of automa­
tion in construction compel CSI to
move promptly into this research
and other related areas as an obli­
gation to its members and the in­
dustry. The decision to establish
the Foundation stems from findings
of a recent CSI sponsored “state-of­
the-art” study conducted by the
Stanford Research Institute. The
report forecasts the probability of
dramatic changes in architectural
and engineering practices as they
pertain to specifications. Referring
to several automation systems cur­
rently being applied and others
under development the report states
that “if this proliferation continues,
a veritable Tower of Babel will
exist.” Primary attention to this
urgent problem will be given by
the CSI Research Foundation.
Organizational Planning for the
Foundation is underway with opera­
tion expected to commence in early
1968.

1968 Annual Library Buildings
Award Program.
The American Institute of Archi­
tects, in cooperation with The
American Library Association and
The National Book Committee,
nounced the opening of nominations
for the 1968 fourth annual Library
Buildings Award Program for excel­
ence in the architectural design
and planning of libraries.
Entries may be submitted by
registered architects practicing in
the United States for libraries
which have been erected here or
abroad, completed after January 1,
1963. The program is open to
buildings in the following classifica­
tions: academic (junior college,
four-year college, university, spe­
cial); public libraries (including
county and state); and school li­
braries (up to and including sec­
ondary schools).
A jury will be appointed by The

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American Institute of Architects and will consist of three architects and one representative each of The American Library Association and The National Book Committee. Three librarians will be named to represent each class of libraries. The jury will select one or more of the entries for First Honor Awards for Distinguished Accomplishment in Architecture and will also select for Awards of Merit in Architecture as many exhibits as it deems worthy.

A brochure detailing criteria for the award will be mailed to all members of The American Institute of Architects. Entry forms must be completed by December 14, 1967, and submissions in brochure form must be received by January 22, 1968, in time for the jury meeting at The Octagon.

AIA Endorses Potomac Task Force Report

The report of President Johnson's task force to reclaim and rehabilitate the entire Potomac River Basin was strongly endorsed by the American Institute of Architects. The endorsement followed Secretary of the Interior Stewart L. Udall's release of the report which recommends that Congress establish a new Potomac Development Foundation, responsible for restoration of the river basin as a national treasure and model for the nation.

Robert Durham, FAIA, president of the American Institute of Architects, urged "quick action to preserve the Potomac and other waterways and halt their blind destruction," Mr. Durham said, "This can be done if Congress and the President carry out the report's recommended measures. Foremost among these are the establishment of a Potomac Development Foundation and a $50 million per year fund for land banks, research and development studies." The task force also recommended that the Foundation be empowered to receive tax-exempt contributions from private sources.

Secretary of the Interior Stewart L. Udall, was designated by President Johnson to prepare a program which would make the Potomac "a model of scenic and recreation value for the entire country." He requested the American Institute of Architects to assemble the interdisciplinary task force. The 11-member task force spent two years on the study. Their 100 page, illustrated report, titled The Potomac, provides a conceptual framework for all river basin planning. In urging immediate adoption of the report's principles, Mr. Durham pointed out that they range from pollution control and recreation to highly urbanized waterfront development.

"What is said and illustrated of the Potomac," he indicated, "is applicable to at least 20 other major basins in America. These once beautiful, economic assets have turned into little more than open sewers. The task force has clearly defined what is wrong, and the necessary corrective measures," he said.

Recommending the report as must reading for every citizen, and especially governmental leaders, Mr. Durham pointed out that the task force has "taken account of the

(Continued on page 30)
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NOTES OF THE MONTH
(Continued from page 29)

Potomac basin's rapidly growing urban population and their needs and has related the complex uses of land to the need for an unpolluted and enjoyable river.

"Above all," Mr. Durham said, "the report sets forth specific remedies tailored to the Potomac, but provides the thing most lacking throughout the country. This is an integrated plan for developing effective basin-wide remedies," he stated. Mr. Durham indicated that other concepts may be readily applied to the report such as the outstanding "Statewide Landscape Analysis for Wisconsin" of 1964, the "Metropolitan Open Space from Natural Process Report" recently prepared for The Department of Housing and Urban Development at the University of Pennsylvania, and others.

The Potomac report is published and available through the Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D.C. 20402 at $5 per copy. It incorporates many well-polished concepts. The river is carefully analyzed for visual characteristics inherent to river landscape. Three distinct geological settings are treated in depth to illustrate fundamental erosion, pollution and water conservation principles. The case is also developed for lands that should not be built upon.

"The document is a broad, detailed framework fully adaptable to new technology in land use planning," Mr. Durham pointed out. It points up the need for a design concept approach by engineers, economists, sociologists, planners and architects. It also calls for a "regional inventory" of everything in the river basin as a prerequisite of any further urbanization of natural landscapes to meet the needs of a Potomac population expected to double within the next 40 years and reach nearly 7 million. "Enormous benefits would come from this," Mr. Durham said, "both through savings and through unforeseen design opportunities.

Speaking of the task force's work, Mr. Udall said, "This is a unique group, representing some of the very finest professional talent to be found anywhere."
Particular? Yes! Partisan? No!

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