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SOUTH AFRICAN ARCHITECTURAL RECORD

THE JOURNAL OF THE CAPE, NATAL, ORANGE FREE STATE AND TRANSVAAL PROVINCIAL INSTITUTES OF SOUTH AFRICAN ARCHITECTS AND THE CHAPTER OF SOUTH AFRICAN QUANTITY SURVEYORS.

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THE YEAR IN REVIEW

Another year of war has passed by, and although the clouds lie heavy over the battlefields and occupied countries, there is every indication, from the statements of those responsible for guiding our destinies, that victory for the Allied Nations is now in sight. In Russia and Italy, old world cities and much fine contemporary work is being ruthlessly destroyed, or lost for ever, but the architectural genius of these two countries, so evident before this war, will, no doubt, replace them with well laid out and architecturally conceived towns and monuments worthy of our present age and reflecting the genius of the Middle Ages and the Renaissance.

A large proportion of our members are in the fighting services and, from letters received, are taking the fullest advantage of the opportunities they have had to study the monuments of the past, and we should benefit from their experiences on their return. To all of them our thoughts go out, and we send our good wishes for the coming year and a safe and speedy return.

We, in South Africa, are fortunate in being so far removed from the horrors of war, although the destruction of our towns and cities would be no great loss to the world at large.

Many opportunities occur here for schemes of post-war reconstruction, but our government and local authorities have proved themselves very apathetic, and have done little or nothing to initiate such schemes.

The architectural profession has done all it possibly can to stir them into action, and to offer their assistance and advice, but with little or no effect—in fact, our representations are completely ignored, and in some cases no replies have been received from government departments.

One of the most important of our national problems, and one for which we are best equipped, is that of housing and in this respect the Institute could be of the greatest assistance to the country, but no attempt has been made to utilise its services. Instead muddled and costly proposals are being put forward by responsible ministers and many promises are being made, but at the rate things are going, we shall be fortunate if anything really worth while is achieved in the next twenty years.

In the meantime, private enterprise is showing the way and we are glad to state that the British Empire Service League is taking the first steps towards a real housing scheme, properly conceived, for returned soldiers. They have approached the Institute and are getting the fullest co-operation and support at very little cost. The small house service bureau, which came into being shortly before the war, is being resuscitated and should be of great service to the small property owner. Under its auspices, greater variety in the planning and design of small homes will be possible, and a break away from the deadly monotony of officially sponsored housing schemes should take place.

In this connection it is interesting to note that similar schemes, but on a much larger scale and government sponsored, are being carried out in the United States of America. In that country military training camps are being laid out so that they shall form complete village communities after the war to house large populations. In this country our military camps will be so much junk to be sold to the highest bidder.

The architectural profession in Great Britain is now getting the fullest recognition from government and local authorities, and many fine reconstruction and housing schemes, which will find employment for large numbers of returned soldiers, are being prepared.

In another government department, that of building control, many members feel that there is something wrong. Large quantities of valuable materials are being released for the worst type of building, that of the speculative builder, and, with the restrictions imposed, a very large number of jerry built houses and tenement flats are being erected, the nucleus of our future slums.

It seems unfortunate that the authorities controlling building materials should not be permitted to use more discretion and to consider each case on its merits. The smaller income, middle class man with a family, cannot put up a well built home to suit his requirements to-day, unless it complies with the maximum superficial area laid down by control. A little more latitude in this respect would give greater opportunities to architects and master builders than is at present the case. Even the larger home, when found necessary to suit the social and family circumstances of the individual, should be permitted, provided, of course, that it is clearly proved not to be of a speculative nature.

There is little doubt that the government, under the control system, is encouraging and developing a poor type of building which will not redound to its credit and will be a disgrace to our civilisation.

In town planning, every effort is being made by the profession to urge the government to follow the advice of the Social and Economic Planning Council in its first report, and take steps to prevent the haphazard developments now taking place. During the war a large number of townships have been planned and foisted upon the public looking for land. Few, if any, of these have taken into consideration the future needs of the owners of the land, and few have considered their relationship to adjoining townships as far as public services—light, water and roads, are concerned.

Our South African towns have been quoted often as the world's worst, but nothing, not even a council set up by

itself, can move the government to check the blight that is spreading over the countryside of our fair land.

The descendants of the earliest settlers in this country and of the voortrekkers, who took such a pride in the layout of their towns and villages, are, unfortunately, not imbued with the ideals of their forefathers and are making no attempt to counteract the damage being done.

The need for proper town planning control has long been felt by members of our profession, in fact, they are largely responsible for the present town planning ordinances, and the Institute is taking steps to form a South African Town Planning Institute and has approached the Universities with a view to establishing courses in the subject. The University of the Witwatersrand has instituted a post graduate diploma in town planning, and the University of Cape Town proposes doing the same. Many of the graduates of South African universities are well equipped as town planners, but are debarred from obtaining official or private appointments because they do not possess an overseas diploma, issued for work and experience totally different from that prevailing in the Union of South Africa. In one government department, that of Railways and Harbours, we are glad to say, some recognition has been given to the architectural profession. The Institute was invited to submit names of practising architects to design the new railway stations at Cape Town, Port Elizabeth, and Durban, and to compete for the design of the new railway hotels at Cape Town and Pretoria. It is perhaps unfortunate that the railway authorities limited the number of architects to enter for the hotel competition to ten, thus depriving a large number of young practitioners, some of them serving in the forces, and income tax payers, of an opportunity to prove themselves.

The Institute, while accepting the Railway Administration's conditions, was exercised too over the position of those members on active service who would be unable to participate directly in the competition because, as the Administration has pointed out, full employment and reconstruction in the post-war period is dependant upon the plans being drawn up now. A scheme was evolved, therefore, whereby a relatively large number of members would be involved and these members, on active service would have an interest in the initial developments and an opportunity of participating in the work at whatever time they return to civil life.

The Ministry of Transport, too, has appreciated the value of architectural services and has invited the Institute to submit names for selection of an architect to design their headquarters at Pretoria. Here again the number of names to be submitted was reduced to three, and the Administration would not bind itself to accept the Institute's nominations.

The Provincial authorities have for some years appointed architects to carry out their school and hospital buildings, and it is obvious to architect and layman alike, that such a step has brought about a greater variety in type and design than the dreadful mediocrity usually associated with official architecture.

If such a policy was adopted by the Union government, a national architecture would be produced, of which the country might well be proud. Further, it would provide work for those members of our profession who have not hesitated to answer the country's call, and are risking their lives to defend it.

An interesting pamphlet has been issued recently by the Chamber of Commerce of the United States of America, (Construction and Civic Development Department), entitled "Plan Now for Future Public Works." In this the need for the immediate employment of architects and engineers is stressed.

"Physical planning," it is stated, "is essentially a process of design, of using the products of research in the creation of new things for human use and enjoyment, whether it be a more versatile plastic, a more efficient machine, a more durable road, a more healthful community layout or a better building plan. This is the field of the professions trained and experienced in design, the architects and engineers.

"In these professions many of the most able men are now available for post-war planning. Many are in the armed forces, in industry, or in government war jobs, but of some 15,000 architects and some 90,000 professional civil engineers, the large group which has been engaged in the construction of military camps, naval facilities, war industrial plants, hospitals, and the like, is now freed of those pressing responsibilities.

"The war construction program is practically completed. The architects' and engineers' experience in orderly planning is most urgently needed to organize, correlate and plan the huge volume of physical replacement and repair, urban development and new construction which will be needed to carry our economy, our way-of-life, through the post-war years."

We would commend this document to those who are responsible for directing the public works and housing schemes of the Union of South Africa after the war.

During the year a symposium on Rebuilding South Africa, was arranged by practitioners and University students at the University of the Witwatersrand. This created considerable public interest, so much so, that, in answer to numerous requests, the diagrams prepared are being exhibited in the important centres of the Union, and also in the leading high schools in Johannesburg. Those who took part in organising this symposium, are to be congratulated on the success of their work, which should be seen by all members of parliament and local authorities. The diagrams gave a clear picture of the physical problems facing us to-day with suggestions as to how they might be tackled to prevent a recurrence of the mistakes of the past.

In conclusion, we should like to take this opportunity of wishing all our readers a happy and prosperous New Year, which we trust will be one of triumph and victory over the enemies of civilisation.

G. E. PEARSE.

RECENT TRENDS IN TOWN PLANNING

By D. R. Harper, B. Arch. (L'pool.), A.R.I.B.A., Studio Master in Architecture, University of Cape Town, Honorary Secretary, Town Planning Association, Cape.

ONE OF THREE LECTURES OF A SYMPOSIUM " INTRODUCTION TO TOWN PLANNING " HELD BY THE COMBINED STUDENTS' SOCIETIES OF ARCHITECTURE, ENGINEERING, LAND SURVEYING AND SOCIAL SCIENCE OF THE UNIVERSITY OF CAPE TOWN, 9th SEPTEMBER, 1943.

My contribution to this symposium on the subject of the recent trends will take the nature of a catalogue. Like other catalogues, it will briefly describe, perhaps only mention, the exhibits that are to be seen, should you have the desire, energy and time for a closer and more detailed inspection. I shall, in point of fact, try to cover a vast subject just sufficiently to whet the appetite and stimulate interest and perhaps discussion.

TOWN PLANNING.

It is important at the outset that we should all be meaning the same thing when we refer to town planning. A friend of mine recently said in London that "there never was a period when the term Planning and similar gorgeous phrases were used more frequently, with greater conviction and with a more complete ignorance than at present."

The term "Town Planning" is perhaps an inadequate one in the light of modern developments, for it suggests that this type of planning is isolated to the consideration of towns. In point of fact, in its widest sense, town planning is the urban part of planning for the community—a process which at its detailed end is seen in the work of the architect in the design of buildings, and at the opposite end, the large scale end—in the formation of national policies and national plans. In between these extremities, there is the whole gamut of site planning, planning of residential areas, urban areas, cities and regions.

So I am not inclined to set a boundary to town planning, but loosely for the purposes of this subject, we will consider it as referring to urban areas : or for people with urban pursuits. Bearing this in mind then, we can say that town planning refers to shaping and guiding the physical growth of towns in accordance with social and economic needs.

It is important to realise that in our modern world at any rate, all land development in or for urban areas is planned, but as most of this development neglects the social needs of the community, it is mostly bad planning. Thus, if in speaking of town planning, we are meaning the planning which takes into account the requirements laid down by the community, then we are referring to a very small amount of town planning indeed—this small amount is, however, the significant part in considering planning trends.

I want to emphasise at this stage that developments in planning arise, not as some figment of the imagination, but out of the socio-economic conditions of the times. Note that I said conditions—not needs.

You might ask why there are increasing demands for planning ! Firstly : because the disintegrating forces, serious deficiencies and maladjustments threatening society can only be liquidated by planning—disease, squalor, poverty, obsolescence.

Secondly : because the technical requirements of the modern community make it impossible to approach any extension of these requirements in any other way.

Thirdly : because of the growing recognition (long known by the best investigators) of the effects of the environment upon mankind—on their lives, their work, their health, and their leisure. It is realised that in all the inhabited parts of the world, rural as well as urban, the environment is man made ; and that this environment can therefore be conditioned by the planner with the assistance of all the scientific and technical skill available. One of the outstanding trends in our modern world is the gradual integration of the scientific and technical forces in the cause of planned development for the public good.

THE PLANNER.

I have mentioned the planner. He is the man who, out of the evidence and discussions taken from the survey of the problem, and within the pale of the necessary political decisions, actually prepares the plans on paper which give the first picture of the possible future environment, be it a housing scheme or a new town. He is a student of the spacial requirements of the community, both internally in their buildings, and externally in the streets, the parks, the gardens, the squares, and his skill lies not in a cataloguing of these requirements but in their spacial interweaving and integration. He has a knowledge of precedent in the development of towns and cities in the past. Knowledge therefore cannot be assumed because of some excellence in the narrow field which may be an ancillary part of the town plan, but can only be gained by hard work over a long period, with the widest possible terms of reference. He remains the servant ministering to the community's requirements and aspirations. (This is

my first trend—the gradual development and recognition of the trained town planner.)

20th CENTURY DEVELOPMENTS.

Now very briefly, we must review the general trend of developments in this century. Prof. Batson has given us important points in considering the social basis for housing; and this basis stands at the threshold of our modern town planning studies—social in the sense of the providing of that environment most conducive to the fullest life of the individual, by reducing the ravages of ill-health, by increasing the safety of the child, by increasing the vitality of mankind in creative and productive occupation. This has not always been the basis, for much interesting and instructive town planning development in the past, had as its raison-d'être, motives which were as antisocial as Hitler's autobahnen of to-day. Time, however, has often reorientated these developments giving them characteristics and advantages to the community's gain from a technical or social point of view.

The modern basis of town planning arose first in Britain towards the end of the 19th century, out of the squalid, overcrowded, devitalising slums of the industrial towns. The basis was one of social rejuvenation with a desire to achieve a more useful, less irresponsible, less turbid community, and was typified by the industrial housing carried out by Sir Titus Salt, at Saltaire, Leverhulme, at Port Sunlight, and the Cadbury's, at Bournville. Great advances as these schemes were, the people remained under the shadow of the industry and the industrialist. The theoretical basis was chrystallised by Ebenezer Howard and eventually developed in the garden cities of Letchworth in the early part of this century, and later in Welwyn. In general, Britain sank to the lowest depths of industrial exploitation of the working population, and Parliament, seeing the danger signal in the reduced capacity of the workers, and the increasing bill for maintaining some semblance of health, stopped the further spread of the Byelaw town, by various Public Health Acts and eventually the first Town Planning Act.

Gradually, Britain has pulled out of the worst of the nightmare, with the aid of this legislation. This was, and still is, restrictive rather than positive in its effect, but for all its faults, it did provide a basis for a more life-giving environment. This basis was "light and air."

From a health point of view, this basis was a great advance, providing it was possible for the occupiers of the new environment to maintain a reasonable standard of life. Cost of transport to and from the new outlying estates which resulted from the new legislation proved the major economic stumbling block. Further, the certainly fortuitous social pattern of the slum was unconsciously or consciously overlooked.

The close urban pattern of the slum provided the street corner forum, the "brickmakers arms" debating society, and the mass drama of the football match. Replacement of these social amenities was overlooked in the new housing estates. These factors contributed with others, to reduce the success of the new healthy environment and supplied the protagonists of laissez faire with arguments sufficient to retard the most enlightened town planning developments for a generation. In practical demonstration on the positive side, Britain has stood still in town planning technique since Welwyn. This successful town remains, however, a symbol of the advantages of planned environment on a community.

ORGANIC COMMUNITY.

The modern approach to town planning problems arises out of these developments briefly reviewed so far. It is a concept arising out of the work of the social scientist, the biologist, the physiologist and others, and has been called the Organic Community, by which the community is recognised as an organism composed of living parts which coordinate into one whole, every part existing only in, and through its relationship to the rest. Planning for the community becomes a biological as well as a technical problem and—oversimplified—is concerned with the life and emotions of the individual, his children, his education, welfare and leisure—in a word, his attainment of a full life, not in order that he can be a useful servant of society, but that he can be a unit in that society.

LIVING UNITS.

The basis of organic community is a pyramidal structure with the family unit at the apex, integrating down into groups, ever enlarging until the base line of the particular urban aggregation is reached.

For illustration in arithmetic terms:

One family.

200 families = residential unit.
5 residential units = 1 neighbourhood unit.
8 neighbourhood units = 1 borough unit.
7 borough units = 1 district.

but having given the illustration, the figures should be forgotten, for though the structure essentially remains, some branches of the organism are stronger than others and reach full maturity; others decay due to strangulation or lack of the necessary conditions which stimulate growth.

The residential units, neighbourhood units, and borough units will achieve their maximum social effect only at the hand of a skilled planner. Each multiplication of the family unit has as its binding factor, some social focal point. The residential unit—the relatively small integration of families—is a closely assembled group where mutual aid becomes possible and is of a size sufficiently small to establish intimate terms with one's neighbours; common interests exist in the provision of the nursery school and the usage of the communal green or parkland.



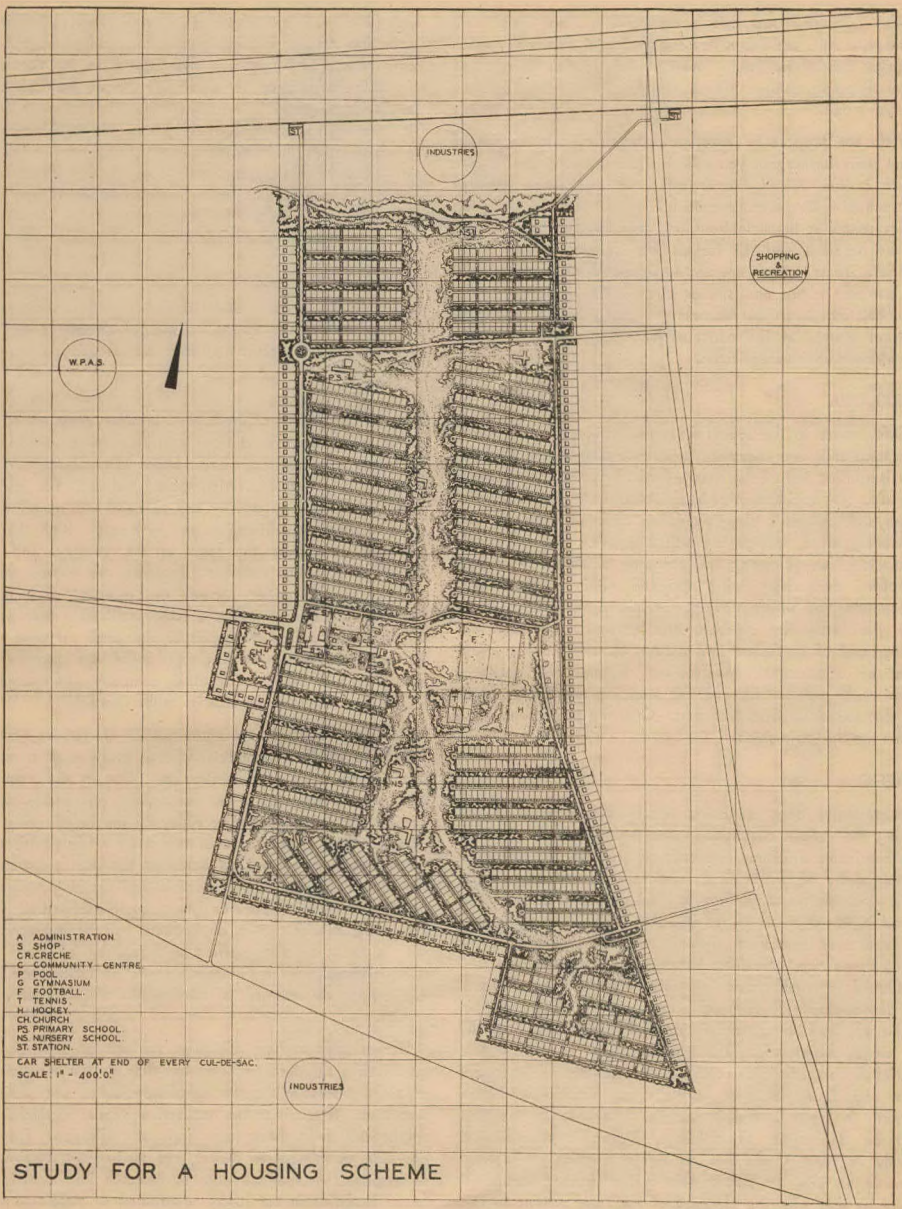
FINAL PLAN OF THE LAYOUT OF PROPOSED "TOWNSHIP" IN WESTON-WAYLAND REGION

The design of the elementary features of a "township" or planned community located in the Weston-Wayland Region along a super-highway on the fringe of Metropolitan Boston, was undertaken by a group of advanced students in the Graduate School of Design, Harvard University, during the first half of 1942.

The individual houses are directly approached by both roads and footpaths, which connect with the community centre, are completely separated from the road system. The community centre and school is within the half-mile limit, and nurseries are arranged near the central park area so that housewives pass them on the way to the shopping area. Industry is located with regard to rail and road service and the prevailing wind. The most attractive piece of land with the adjacent pond is utilised for the community centre as it is the focus of the scheme.

OPPOSITE: A STUDY FOR A HOUSING SCHEME.

The site of an actual township near Cape Town was selected for this study carried out by students of the School of Architecture, University of Cape Town. The layout, while conforming to the site boundaries and being dictated by the existing transportation services, is designed as a planned community with full social services and amenities. The road system, based on the "super block" system is arranged to eliminate through traffic and separate roads from pedestrian ways. The single and terrace houses, each on individual saleable plots, are approached from the peripheral road system, and are linked with the community centre by pathways converging on and passing through the central greenbelt. The recreational area is centrally placed, while the nursery and elementary schools and churches are distributed in the park area according to the density of population.



STUDY FOR A HOUSING SCHEME

The neighbourhood unit incorporates a number of such residential units and has as its basis the size of community which requires the services of a junior school, branch library, and local shopping centre. There may be 3,500—5,000 people in such a unit.

I do not propose to investigate the specific tendencies of these units further but you will note one predominant feature which is the root of the organic community,—the basis of the school. The nursery school in the residential unit, the junior school in the neighbourhood unit, the secondary school in the borough, and still further, the technical school in the district. These schools are not as visualised all too frequently as barracks where one spends a minimum amount of time accumulating a certain number of facts, but as the real cultural centres of the community, and the hope on which the planned environment relies.

PARKLAND.

Safe access to the school from the residential and neighbourhood units is a necessary feature of such an environment. The increasing toll of the road—particularly the main arteries —makes the banishment of such roads from the residential areas and children's playgrounds an essential feature. The residential areas, though the actual quarters may be closely connected, for efficiency and economy of maintenance, are therefore increasingly being designed within parkland, that is common land which provides for leisure and games, forms safe play areas for children, and generally provides that background of landscape and garden essential to the enjoyment of a permanent population. Through this parkland, paths reach the schools and the shopping centres segregating the pedestrian from the road. Only the purely local road enters the domestic areas.

TRAFFIC.

Increasingly, roads are being visualised as communications serving the various communities and linking one with another with maximum efficiency. In order to achieve this efficiency (in this utility of distribution), modern traffic needs must be met, while at the same time a rigid control must be maintained in the interests of the inhabitants of urban areas, and the road users themselves. I don't mean the control by traffic lights, speed cop, or Belisha beacon, but control by the subdivision of the road system into three essential types of road, and the scientifically planned organisation of the system in such a way that the characteristics of these types are logically and simply maintained. The types referred to are: 1, the arterial or long distance road; 2, the sub-arterial or feeder road, and 3, the local or access road. Traffic needs are absolute in types 1 and 2 and the frontages of the first must be denied to all building. Traffic is subordinated entirely in type 3 and has no rights practically speaking. There is no time to pursue this matter further except to emphasise that with the planning of the road system on this basis, the road is recognised as a distributing medium on which the smooth working of the community depends. The route of the ox waggon is giving place to the speedway—direct in its path on to which fast moving traffic has been canalised. It means in most countries a reduction and not an increase in the essential road system, and such roads have no place inside the domestic areas of the town. The shopping street, the business street—the old high street in fact is doomed, giving place to a new conception of the market place, the arcades and the business courts and squares, and from these, traffic is excluded.

USE ZONING.

One of the further manifestations of organic society is the development of use zoning. Zones of commerce, of entertainment, civic buildings and functions, industry, etc.

EXAMPLES.

These are a few of the trends in town planning developments and while for the most part they remain theories, yet in some measure they have been externalised. Welwyn certainly provided a starting point, although the insistence there was largely on density and parkland was mainly a trimming to the road pattern, yet the birth rate is high, the infant mortality practically the least in the country, and social activity is of a high standard. Probably the Welwyn example did not spread further because the prospect of immediate financial return was small, and such results were only possible by retaining unified ownership of the land. It pays now—20 years afterwards—in the larger sense, and also a reasonable margin of profit to the utility company. Its example will increasingly be followed and its faults rectified.

The great slump in America in 1929 started an economic avalanche which necessitated Federal intervention in promoting the processes of rehabilitation. One of the manifestations was the inception of the fine regional rejuvenation scheme carried out in the Tennessee Valley by the T.V.A. New communities were incorporated in this scheme, alive with a new sense of human values and acted as the testing ground for the further federal development in the planning and settlement of what have become known as the Greenbelt Towns. Previously, the new town of Radburn had been inaugurated with a basis of safe traffic: a separation of traffic and pedestrian ways. The Greenbelt Towns go further and begin to show the development of the theories of the organic community.

Increasingly, we are told that the era of expansion and quantitative standards is over, and that we are advancing by a painful process into a new era of stabilisation and qualitative standards. If this is so the qualitative standards which I have emphasised so far have some hope of realisation. From the provision of immediate shelter and elementary requirements of hygiene, we shall be able to research into questions of sound insulation in our towns, orientation of buildings, reduc-



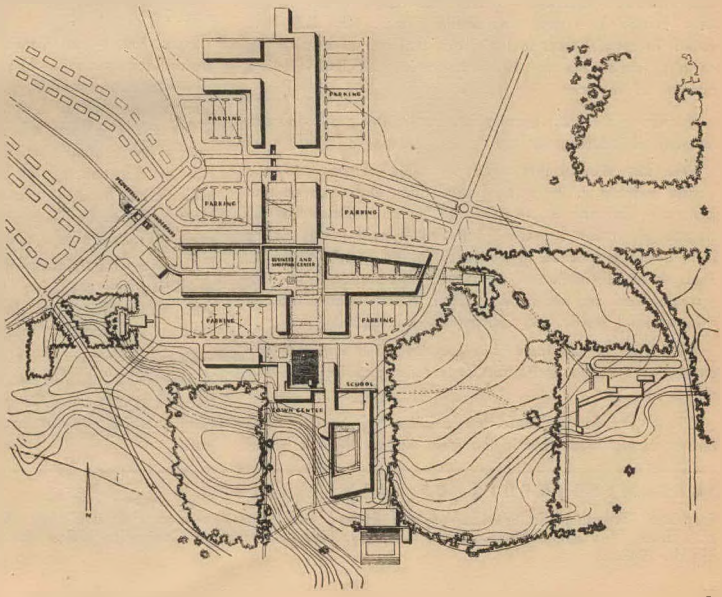
This illustration gives a view of the park-like setting of this community, which is laid out in a varied and generous manner. The scheme includes a Community House, a school and recreational facilities, while a variety of view, interest and layout characterises both the scheme as a whole and the modest individual houses, to accord with the differing likes and habits of the people who occupy it.

VIEW OF THE HOUSING PROJECT AT BELLMAWR, N. J. MAYER & WHITTELSEY AND JOSEPH N. HETTEL, ASSOCIATED ARCHITECTS

PLAN OF THE COMMUNITY CENTRE FOR THE THREE NEIGHBOURHOODS OF WILLOW RUN

SAARINEN & SWANSON ARCHITECTS

While the town of Willow Run does not exist, nor is it to be built, it is one of the most comprehensive and significant essays in community planning yet seen. Conceived as a model American community, Willow Run was designed to house the families of the 6,000 aircraft workers employed by the nearby bomber plant, located some miles from the town of Ypsilanti. The community centre, designed by one of the six firms of architects employed on the project, illustrates the manner in which careful planning has provided for the convenience of both pedestrians and motorists.



tion of smoke polluted atmosphere and other numerous qualitative questions.

THE IMPACT OF WAR.

The trends in town planning I have enumerated can only be successfully advanced if they have the support and confidence of the public generally, and in the significant countries, Britain, U.S.A., Russia, and Germany, one would imagine that the demands of war and the necessary canalisation of war effort would be a poor kind of atmosphere in which the possible developments in community welfare might crystallise. This question is vital to us in our consideration of planning trends: paradoxically, within the upheavals in family life and the community generally, caused by war, are the seeds which can flower into a modern concept more in keeping with our biological controls and technical achievements. There is only time to mention them.

The warden's post at the botton of the street has awakened our awareness of the value of the closely knit friendly helpful residential unit. The British Restaurants, the communal kitchen, the crèche, the nursery school: these communal facilities have allowed the women as well as the men to be productive units, doing a creative job in the safe knowledge that the children are provided for during the day. These facilities will not lightly be cast aside.

War-time industrial efficiency required from new emergency factories away from existing urban areas, has demanded housing facilities near the works, doing away with wasteful and expensive transport. In one case nearly 10,000 people were housed in a rural area within a year. The U.S. have found, in certain cases to their cost, that lack of housing was entirely responsible for the absenteeism which invaded a number of factories.

If once and for all, housing features in the profit and loss account of industry, we have made a great advance.

War has allowed the sweeping aside of privilege and vested interests in the way of production and removed prejudices by ignoring it. In Britain, it has been shown that the degree of workers representation and interest in production is in direct proportion to efficiency in the country's service. There is an elimination of waste and a reduction in all non-essential work and work which is not directly productive. In this, wasteful traffic and distribution is included.

Most vital of all, there is a preoccupation with post-war employment and a desire for large scale planning with this object in view.

I have thrown out these few points which require much further careful study, but in the main, though there is bound to be a reaction against anything reminiscent of war-time controls in the following peace, yet some of the advantages of organisation and of communal facilities will be established and only unwillingly lost. On the whole, the war has produced conditions which are likely to advance the trends I postulate.

INCALCULABLE FACTORS.

So far I have been able to refer to certain trends with confidence knowing that if pressed, I have indisputable evidence, but the present time is a hazardous one in which to talk of trends when conceived as projecting into the future. Radical changes may come as an outcome of certain incalculable factors—movements in their infancy, the power of which no one can foretell. Chief of these, of course, will be emergence of a new organisation of society, perhaps with a different kind of administrative machinery. This is vital, but not the kind of topic which can be pursued further here, and in any case, it is one outside the scope of the planner. More directly bearing on the urban scene, however, is the considerable movement in favour of the decentralisation of towns to an upper limit of size. In the light of future developments, particularly in the bombed cities of Europe, this movement is likely to react violently on the population trends and movements, and therefore on the housing needs.

Then what of the future of air transport? Will the region of the future pivot on the transcontinental air field? Will railways quickly be relegated to heavy goods traffic and the mere radial feeding of the airfield from the various urban areas?

Here, too, I must mention the development of the standardised domestic unit—the prefabricated, the portable, and the sectioned house. Before you wave this development aside as being temporary and unimportant, reflect that tens of thousands of American families are housed more adequately in these units at the present time, than are nine tenths of the population of this country, for at least, though small, they are hygienic and have the necessary modern technical equipment. Here I believe, will be one of town planning's greatest problems and perhaps one of its greatest opportunities.

There are other incalculables—television, future methods of producing and preparing food, the private aeroplane. In a word all the future developments of what is called, with a pleasant sounding ring, the Biotechnic era.

Since this lecture was given the Architectural Forum in its number of July, 1943, has produced an interesting piece of research prepared by the Harvard School under Wagner and Gropius which confirms many of the trends referred to in this text.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS OF ILLUSTRATIONS

Proposed "Township" in Weston-Wayland Region, from "The Architectural Forum," July, 1943. Housing Project at Bellmawr, N.J., from "The Architectural Forum," January, 1943. Community Centre for Willow Run, from "The Architectural Forum," March, 1943.

HOUSE IN PARKTOWN, JOHANNESBURG

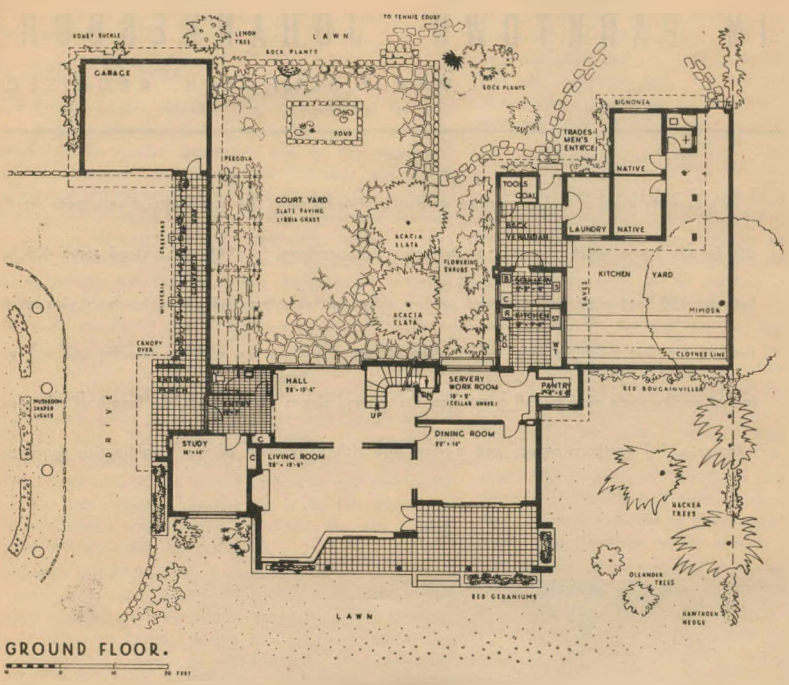
MAX KIRCHHOFER, ARCHITECT

A pleasantly derelict and overgrown garden containing some fine specimens of rare trees was the site for the house which was built at Parktown, Johannesburg, in 1941, on a stand some 400 feet long by 150 feet wide, and enclosed on two sides by fairly busy suburban streets. Lying at the foot of the first mountain ridge which shuts off the city from the northern suburbs, and well protected on the south side by tall gum trees, the ground slopes gently down the length of the stand, offering a full northern aspect and a view into rich vegetation of the neighbouring properties.



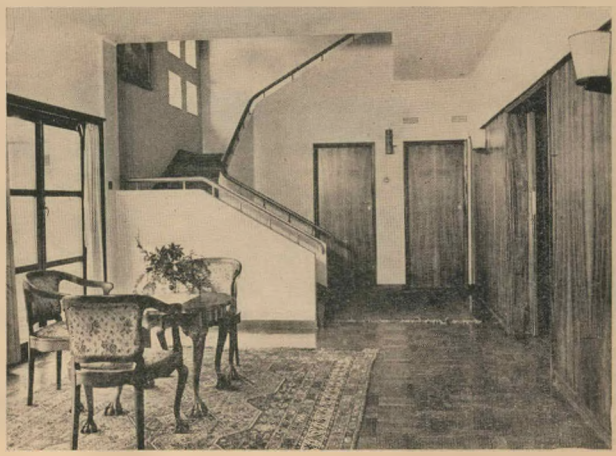
THE NORTH ELEVATION

The front of the house is modelled by a verandah and covered balcony, to provide shade and to reduce glare on the light coloured walls, as well as to give visual expression to the two decks which form the basic structure of the house. The exposed walls on the ground floor are finished in light brown face bricks, while the recessed wall surfaces are finished in plaster coloured a light umber.



GROUND FLOOR.

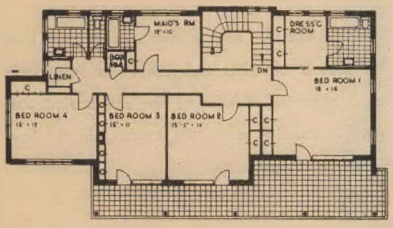
Photo : J. A. Nelson.



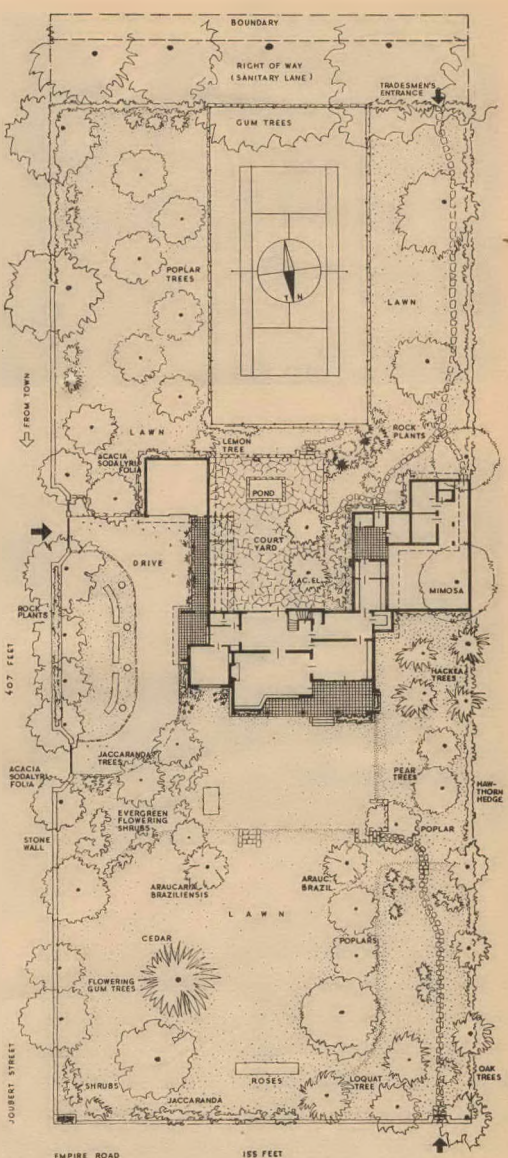
VIEW OF THE STAIRHALL

The walls are panelled to relieve the southern aspect and to link the teak framing of the glass screen with the short lengths of walling between the door ways. The staircase is finished light eau-de-nil in contrast to the natural colouring of the wood trimmings.

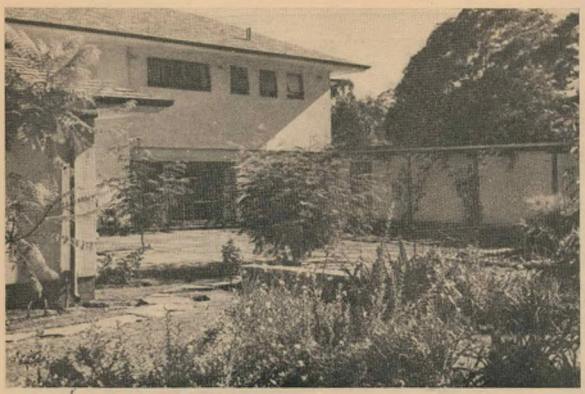
Whilst the client's requirements did not call for any special features beyond the usual accommodation of a fair sized house, the provision of a tennis court influenced the layout of the plan. To gain the necessary space, the house had to be situated near the centre of the stand on ground which would have been valuable as part of a large front garden. In order not to lose the impression of spaciousness which was given by the generous length of the stand, the ground floor plan was designed to open towards the back as well as to the front.



FIRST FLOOR



SITE PLAN.



Exterior photographs by the Architect.

View of the Court Yard which is an extension of the living spaces of the house. The kitchen wing is on the left, the wall of the covered way in the background.



View of the Street Front. The screen wall and covered way link the garage with the house and provide privacy for the court yard behind. The drive is lit at night by low mushroom-shaped fittings which throw a splash of light on the inner curb.

The stairhall was enlarged into a living space which through a glass screen and glazed door opens out into a court yard. Screened from the street by the garage and a covered way that links it with the house and, on the other side, enclosed by the kitchen wing, this court yard forms an open-air extension of the living rooms. The gum trees at the back limit the view and so forms the fourth side of the enclosed yard which would be incomplete without them. A pond with water plants is the visual centre. Rock plants, creepers and shade trees provide accents of colour and relieve the slate paving and the rough plastered surfaces of the surrounding walls. The front garden and the court yard merge into the house and link up through it.

The design was further guided by considerations of cross ventilation and dimming of the profuse natural light.

The rooms containing the sanitary installation are arranged above each other so as to reduce piping. The vertical pipes are carried down on the inside of the external walls and are encased in ducts.

The garden was laid out together with the house. The whole area is covered with lawn. Some low stone walls and the shapes of the terraces and banks combine into an informal design as background for the house and the existing trees. Evergreen flowering shrubs are dotted in groups along the boundary. Colour is massed in three flower beds and in the flower boxes of the house.

Careful attention to the work by the builder resulted in a very satisfactory finish, considerably superior to the customary local craftsmanship.

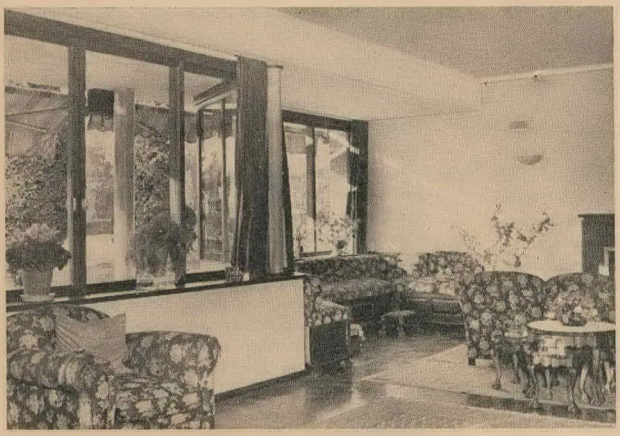
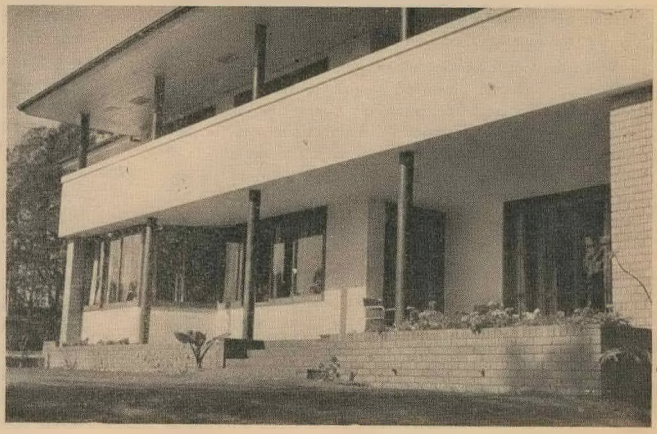


Photo : J. A. Nelson.

VIEW OF THE LOUNGE

A continuous range of teak windows and sliding sashes forms the north wall which is partly sheltered under the projecting balcony. A portion of the Lounge is brought forward to within 12 inches of the front, forming a sun bay. This permits the regulation of light and temperature in the room by means of curtains without shutting off the view into the garden. The walls are finished in light greyish olive green stippled oil paint, and the floor is Kiaat.



The verandah was given varying depths in relation to the amount of light desired in the rooms behind. The columns supporting the balcony and roof above are finished in a dark brown-red, contrasting with the plastered and face brick surfaces. The match boarded eaves are painted pale eau-de-nil, with maroon guttering and the roof is covered with grey steel.

CITY GOVERNMENT

A CRITICAL STUDY OF THE MACHINERY AND PRINCIPLES OF LOCAL SELF-GOVERNMENT, WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO CAPETOWN

By K. Hall-Gardner

This is the first part of Volume One of an Architectural Thesis, "A City Hall for Cape Town," which is to be completed in two parts.

CHAPTER I.

THE MUNICIPAL HISTORY OF CAPETOWN UP TO 1900.

> "The greatest enemies that Capetown has are the people who live in it."—Mr. Rawbone, addressing a protest-meeting against insanitary conditions, 1888.

The Government of Capetown in the early days by the Dutch East India Company was a haphazard business, the Governor and Company officials simply taking high-handed action whenever their personal interests were threatened. Capetown was considered an outpost-of-empire, its development and finances being entirely controlled from Holland for the benefit of Holland. Few of the city officials, as distinct from the rural free-burghers, regarded it as their permanent home. Cruel slavery was the natural fate of the natives. Corruption, smuggling, violence, and contagious diseases were rife. Some idea of contemporary mentality is given by the necessity for such absurdities as the Sumptuary Laws (graded ostentation according to rank). The Company thought only of its profits and the settlers only of their personal material well-being, while the officials usually succeeded in swindling both. Capetown was still small enough to be ruled, at least to the satisfaction of contemporary ethics, by personalities rather than by the representative opinion of its inhabitants.

When the Council of Seventeen granted freedom to certain settlers and allowed them two representatives of their own choosing on the local Council of Policy, it was the first recognition of the right of Capetown's inhabitants to a say in their own affairs. The following historical outline of the growth of local self-government in South Africa concentrates on the municipal development of Capetown :

1652 Van Riebeeck, Commander of the D.E.I. Company, establishes a victualling station at the Cape.

1666 The building of the Castle is commenced.

1699 The Company's Council of Policy forbids private slaughtering and hawking of meat,[1] all such business being conducted henceforth at the market under inspection.

1710 Burgherraad[2] produces a report on town-planning, advising that the Plain (the present Parade) be left open and that any enlargement of the town take place alongside the Company's garden, where the Fresh River's water could be used in case of fire.

1714 Burgherraad issues instructions for a night-constable patrol of the streets to preserve law and order.

1717 Burgherraad introduces local taxation ("Night-watch tax," "Lion-Tiger-Road-and-Bridge tax") to finance its activities. Appoints Firemaster ; issues regulations regarding the use of fire-resisting materials in new buildings.

1723 Laws controlling prices of farmers' produce and livestock ; limiting private trading by Company employees. Henceforth all produce sold to Company at fixed prices, all necessities purchased from the Company. Governor's suggestion of daily removal of refuse by Company-servants paid for by a public tax, is disregarded ; insanitary conditions prevail, night-soil being disposed of by open grachts, while carcases of animals and domestic refuse lay piled so high in the streets as to make the passage of waggons difficult.

1754 The revenue of the Burgherraad having proved inadequate, exemption from taxation of Company officials and others is cancelled. Stad Huis built (restored version faces present Greenmarket Square). Although monopolistic hold of Company, by preventing free trade, retards growth of local commercial initiative, and smuggling continues, Capetown has passed the cradle stage—wild animals are not found within 100 miles, the Van Der Stel disturbances have passed over, and the town has a prosperous air, temporarily heightened during the French occupation.

1784 Growth of the town, influence of French ideas, and a no-taxation-without-representation movement result in the establishment of an Advisory Committee[3] and a Council of Justice[4].

1795 Under the British occupation a Burgher Senate,[5] with duties approximating to those of the modern town-council, is set up to decide town policy and appoint executive "Wardmasters" for the 25 wards of the town.

1803 Under the short-lived rule of the Batavian Republic, a Raad der Gemeente replaced the Burgher Senate, with enormously increased scope covering such comparatively modern municipal functions as licensing, education, care

of the old and indigent, roads, forestry, weights and measures, by-laws, and the health, cleanliness, and even the architectural character, of the town. The Raad sets up an executive staff of "town-officers"; also a Chamber of Commerce to co-ordinate trade, and to settle commercial disputes by arbitration.

1804 The town's present seal and coat-of-arms are granted by the governor De Mist.

1806 Re-conquest by England re-establishes the Burgher-Senate. Despite preferential import tariffs and expansion of the whaling-and-fishing industry, there is a fall in prosperity. Rates are raised by 50 per cent. and tax-paying regulations tightened up.

1809 The first Landdrost and Heemraad appointed, to meet need for a governing authority in areas inaccessible to Burgher Senate. His duties are to protect property, decide boundary-disputes, uphold rights of free natives and Hottentots, perform marriages, encourage education, maintain rural roads, improve agricultural methods, and keep order generally. His organisation forms the foundation of the present Cape Divisional Councils.

1814 Burgher Senate classifies burghers according to income, (with distinction between earned and unearned income), for proportional taxation as well as the old special taxes. The finances of Capetown are separated by proclamation from those of the Cape District, the latter becoming the concern of the Landdrosts.

1825 Fiscal and Police departments are separated, the latter being reorganised under a Superintendent and a Judge of Police, whose duties include maintenance of order, protection of property, quarantines, and supervision of all shops, markets, etc. The building of the present Old Cathedral is commenced. The governor Sir Rufane Donkin improves shipping facilities; a lighthouse is built at Mouille Point, and the Table Bay breakwater commenced. The first steam vessel, the "Enterprise," calls at Capetown.

1827 Capetown had by this time a firmly established cultural centre in the Riebeeck Square Theatre, where many plays, operas, and concerts were staged with all-male casts of local amateurs or visiting professionals, not, however, without considerable puritanical opposition.[6]

1828 Trial by Jury instituted. The English Government is petitioned without effect for a local Legislative House of Assembly.

1829 13 medical practitioners are appointed over the wards of the town, for checking measles and other epidemics.

1835 Dissatisfaction with the ruling authorities results in migration of burghers from the Cape, the Great Trek. The Burgher Senate is dissolved.

1839 Town boundaries are defined, and the Municipality of Capetown, consisting of a Board of Commissioners, is established, with wide duties, namely; to keep accounts of town finance; to call meetings of householders for assessment of rates on fixed property; to appoint rate-collectors, constables, public watchmen, and firemen; to provide street-lighting, waterworks, bridges, and road-repairing services; to maintain public property; to supervise weights and measures, food-distribution, and grazing lands; and to uphold the health, safety, and rights of the public generally.

1840 These services were inefficiently provided at first, but when, after a year, they were co-ordinated and improved, the pleasanter living conditions which resulted raised the value of property in Capetown by as much as 60 per cent.

1846 Postal communications improved. Uniform rate of 4d. per ½ oz. replaces old charges-according-to-mileage system.

1849 Property rate fixed at ½d. per £1; water rate at 30/- per 1,000 gals. English attempts to use the Cape as a penal settlement for convicts rouse storm of protests, resignations, and disorder, culminating in victory for the residents when convicts on the "Neptune" are prevented from landing, and are sent instead to "Van Diemen's Land."

1854 The first Cape Colony Parliament[7] (subordinate to an executive official appointed by the English Government) meets in the Lodge de Goede Hoop.

1855 Divisional Councils are created to co-ordinate the activities of the 29 small municipal authorities in the Colony. The old insanitary open grachts are closed in; street-cleaning is done by contract for the first time.

1859 The duties of the former Judge and Superintendent of Police are vested in a resident Magistrate.

1861 Municipality is reorganised into 6 districts represented by 18 Councillors, who are appointed to the following standing committees:—General purposes, public works, waterworks, fire-brigade, finance, and trade-supervision. The present Chamber of Commerce is established.

1862 Municipality is in a bad way financially, cannot inspire sufficient confidence in the public to raise loans. The public is apathetic—only 120 householders trouble to register themselves for electoral purposes.

1865 Removal of night-soil, as well as daily sweeping of streets, done by private contract.

1872 Full Responsible Government[8] granted by England. A Legislative Council and a House of Assembly are elected.[8] The stage is set for the beginning of party politics.[8]

1880 Hitherto Dutch and English weights and measures have been in use in shops, etc.; the metric system is now dropped in favour of the latter.

1882 An amendment of Constitution permits the use of either English or Dutch as the language for conducting parliamentary debates. The Governor is empowered to declare any town or village a municipality.

1884 Bilingualism made official in law-courts, summonses, notices, etc.

1886 Parliament buildings commenced.

1890 Railway station and Post Office commenced.

1892 The old Company Gardens, including the Avenue, become municipal property.

1895 Municipal electric street-lighting scheme commenced.

1896 Municipal electric tramways scheme commenced.

1897 Municipal Museum commenced.

1900 The present City Hall commenced.

NOTE.—The municipal development of Capetown since 1900 is too complex to trace in abbreviated note form ; the more important facts relating thereto are accordingly set out in Chapter 3.

APPENDIX.—Some typical early statistics.

POPULATION OF CAPETOWN:

	Year	European	Coloured and Native
	1806	3,628 (75% male)	—— (not known)
	1810	14,624	17,780
(Wardmasters census)	1824	8,246	10,122
	1856	13,593	11,596
(Union census)	1936	151,635 (49% male)	144,154 (83% male)

CAPETOWN TAX ROLL, 1825:

Hearth money	£1,328
Water supply	£1,864
Income Tax	£1,283
Commando Tax	£1,260
Total	£5,735

VALUATION OF MUNICIPAL AREA:

1842	£1,636,045 (Property tax ½d. per £1)
1938	£58,319,312 (Property tax 5d. per £1)

MEMBERS OF THE CAPETOWN MUNICIPAL BOARD, 1849:

BOARD—
Chairman, Vice-Chairman, 12 Commissioners.

EXECUTIVE—
Secretary, annual salary, £300. Treasurer, £200. Superintendent of Waterworks, £200. Chief Artificer, £75. Town Surveyor, £150. Town Overseer, £100. Messenger, £60. Acting Town Assizer, unpaid. Fire-brigade Superintendent, £50. Market Master, £120. Two Clerks, £100, £75. Four Auctioneers, £45 each. Town Clerk, £75. Second Clerk, £75. Forty-eight Wardmasters, part-time, £5.

COMMITTEES—

Fire and Waterworks :	2 Commissioners.
Market :	1 Commissioner, 3 Wardmasters.
Building :	2 Commissioners.
Public Works :	3 Commissioners.
Finance and Audit :	3 Commissioners.
Assizing :	1 Commissioner, 2 Wardmasters.

NOTES ON CHAPTER 1.

[1] "A course which may produce many diseases."—Placaat of 1699.

[2] A representative local body which attend to all public affairs subject to approval of Council of Policy, which referred special problems to the Burgherraad for report, much in the manner of the modern Commission of Inquiry.

[3] Burghers and three Company-officials.

[4] Burghers and seven Company-officials, one being a member of the Council of Policy.

[5] Six members, chosen by the Governor from alternative nominations.

[6] "These things are not of the Father, but of the world—the mind is powerfully affected by some creation of a vain fancy, the feelings are aroused, the passions stimulated, the imaginations heated; and during the paroxysm of mental excitement life is transformed into a dream, and is embellished with various impracticable and unattainable pleasures, and the scenes which are spread before the errant and youthful mind are as flattering as they are fallacious. This intellectual fever subsides to leave the mind relaxed, weakened, wearied, unfitted for ordinary employment, and sick of sober reality."—Pamphlet of 1830.

[7] Elected by the vote of all residents with an income over £50 p.a.

[8] See Chapter 5.

CHAPTER 2.

CITY-GOVERNMENT IN THE DEMOCRATIC STATE.

"Sir, that is all visionary. I would not give half a guinea to live under one form of government rather than another. It is of no moment to the happiness of an individual."—Dr. Johnson, 1772.

'When the Stranger says : 'What is the meaning of this city? Do you huddle close together because you love each other?', what will you answer?—'We all dwell together to make money from each other?', or 'This is a community?' "—T. S. Eliot.

The vast majority of the inhabitants of a city regard its government with profound indifference, many see in it a fruitful field for graft and corruption, while some few realise the gravity of its responsibility and obligations. Nobody invented city-government ; its development has been slow but spontaneous, dictated step by step by necessity, following (if never quite catching up with) the material growth of the city. The many complex services essential to the reasonably efficient running of the modern city are simply an enlargement of the basic needs of the village, and as a natural outcome of a policy of laissez faire the village ditch-digger has become the city-engineer. But this carefree process of evolution has unfortunately overlooked the fundamental differences between eopolitan and metropolitan life ; firstly that the city-dweller's needs extend beyond mere personal security and material well-being, and secondly that the practical and technical skill of the ditch-digger are not the only qualifications (or even essential qualifications) of the city-engineer whose job is to plan and direct the practical work of others ; it has resulted in a purely subjective attitude to city-government, which, of all things, should be viewed objectively ; in short, it is not good enough.

This universally-believed fallacy that one can enlarge any organisation indefinitely without affecting its nature, that the world is a simple system of straight-line graphs, may be seen with crystal clarity behind the failure of such bodies as the League of Nations to resolve world-chaos, and behind the simpleton-logic of the arguments ("Peasants combined for the common good to form villages, villages and cities to form nations ; why not nations to form a world-unit ? ", "You can police a nation ; why not police the world ? ", etc.) advanced by idealists as remedies against the devastating anarchy of this each-man-for-himself world. It seems strange that this chaos, so obvious in the complex unit which is the world, should be less apparent in the microcosm which is the city—nevertheless the most superficial analysis shows our cities to be as lacking in sound government as the world ; a state of affairs basically due, in the case of democratic countries, to the difficulty of reconciling freedom with efficiency.

With an ever-increasing proportion of the world's inhabitants leading an urban life, the need for improvement of methods of city government becomes increasingly urgent; increasingly profitable the study of the trial-and-error solutions of other cities to problems which are fundamentally similar in all cities. City-government, besides attending to the efficient conduct of the services universally taken for granted as indispensable to life in the city of to-day, should take the initiative—in co-ordinating the extra amenities offered by private enterprise; in setting up bodies of experts[1] to attend to all the points of planning and organisation universally neglected in the past, desired by idealists in the present, and indispensable in the future; and in ensuring that the cultural instincts and needs inherent in its inhabitants are not stifled by practical or financial difficulties, or by sheer Laodicean inertia. The clearest mark of progress in a city is the passing of its government from a negative to a creative attitude.

"There is no necessary limit to the potential usefulness of municipal machinery."—J. P. R. Maud.

THE MUNICIPAL AREA: OWNERSHIP OF LAND.

A large municipal area under one Council is more efficient in every way than several smaller ones under separate local authorities. The problems of transport, food-inspection, sewage and storm-water disposal, fire fighting, and many others are all simplified thereby. Apart from such technical advantages, the increased stability and prestige of a large municipal area enables the council to tempt better men into its service, to float larger loans at lower rates of interest, to avoid unnecessary duplication and petty litigation, and to obtain the confidence of the public generally. Capetown, with a municipal area of 67[2] square miles, is fairly fortunate in this respect, but the extension of the area to include the whole Peninsula is in many ways desirable. Were such extension contemplated most of the new suburban area would be found to have lower rates than the present area, and such rates should be continued for a specified number of years, the ultimate ideal being, however, to have a uniform rate throughout the municipal area based on a true assessment of the value of the properties concerned.

In the case of a city which grows to the size of such European capitals as, say, London or Berlin, the single council becomes unable to keep in sufficiently close contact with the electorate it represents, and it becomes necessary to subdivide the area under local governing bodies, all responsible to and represented on the central city council which lays down the broad outlines of policy. Such a "federal" system may be seen working fairly successfully in Moscow, where the city is divided into 24 rayons, each with its elected district-soviet shouldering responsibility for purely local welfare and development, and carrying on detailed administration under the (more-than-somewhat) supreme central authority of the "Mossoviet." Had such a system been justified in the case of Capetown, the problem of giving the non-European racial minorities (which are already more or less segregated in definite sections of the municipal area) an opportunity of taking part in the government of the city, and of enjoying some measure of cultural autonomy, would have been much simplified. The size and population of Capetown, however, is just such that the full advantages of the single council, and of adequate contact between council and electorate may be maintained concurrently; as regards the welfare of the non-European community, this could be adequately ensured under the existing framework were it not for the apathy and, in some cases, the active antagonism of the European electorate.

—⅔ of the municipal area of Capetown is owned by the municipality, the remainder being in the hands of private owners, including the inevitable speculators in property. Were this percentage larger, control of private development of new areas (by selling the land with servitudes regarding coverage, provision of a percentage of the site as parking area, uniform height-lines, materials, etc.), would be much simplified, and it would not be necessary for the council to compete in the open market for the purchase of sites for municipal buildings or other amenities. Most councils being very loath to exercise their powers of expropriation, there is no hope of remedying this restriction on the municipality's activities except a long-term policy of steadily buying up small areas and finally expropriating any remaining isolated properties from recalcitrant owners, to form one large site.

Capetown's recently reclaimed foreshore area[4] is at present owned by the South African Railways and Harbours Department of the Union Government, and it is to be hoped that ownership of an adequate and suitable portion thereof will be transferred[5] to the Capetown Municipality as the site for a monumental approach and new civic buildings. It is probable that the remainder will be sold in the open market in periodically released sections, and development thereof controlled by specially promulgated town-planning regulations.

SOCIAL WELFARE OF THE INDIVIDUAL.

"Yif a wight have prosperitee, he is a good man and worthy to han that prosperitee; and who-so hath adversitee, he is a wikked man and God hath forsake him and he is worthy to han that adversitee. This is the opinioun of some folk."—Chaucer: "De Consolatione Philosophie," 1377.

As it caters for the individual rather than for the public as a whole, education may well become the key to nearly all welfare services, which could be developed as branches thereof. If it is the duty of the city to teach every child, it is logically also its duty to provide maternity facilities for its entry into the world, medical inspection and treatment, meals for necessitous children, nursery-schools and crèches for infants, special schools for physically or mentally abnormal

children; and when the child leaves school, to see that the man is protected from exorbitant living costs (by such means as sub-economic housing, co-operative retail shops, etc.), and is cared for in case of unemployment, destitution, incapacity, or old age. If education in Capetown were directly under the city council (instead of the provincial council as at present) it might take a more responsible and personal interest in the poorer citizens than it has in the past. Naturally, Union or Provincial supervision of all education would still be required for purposes of broad outlining of policy and standardisation of terms and vacations, and, to a certain extent, of curriculum. At all events, the present system of condescendingly and indiscriminately handing out inadequate subsidies to a heterogeneous assortment of well-meaning but inefficient voluntary philanthropic organisations, is definitely not the answer to the social-welfare problems of South Africa.

PARTY-POLITICS IN CITY-GOVERNMENT.

> "Precious days and weeks are wasted by disorganisation, incompetence, shoddiness. It's nothing to brag about, certainly. But maybe that's the way Democracy, the home-made raft that's half awash but never sinks, gets along. Maybe it has to be that way in order not to be something worse. Something worse would be the ruthless rule and relentless efficiency to which people who decide they can't govern themselves succumb."—American journalist on war-time Washington, 1942.

The open running of a city's government on party lines is a method which has the precedent of use in every democratic country in the world, with exception of Soviet Russia (which is in any case a bureaucracy). It has many advantages. It encourages the electorate to take an interest in city affairs (an important point in South Africa), and to vote more readily, while a unified and coherent government with lively contact with the electorate is maintained during the period of office. Unfortunately there are several attendant dangers—of the best party-man getting onto the council instead of the best man for the particular job, of the introduction of national party-issues quite irrelevant to the local problems of the city, of a petulant reversal of policy and abandonment of long-term projects when one party succeeds another, and of total neglect of the interests of any non-party minority on the council. If (as seems likely) city-government in South Africa continues to be run on party lines some solution to these problems (if, which is doubtful, they are soluble) may become essential.

While South African politics are outside the scope of this thesis, the writer cannot here refrain from mentioning the frequently-repeated and always-disregarded truism that if there were more South Africans, and fewer British Jingoes and Rabid Afrikaaners, the problem of city-government, along with all other South African problems, would be considerably simplified.

CULTURAL OBLIGATIONS OF THE MUNICIPALITY.

> "With how little kindness, in a town of low trade, a man of learning is regarded; and how implicitly a rich man is hearkened to and followed."—Dr. Johnson, 1770.

That private enterprise can satisfactorily provide certain public utilities is debatable; what it can achieve in the way of cultural services is obvious to anyone who knows Capetown, where, to pick just one example, visiting theatrical companies have the alternative of performing in a privately owned hall seating 450 (the Hofmeyr Hall), or in a super-cinema[6] seating 2,000 (the Alhambra). This lack of theatres is largely responible for the deplorable Americanisation of our cities in recent years—we seize upon the shoddiness and bad taste which is exported American culture, and seldom see the spontaneous sincerity which characterises American culture at its best.

It is the duty of the municipality of any modern democratic city to be thoroughly sensible of its obligations in the sphere of culture; obligations that do not end with the provision of a library, and a large space with a roof and four walls equipped with an organ and, with luck, an orchestra, to fill it with an adequate volume of sound so many hours per week. Unfortunately the cultural undertakings of the Capetown Municipality in the past have tended to be tainted with the odour of sanitation and the musty atmosphere of the museum—doubtless the penalty of a bored electorate and an ennervating climate.

An aesthetically pleasing and acoustically sound concert hall, a full symphony orchestra (say, 50 players) under a progressive leader, a large central library with adequate provision for the non-European section of the community, a theatre, an open-air band, a representative museum and art gallery, should be regarded as the absolute minimum for a city such as Capetown with its population of 300,000. Much more should ideally be provided, and the future may well involve the municipality in extended fields of cultural activity such as educational and documentary cinemas, civic debating halls, and radio entertainment. A promising experiment has been made in Johannesburg, of equipping the public library with children's reading-rooms and a small theatre. While extension of such a scheme could result in the library becoming the starting-point of a community centre around which the artistic and cultural life of the city could revolve, it is the writer's opinion that the concert hall would be a far more satisfactory nucleus.

NOTES ON CHAPTER 2.

[1] "Experts should be on tap, but not on top."—Bernard Shaw.

[2] Recently extended to 76 square miles by inclusion of Table Mountain area.

[3] Figures not available; certainly less than 20 per cent.

[4] 234 acres (37 square miles), excluding land to be retained by S.A.R. & H.

[5] Either free, or at nett cost of reclamation.

[6] "Nice intimate little place to be subtle in."—Gyles Isham, on first seeing the Alhambra, where his theatrical company was to perform.

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