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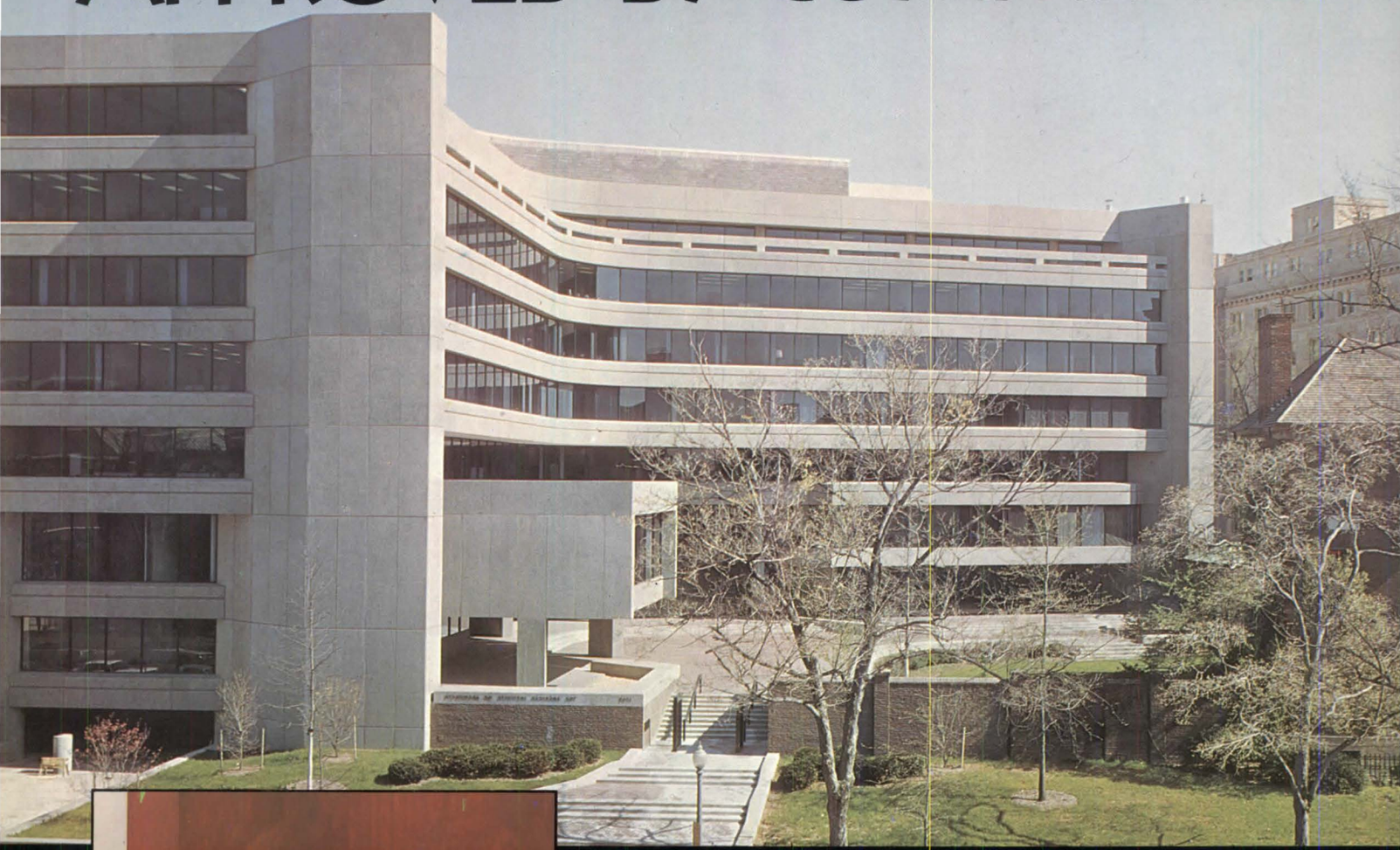

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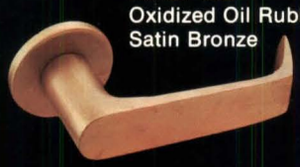

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VOL. 62, NO. 6.

New York UDC Holds National Competition for 1,000 Units of Housing

A national two-stage architectural design competition for 1,000 units of housing on Roosevelt Island in New York City has been announced by Edward J. Logue, Hon. AIA, president and chief executive officer of the New York State Urban Development Corporation.

The "primary class A" competition, which has been approved by the AIA, is open in its first stage to any architect who is registered to practice in the U.S. Also eligible to compete are associations of designers and their consultants, provided at least one member of the group is a registered architect.

The purpose of the competition, in addition to the housing solution for a particular site, is "to make advance in the state of the art of the design of high-density housing." Equally important to the formal architectural and urban design concepts are such behavioral issues in housing design as "child supervision, security, community and livability."

A 9.2-acre site is programmed for the 1,000 housing units, which are to accommodate a complete range of income groups and family compositions. Included in the program are support services in the form of retail space, as well as schools and community space.

The housing units on the competition site are the second phase of the development of Northtown on Roosevelt Island. Phase 1, now nearing completion, includes 2,100 housing units and support services. The third phase, expected to be fully realized in 1982, will include the completion of Southtown.

When all phases of the project are finished, the island will be a vehicular-free community of 18,000 residents. Among its facilities will be a complete decentralized school system for 3,200 children in grades K-12; day care centers; community health center; neighborhood retail facilities; five public parks; a four-mile waterfront promenade; hotel and conference center; aerial tramway and subway connections to Manhattan; and a memorial to President Franklin D. Roosevelt, designed by the late Louis I. Kahn, FAIA.

Already completed or now under construction are an islandwide vehicular entrance and parking garage; a complete indoor/outdoor recreation facility; and a pneumatic refuse disposal system.

Deadline for registration is February 15; first stage submissions must be completed

and entered by April 15. Eight finalists in the competition will be announced about May 15. Deadline for the final stage submissions by the eight finalists will be announced on about September 15.

Each of the eight finalists in the first stage will receive a prize of $5,000. First prize for the winner of the final stage will be $10,000. (It is the intent to employ the winner to prepare contract drawings.) Second prize winner will receive $7,500, and third prize winner will be awarded $5,000.

Announcements about the competition will be sent free to anyone requesting them. A request for the full competition program should be accompanied by a check or money order for $25 and sent to Theodore Liebman, Professional Adviser, Roosevelt Island Housing Competition, New York State Urban Development Corporation, 1345 Avenue of the Americas, New York, N.Y. 10019. A registration form is included in the competition program, and there is an additional charge of $25 for registration.

Chairman of the jury for the competition is Jose Luis Sert, FAIA, a principal in the Cambridge, Mass., firm of Sert, Jackson & Associates, and former dean of the Graduate School of Design, Harvard University. Other jury members are Franklin D. Becker, Cornell University Center for Urban Development Research; Alexander Cooper, AIA, director, graduate program in urban design, Columbia University, and member of the New York City Planning Commission; Frederick P. Rose, president of Rose Associates Inc.; Paul Rudolph, FAIA, New York City; Sharon Lee Ryder, interior design editor, *Progressive Architecture;* and Joseph Wasserman, AIA, New York City.

Compensation Problems Charted by Florida Survey

Florida architects, engineers and A/E firms lost money on one out of every five projects undertaken in 1973. Losses were most likely in work for public agencies and those under $500,000 in total construction cost or value.

These were among findings of a survey undertaken by the San Francisco management consulting firm of Case & Co. for the Florida Association/AIA and the Florida Institute of Consulting Engineers.

The survey report, titled "The Economics of Architectural and Engineering Practice in Florida," is based on data from 188 firms out of 1,075 invited to participate.

The firms were asked to submit cost data on their last five projects. The returns covered projects ranging from $50,000 to more than $50 million in construction costs.

Projects undertaken by the architectural firms for federal agency clients showed an average loss of 13.2 percent of gross fee income and for state clients, an average loss of 5.9 percent. Conversely, work for local agencies yielded an average profit of 4.9 percent; for private individual clients, an average profit of 13.5 percent; for private institutions or corporations, a profit of 18.6 percent; and for professional firms, a profit of 17.1 percent.

continued on page 8

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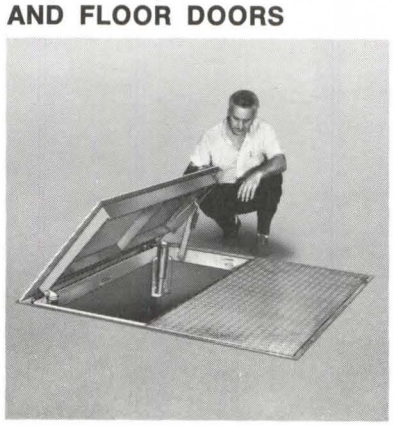

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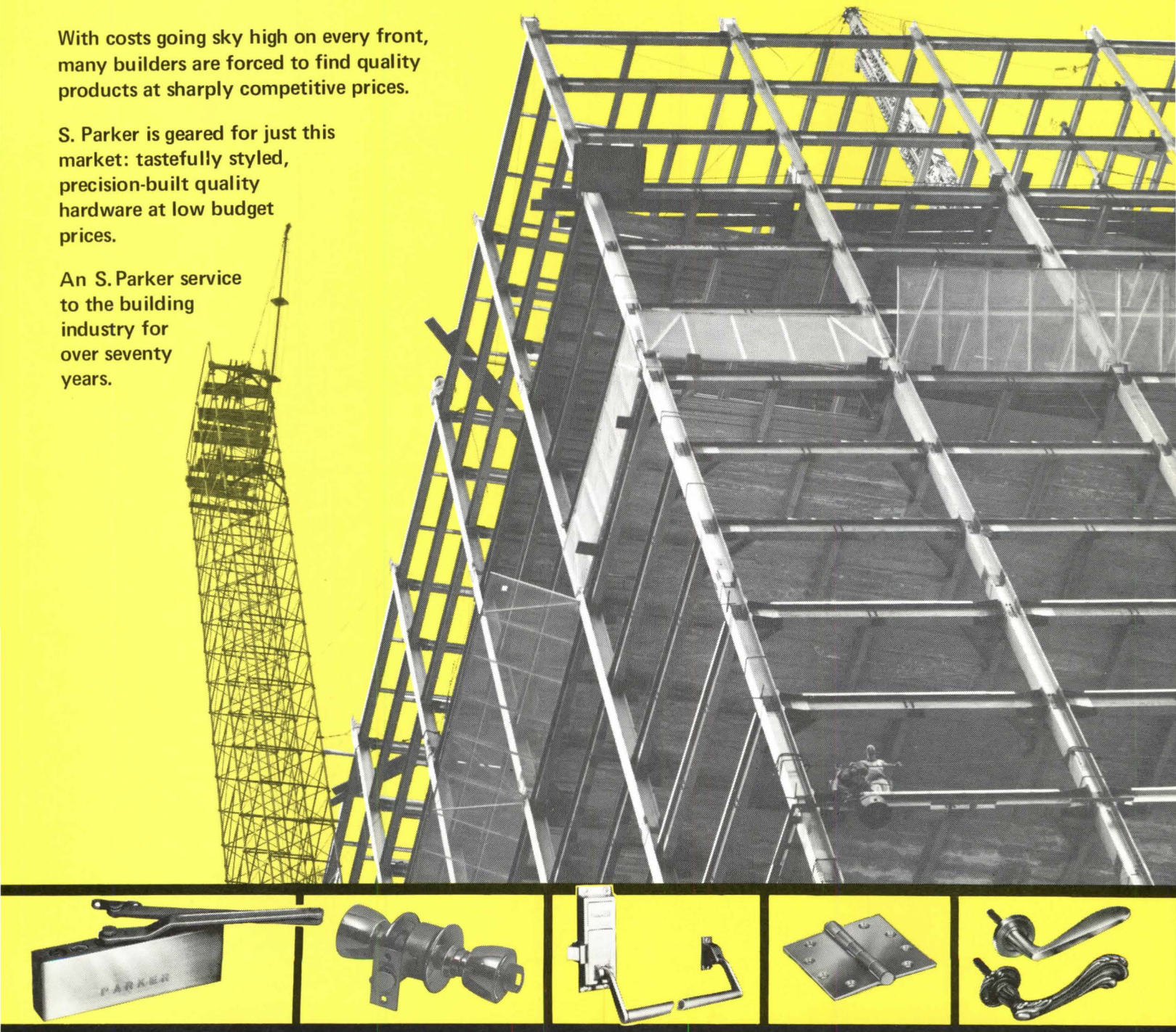

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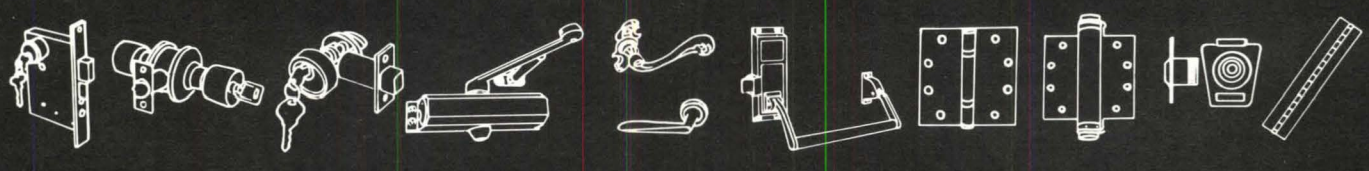

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Going On from page 4

Engineering firms gained most (16.3 percent profit) from projects for private organizations and least from work for state agencies (−9.1 percent loss). For A/E firms, projects for private individual clients yielded a profit of 33 percent, but this figure was "influenced by two large jobs with very attractive profitability." Omitting these two jobs, average profits from private individuals drop to 18.4 percent. Such firms showed a 1.4 percent profit on federal agency work; 8.5 percent profit on state agency commissions; and 12.8 percent profit on local agency work.

The survey also examined the financial results of the firms for the three preceding years and found that "profitability of firms in both architectural and engineering practice fields is declining," but A/E firms "have experienced substantial improvement" in the same period.

The Case report indicates that for all public agency work combined, average profitability was 1.3 percent compared to 17.6 percent for all private client work. The costs of professional services "is much higher when architects work for public agencies than when they work for other clients," and "total direct costs on public agency projects range from 61.6 percent to 69.5 percent of gross project income (fees)." Total direct costs for private work is from 50.9 percent to 51.7 percent of gross project income.

The Case report surmises that projects for public agencies take up a greater portion of the fee "because more red tape is required in the technical phases." If the architectural firms wish to earn an average 20 percent profit on public agency work, they "will either have to reduce their total project costs on such work by 29.9 percent, or increase their fees to public agencies by almost one-quarter."

The report states that it is apparent that the most important thing for Florida professionals to keep in mind is the need "to be flexible in negotiating compensation arrangements" and "to fit the method to the clarity and specific nature of the scope of services" for each project. In order to continue services to public agencies, they must "convince these clients" of the necessity for "more realistic compensation agreements." The firms also must "consider more carefully their project and client selection policies. Apparently, some firms cannot successfully undertake small projects in certain categories."

The survey reveals that architects profit more when using the lump sum or cost plus professional fee methods of compensation, but "fare poorly when using the percentage of construction cost method." Engineers fare best when using the hourly rate or multiplier methods and not using the lump sum method. A/E firms "do well when using the fixed sum, hourly rates and even the percentage methods."

Case finds it "surprising" that the fixed sum method shows a high profitability for Florida architects. "In other states, this method has not ranked as high." It may be that the Florida firms which use this method, as well as the cost plus professional fee method, "are in a position to estimate more accurately their direct costs and do a better job of controlling actual costs as work progresses."

Case points out the "limitations of the percentage method," commenting that "architects continue to use it because it is traditional and easy to apply." Comments from Florida architectural respondents and surveys Case has done elsewhere indicate a "growing dissatisfaction throughout the country among architects and clients with the percentage of construction cost method, because the resultant fee bears little relationship to the amount of work, skill and time involved."

The survey report comments that "architectural and engineering firms need to review their respective interfirm charging practices. Architects do well on work for engineers, but engineers do not fare as well when the relationship is reversed."

The writers of the report also admonish Florida firms to "improve their office practices, their staff efficiency and their project planning and management. Most small firms need to exercise better financial management, more effective cost control and need to know more accurately their overhead ratio." It would be desirable as well if the state professional firms agreed on comparable and consistent personnel practices and employee benefits insofar as possible. "Architectural firms particularly need to revise and update their personnel provisions, for they are not on par with those of engineers and A/E firms."

About two-thirds of the principals in Florida architectural and engineering firms reported earnings of less than $30,000 per year, "a relatively low total remuneration level in comparison to other executive positions" and in light of education and experience, as well as the "financial risk exposure of professional firm principals." Approximately 45 percent of A/E firm principals earn less than $30,000 annually, the survey indicates, and more architectural firm principals earn less than this amount than engineering and A/E firm principals. This may be accounted for by the fact that "there are more smaller architectural firms in the sample" than in the other two groups. "At the other end of the spectrum . . . there are fewer architectural firm principals earning above $50,000 than there are principals in the other two categories." The survey makes readily apparent the fact that principals in A/E firms enjoy the "best personal remuneration."

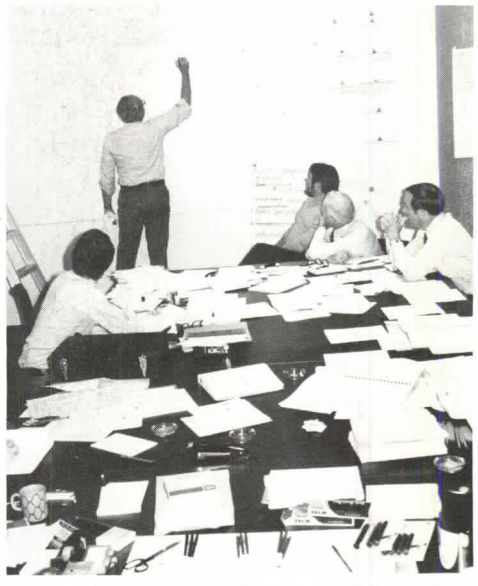
The full report is available from the Florida Association/AIA at 7100 N. Kendall Drive, Suite 203, Miami, Fla. 33156. Price is $10 to members of the two sponsoring groups and $35 to others.

Charrette Produces Cost-Based Compensation Guide

An intensive four-day charrette at AIA headquarters in late October, conducted by a special task force, resulted in the draft of a document on guidelines for services/compensation management. The purpose of the document "is to provide guidance and a methodology for negotiating compensation for professional services related to the estimated cost of rendering the specific services agreed upon by client and architect."

AIA's 1975 program and budget calls for a task force to develop such a document on cost-based compensation. But in late October, members of the commission and committee on office practice met with President-elect William Marshall Jr., FAIA, and Executive Vice President William L. Slayton, Hon. AIA, urged that the schedule be advanced by a full year and proposed the charrette as a means of getting the document moving.

An obstacle was that there were no funds for the charrette in the 1974 budget.



In less than an hour, however, this problem was solved when the Architects Society of Ohio/AIA offered to furnish seed money in order to get the charrette underway at once. Within a few days, the special task force—representative of various firm sizes and of geographical regions—was designated, staff assigned and logistics planned.

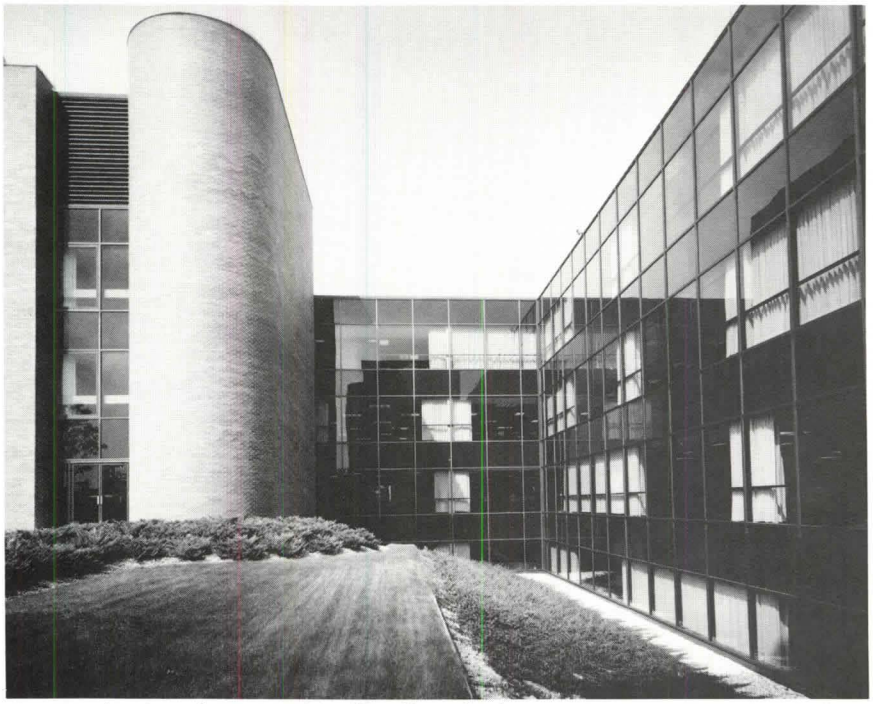
The task force was composed of Ward W. Deems, FAIA, of San Diego; James A. Greene, AIA, of Tampa; E. Keith Haag, FAIA, of Cleveland; Robert L. Halford, AIA, of Dallas; Robert M. Lawrence, AIA, of Oklahoma City; Edward D. McCrary, AIA, of San Francisco; and Donald J. Stephens, AIA, of Albany.

continued on page 13

Case Study No. 11*

Owner Tests Heat Recovery Concepts for Five Similar Office Buildings in a $13.1-Million Prototype

It is rare indeed for designers of big commercial buildings to do more than one of a kind. Here is a case where the architects and engineers had the opportunity to prove their ideas in a working building before going on to four others just like it.



Attractively planted courtyard in Woodbury leads to main entrance on second floor.

Woodbury, N.Y. At the upcoming dedication ceremonies for the brand new GEICO office building in Macon, Georgia, some honored guests may be mildly troubled by sensations of déjà vu. The vague feeling will persist that they have seen the 250,000-square foot, five-level office structure with its three distinctive outrigger towers someplace before. But where?

The answer to that future enigma should it occur is right here on Long Island. Woodbury is the site of the first of five regional office buildings being erected by the company in major geographical sections of the U.S. Uniquely structured for the firm's special type of business and featuring an energy-conserving electric HVAC system, the Woodbury prototype is the work of the architects and engineers of The Kling Partnership. The same design team went on to do the Macon installation, putting them in the unusual position of being able to "second guess" their own work. While outwardly identical to the prototype, the second building includes beneath the surface some benefits stemming from experience with the first.

Serving the Civil Servant. Begun almost 40 years ago, GEICO (for Government Employees Insurance Company) originally limited its services to the select group for which it was named. Its special marketing plan was to keep premiums down by insuring only preferred risks and by selling through direct mail rather than commissioned agents. The firm has since broadened beyond its governmental orientation because it found that, thanks to computers, it can predict the risks inherent in insuring a particular driver on the basis of his own driving record. In the past, reliable driver data were lacking. Occupation was a handy criterion that usually correlated with potential risk.

Its broadened market enabled GEICO to hit the big time. It is now the fourth largest publicly held auto insurer with more than two million policy holders and $½-billion annually in premium income. Its growth rate has been about 16 percent yearly, roughly twice that of the rest of the industry.

By 1970 the press of increasing business began to strain GEICO's operational setup consisting of scores of local branches feeding record information back to a central data bank in the Chevy Chase, Md. home office. The mounting pressure prompted management to embark on a decentralization program, an essential part of which is the construction of the five regional buildings. Regionalization should also help the firm widen its geographical base. Nearly 80 percent of its business is currently east of the Mississippi.

Steady Employment. "The GEICO assignment is a designer's dream," says Robert Morrison of Kling's architectural division. "If he had a chance to start one of his buildings over again, every designer would do things at least a little differently. But when he specializes in big buildings his jobs are almost always one of a kind. With the opportunity to be involved in as many as five, we are fascinated to watch how the basic design evolves from job to job."

The Woodbury prototype is set on 21 acres amid a mix of farm properties and expensive suburban residences. Completed in late 1972 at a cost exceeding $13 million, the building is enclosed in earthy toned brick and bronze-tinted glass. There are four floors of office space plus a basement which houses all of the basic supporting services such as the employees' cafeteria and kitchen, mail and printing departments, storage spaces, and mechanical, electrical and telephone equipment rooms.

Inclined to Save. The building is presently L-shaped, partially enclosing the entrance court. A 150,000-square foot wing to be added in a second phase of construction will enclose the court on a third side and the building will take the

* *One of a series of reports giving recognition to the efforts of architects and engineers on behalf of resource conservation.*

An idle chiller gives visible testimony to the effectiveness of conservation measures devised for the closed-loop HVAC system by the building's operating staff.

form of a U. The open end of the plaza leads directly to an employee parking lot for 1000 cars.

The center portion of the plaza has been graded to form a gentle slope between the second level of the building and the parking area. The mounded earth is well planted and appears to be a landscaper's ploy to relieve the otherwise flat terrain surrounding the building. Not entirely, says architect Morrison. "That gentle slope you see represents a considerable saving in elevator kilowatt hours. It enabled us to put the main entrance on the second floor midpoint and, thus, encourage people to use the stairs. Any level of the building can be reached easily by climbing at most two flights up or two flights down. If it had to, this building could survive as a 'walk-up'."

Shifted Shafts. In writing the design guidelines for the work environment, GEICO management showed commendable concern for the psychological well-being of rank and file employees. Most particularly, the departments where repetitive clerical routines are performed were to be as unconfining as possible. The architects responded with comfortable and spacious work areas having an open feeling created by the window walls. So-called general offices were run right out to these walls; only two private executive offices of modest size have favored window positions.

A major innovation made to achieve openness is the strategic breakup of those services that are usually concentrated in a solid core built dead center. Three curving brick towers extend out from the building at intervals along the perimeter. These outboard "cores" contain elevator shafts, stairwells, restrooms and telephone and electrical closets. Pay telephones and vending machines for cold drinks, candy, cigarettes, etc. are also located there. Penthouses above the towers are for miscellaneous mechanical equipment such as ventilation fans, heat recovery wheels and evaporative coolers. Two additional cores will be erected when expansion plans materialize.

Structurally the steel-framed building is made up of 24-foot modules to keep interior columns few in number. While openness was the objective, it was achieved without any suggestion of bareness. Color-coordinated furnishings and equipment, an occasional short length of seven-foot-high divider panel, a sprinkling of original works by local Long Island artists are some of the elements that draw attention from the dimensional vastness of the interiors.

Floor Flaws. In translating the Woodbury experience to Macon, the major architectural change found necessary was, surprisingly, in the floors. A completely different floor system was installed to accommodate some unanticipated shifts in operating methods.

In the past decade or so the insurance industry, like some others, has become what has been described as "electronics-intensive." Telephone communications and, especially, electronic data processing have become so integrated with day-to-day operations that an insurance company of today would find it nearly

Architect Robert Morrison found that even in duplicating a building design there is still plenty of room left for innovation.

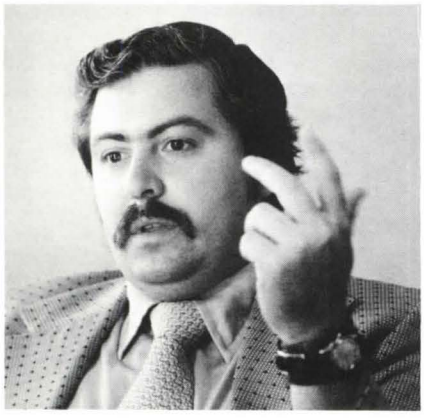
impossible to function without them. In terms of building design this situation has put new emphasis on electrical wiring systems. For them, flexibility has become the essential specification.

GEICO, because of its special marketing approach, may be even more electronics-intensive than others in its field. "We were aware of this, of course," says Kling electrical engineer Ronald L. Wilkins. "We knew we had to make provisions to permit wiring changes when work stations are moved, new equipment added, systems upgraded,etc. So we imbedded what we thought was a generous network of wire and cable ducts in the floor slabs. When a work station had to be added or relocated, for example, the building people could activate it handily by threading the ducts with the wires needed for telephones, electrical outlets, intercoms or whatever."

Santa's No Help. The designers' foresight worked out well in Woodbury—up to a point. But then the building's wiring requirements jumped suddenly beyond what had been anticipated. A number of factors contributed to the jump. On one end of the scale of events was the introduction of circuit chips and liquid crystals into the consumer electronics market a few Christmases ago. Soon after miniature calculators became a popular gift item, they began to appear on staffers' desks and are now regarded as an everyday office tool. "We have to activate (provide electric outlets for) 85 percent of the desks."

Further up the scale of importance was the decision to provide direct access to computer-stored policy information to the large group of employees who handle phone calls from customers. By means of a CRT screen (much like a portable TV set) installed on his desk a Woodbury staffer can in seconds query the central data bank in Chevy Chase

Three existing outboard "cores" will be joined by two more when new wing is added.



Electrical engineer Ronald L. Wilkins recommends a different kind of floor system when a business is electronics intensive.

HVAC engineer Howard Shaner prefers the sort of heat recovery system that lets a person keep his two feet on the ground.

GEICO administrative engineer Michael Lucas had some misgivings when he abandoned the financial district for suburbia.

for a visual display of the records of any policyholder. The CRT units involve extensive cabling.

Learning from the Woodbury experience, the designers went on to provide Macon with almost unlimited wiring capability. Their approach was to raise the finished floor surfaces five inches above the slabs. The result is that the entire space between floor and slab functions as a raceway. Floors are made up of two-by-two-foot steel plates, stiffened by a bridge-like under-structure and surfaced with carpet, which are supported by vertical pins. Floorplates can be lifted out for access to the raceway beneath them.

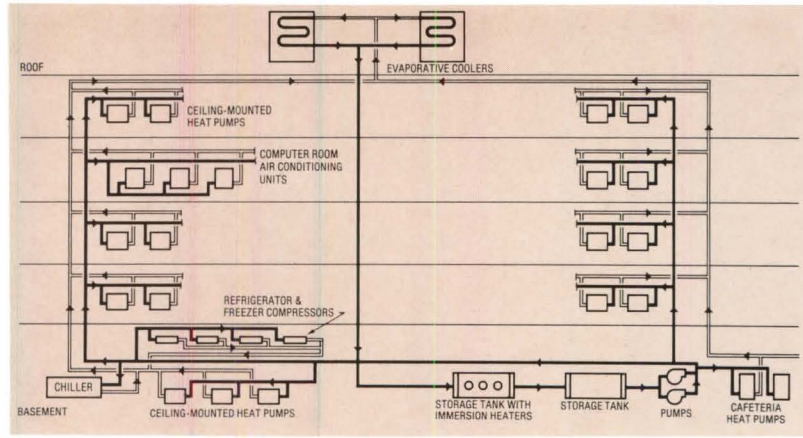
Energy Conservation. The engineers selected an electric heat recovery HVAC system to maintain a comfortable inside environment year around. A number of elements were considered in the choice including cost, ease of maintenance and adaptability for zoning. A primary aim was to optimize energy consumption. Another was to avoid the discharge of combustion products which might be objectionable to the surrounding residential communities.

The system employs electric water-to-air heat pumps working into a closed loop of circulating water, plus an arrangement of four heat wheels in the exhaust and inlet passages. In office buildings of this type, cooling of interior spaces and heating of perimeter spaces are often needed simultaneously. As in any heat recovery application the design objective here was to salvage heat that would normally be wasted and reuse it elsewhere.

The major portions of the building, both interior and perimeter, are served by a total of 185 ceiling-mounted heat pump units rated at three and four tons. Each operates independently of the others and can be on heating or cooling at any time regardless of what is happening in the rest of the system. In the cooler months the system removes excess heat from the interior zones and, by the medium of the water circulating in the pipes connecting the heat pumps, makes it immediately available for use at the perimeter.

Each heat pump unit is controlled from a space thermostat with automatic changeover from heating to cooling and vice versa. Interior zone thermostats are preset for a 68F to 76F deadband which permits reduced compressor operation without significantly affecting the comfort of the occupants. Had thermostats in these areas been set at a fixed 68F, compressors would be operated almost continuously—on heating or cooling—with higher energy consumption. The wide deadband also precludes the possibility of adjacent units "fighting" one another, e.g. one attempting to cool while its neighbor is trying to heat the same space.

During winter the heat wheels recover up to 80 percent of the heat content of the air exhausted from the building and use it to preheat the ventilation air being brought into the building. In summer, when the exhaust air is

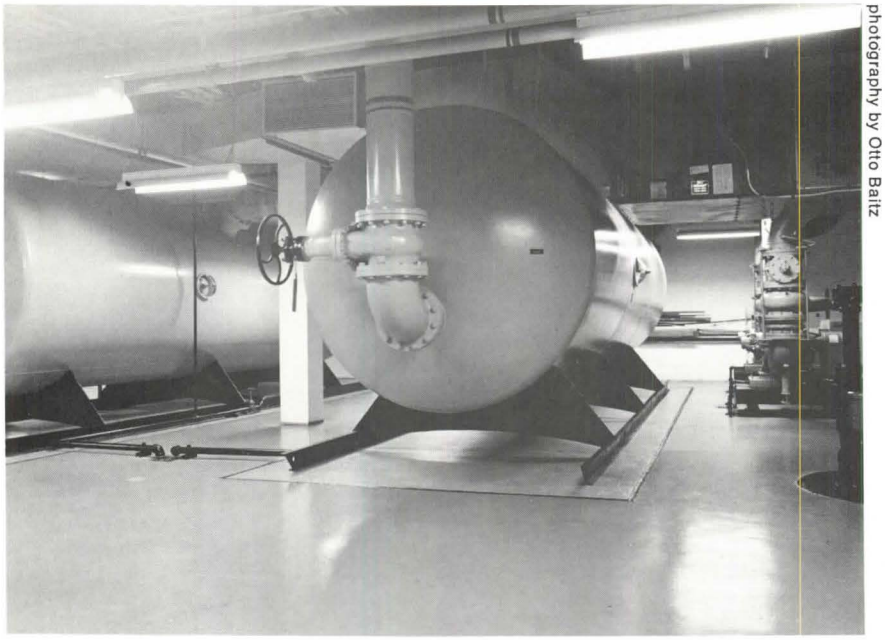


HEAT RECOVERY WATER LOOP

This flow diagram points up the wide extent to which the closed loop of circulating water is used for recovering heat from many sources in the GEICO building. The bulk of the connections are made, of course, to the 185 ceiling-mounted heat pump units distributed throughout the general office areas. Some other spaces require special refrigeration and air conditioning considerations. The equipment serving those areas was selected for compatibility with the overall energy conservation concept.

All units are water cooled and, as indicated, on the flow diagram, have their condensers connected into the heat pump water loop. The special areas and the equipment serving them are: computer room with three 16-ton packaged air conditioning units; kitchen/cafeteria with air handlers and a 125-ton centrifugal chiller; and the food storage area with five compressors for walk-in freezers and refrigerators.

Excess heat generated during the day is stored in the two 10,000-gallon tanks which are part of the loop. The stored heat is available for use at night, supplemented by three 90-kw immersion heaters installed in one of the tanks. The temperature of the condenser water loop is maintained between 70F (winter low) and 92F (summer high). Below 70F the immersion heaters are energized and above 92F the evaporative coolers are gradually phased into operation.



photography by Otto Baitz

Any recovered heat not needed immediately is stored in these tanks for use later.

cooler than the outside air, the wheels serve as precoolers.

Broadway Bound. In a theatrical sense the producers of the GEICO buildings had the chance to try the HVAC system out of town before bringing it into Macon for a long run. Did the script require any doctoring on the road? "We did indeed make a major change," replies Kling HVAC engineer Howard Shaner. "Not in concept, however. If anything, the closed loop system performed even beyond expectations and we are using it again. Sizings and ratings of components are about the same. Even the storage tanks are identical in capacity although we were able to install smaller immersion heaters because of the Macon climate. The important thing we did was to take the heat pump units out of the ceiling."

For their second effort the designers altered their specifications to call for floor-mounted heat pump units. In the peripheral zones these are of the cabinet type placed against the outside walls and delivering conditioned air directly into the office space. For the interior zones upflow units are installed in small closets and their output plenums connected to short runs of lateral distribution ducts above the ceiling.

"What we've done, in essence," says Shaner, "is simply to make the equipment easier to get at. The result is a dramatic improvement in the maintenance situation, although we do pay for the improvement because we lost some floor space. But it is, for example, much simpler to change an air filter standing on the floor rather than a ladder." Another benefit of the revised arrangement is that it ends the need for frequent removal of ceiling panels and resulting impairment of the flame-resistant membrane.

Building Tune-up. The man closest to the HVAC situation in Woodbury is GEICO administrative engineer Michael Lucas. Recruited from New York City's financial district where the systems are scaled for skyscrapers and supplied by steam-driven chillers, he came on the scene soon after ground was broken. Lucas admits to feeling less than enthusiastic at first, thinking that a collection of small heat pump units could hardly do the job of a big central system. No longer. He now identifies fully with the closed-loop approach.

"During the first few months, the modular layout of equipment," says Lucas, "gave us a great deal of flexibility in adjusting operation of the system—in tuning up the building, so to speak. There were so many variables –zone temperature, loop temperature, ventilation rates, etc.–that we could experiment with to control energy use."

Lucas boasts that his staff has found ways to cut electrical demand almost 40 percent below expected peaks.

Dramatic proof of the effectiveness of Lucas' conservation program is the 125-ton chiller which stands idle virtually all of the time in the machine room. Lowering of heat gains below calculated values and accepting some temperature increase in the cafeteria areas enable the unitary heat pumps to handle the entire cooling load. It appears now that consistent use of the big chiller can be deferred until the new wing is added.

DESIGN SUMMARY

GENERAL DESCRIPTION:

Area: 250,000 sq ft
Volume: 3,200,000 cu ft
Number of floors: four plus basement
Number of rooms: 300
Types of rooms: general offices, private offices, cafeteria, kitchen, lounges, mail-room, computer room, utility rooms, storage, equipment rooms, training center

CONSTRUCTION DETAILS:

Glass: single solar bronze
Exterior walls: 12″ brick and block; U-factor: 0.32
Roof and ceilings: built-up roof on 2″ rigid insulation (R-7) on concrete deck, suspended acoustical tile ceiling; U-factor: 0.1
Floors: concrete slab
Gross exposed wall area: 72,400 sq ft
Glass area: 25,000 sq ft

ENVIRONMENTAL DESIGN CONDITIONS

Heating:
- Heat loss Btuh: 8,632,096
- Normal degree days: 5280
- Ventilation requirements: 62,000 cfm
- Design conditions: 5F outdoors; 70F indoors

Cooling:
- Heat gain Btuh: 9,905,520
- Ventilation requirements: 62,000 cfm
- Design conditions: 93F dbt, 77F wbt outdoors; 76F, 50% rh indoors

LIGHTING:

Levels in footcandles: 50-100
Levels in watts/sq ft: 2-4
Type: fluorescent

CONNECTED LOADS:

Heating & Cooling (825 tons)	2866 kw
Lighting	936 kw
Cooking	300 kw
Other	1403 kw
TOTAL	5505 kw

PERSONNEL:

Owner: Government Employees Insurance Company
Architects: Vincent G. Kling & Partners
Consulting Engineers: Kling/Lindquist, Inc.
General Contractor: Turner Constr. Co.
Electrical Contractor: Fishbach & Moore
Mechanical Contractor: Kool Air Systems, Inc.
Utility: Long Island Lighting Company

Going On from page 8

They worked night and day on the suggested document, emerging to review their efforts with a "reactor group," made up of representatives from major federal and state agencies that employ architects, private sector corporate clients, allied professional organizations and regional AIA components. Participants in the reactor group came at their own expense to help bring the document into reality. Assisted by legal, insurance, accounting and marketing counsel, the reactor group made its input into the proposed document.

The task force then plunged back into the charrette to complete work on the draft document. It was polished up by AIA staff members and sent to the board of directors and others for rapid review. The document will be published immediately upon board approval.

The aim of the document, titled "Guidelines for Services/Compensation Management," is to help client and architect select the required services; to produce a technique for analysis of time requirements for performance; and to assist the architect and client in coming to a decision regarding suitable method or methods of compensation through a consideration of all the elements of cost, expense and profit involved in a project. The task force emphasizes that the purpose is to improve the product as well as profits.

Pioneering efforts in the development of prototype documents for compensation management have been made by AIA components, including the New York State Association of Architects, the California Council and the Architects Society of Ohio. The guidelines document developed in the charrette contains the best features of these components' publications on cost-based compensation and of systems in use by AIA member firms.

The draft document lists and explains the various methods of compensation of an architect for his services, noting the advantages and disadvantages of each to help the architect and client determine which method best suits a specific project. It outlines accounting principles and definitions to help reach a common understanding regarding overhead, profit, personnel expense, etc.

Architectural services for a specific project may vary greatly, and the document supplies a list of services to be reviewed phase by phase before the execution of an agreement. And, finally, there are worksheets for the preparation of backup data for compensation proposals.

Marshall says that the document is "neither the beginning nor the end." Presented as a first general national document for use by those interested in compensation management, it will be studied during 1975 by the task force on compensation management to produce what Marshall calls a "second generation document."

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This document will include a new owner/architect agreement form designed for use with the system, as well as revised information derived from experience in the use of the first generation effort that was brought into being by the charrette.

In late 1975, by the time the second generation document is ready for publication, it is hoped that a national man-hour data bank will be brought into being that will "provide an implementation mechanism" for the compensation guidelines document's concepts. And it is expected that the AIA's computer-aided financial management system will be adjusted to reflect the needs of the man-hour data bank and that new manual accounting system forms and guidelines will be available. "Taken together, all of these modules will form an interrelated comprehensive AIA compensation management system," says Marshall.

AIA Assists in Planning Building Sciences Center

Section 809 of the Housing and Community Development Act, signed into law by President Ford in August (*see* Sept., p. 4), states that there is "no authoritative national source . . . wtih respect to the use of building science and technology in achieving nationally accepted standards and other technical provisions for use in federal, state and local housing and building regulations" and that such a lack imposes "severe burdens upon all those who procure, design, construct, use, operate, maintain and retire physical facilities. . . ."

To fill this need, the act establishes a nonprofit, nongovernmental entity—the National Institute of Building Sciences—to be the nationally recognized source for the development, promulgation and maintenance of performance criteria and standards. The legislation states that NIBS will be governed by a board of directors to include architects, engineers, officials of federal, state and local agencies and representatives of consumer organizations. The task of overall coordination of the initial efforts of NIBS has been assigned to Michael H. Moskow, assistant secretary for policy development and research, Department of Housing and Urban Development. In a recent speech before the Building Products Executives Conference, Moskow said that if NIBS were properly organized and staffed that it would have "enormous potential for achieving fundamental, long-term reforms in regulation of the building industry." It has long been recognized, he continued, that the "multiplicity of local building codes and the tendency of these codes to enshrine traditional practices have impeded technological change and efficiency in the industry." A federal building code is not a "viable solution," Moskow asserted. "The NIBS solution, a nongovernmental organization which would represent and work with industry, labor and all levels of government, has strong support throughout the industry."

AIA's codes and regulations center, headed by James R. Dowling, is responsible for input by the Institute. The center is presently developing a list of names of architects as candidates for membership on the NIBS board and also will provide assistance to such agencies as HUD and the Building Research Advisory Board in the establishment and staffing of NIBS.

Dowling says that "since NIBS could now assume many forms as it becomes a reality, it is essential that efforts be made to make it a strong organization which can bring reason and order to the areas of building regulations and standardization." Dowling cites some priorities for NIBS: "First, it must be chartered as an 'open' organization and be organized and operated to allow all interested parties to receive a fair hearing, with no public or private group dominating proceedings by vote or by financial means."

After an initial funding of $10 million over a two-year period, NIBS is to be self-sustaining. "The initial support," says Dowling, "must not be treated as an operating budget but as a contingency or 'special project' fund," and "high priority must go to securing continuing funding that does not depend upon the whim of any special interest group."

In its review of code and standards-making processes, NIBS must consider "reform of the system of the utmost importance. Many current problems in codes, standards and research can be directly attributed to the institutional structures which fund projects, carry out work and make decisions," Dowling comments. "All the many tasks awaiting NIBS cannot be accomplished simultaneously. Top priority must be given only to standards and criteria which are blatantly insufficient in the provision of safety, restrict innovation and flexibility inordinately or cost excessively for compliance. NIBS cannot allow its meager resources to be expended on projects of minor impact."

Jasper S. Hawkins, AIA, chairman of the AIA codes and standards committee, calls upon NIBS to "act as a catalyst to the building industry." Its long-range goal "must be to encourage performance as one of the basic criteria upon which to judge all standards," both existing and to be developed. One of its most useful activities, as well as a source of income, could be functioning as a "central source of accepted standards and criteria."

Encouraging the adoption of criteria and standards by federal, state and local government is viewed by Hawkins as the "key element in the ultimate success" of NIBS. "If those legally empowered to enforce do not accept the recommendations of NIBS, the entire program will have failed."

NIBS, comments Hawkins, should not gear up to do any direct research work, since "research required to develop true performance standards is a monumental activity," but NIBS should be a catalyst and administer "this extremely important service to the building industry." It should develop standards for testing and evaluation but "should not endeavor to do the actual work in-house. . . . It can merely monitor the system in order to assure industry of compliance wtih accepted standards."

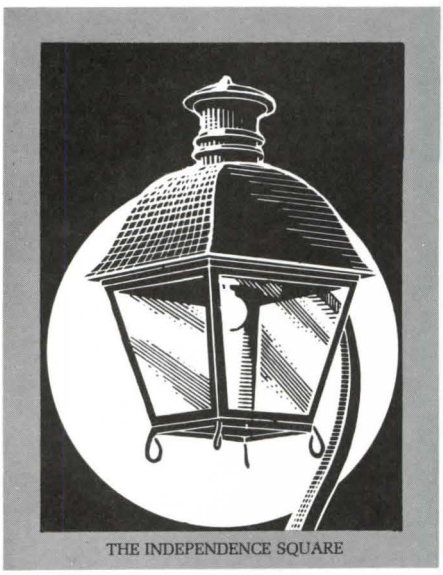
Steel Award Program Honors 13 Buildings

The American Institute of Steel Construction has given its 1974 design awards to the following:

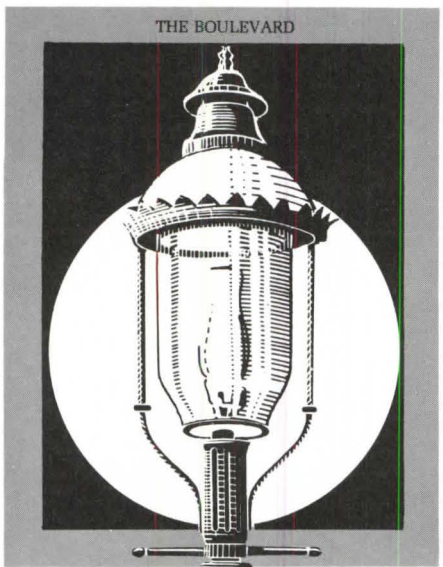
- Federal Reserve Bank, Minneapolis (architect: Gunnar Birkerts & Associates).
- Frank B. Hall Co., Inc., Office Building, Briarcliff Manor, N.Y. (architect: Fleagle & Kaeyer).
- Hangar No. 2, Miami International Airport (architect: Greenleaf/Telesca).
- Studio, Highland Park, Ill. (architect: David Haid, FAIA).

- Hillier Group Building, West Windsor, N.J. (architect: J. Robert Hillier, AIA) *above.*
- Headquarters Building, The Progressive Farmer Co., Birmingham, Ala. (architect: Jova/Daniels/Busby).
- Homestead Federal Savings and Loan Association, Dayton, Ohio (architect: Richard Levin Associates, Inc.).
- U.S. Pavilion, Expo '74, Spokane, Wash. (architect: Naramore Bain Brady & Johanson).
- Page Southerland Page Headquarters Building, Austin, Tex. (architect: Page Southerland Page).
- Covered Walkways, Seattle (architect: The Richardson Associates).
- Paramus Park Shopping Center, Paramus, N.J. (architect: RTKL Associates, Inc.).
- Downtown Mall, Sioux Falls, S.D. (architect: The Spitznagel Partners, Inc.; Herb Baldwin). *continued on page 16*

There's only one source for authentic fixture reproductions... the company who made the originals.



THE INDEPENDENCE SQUARE



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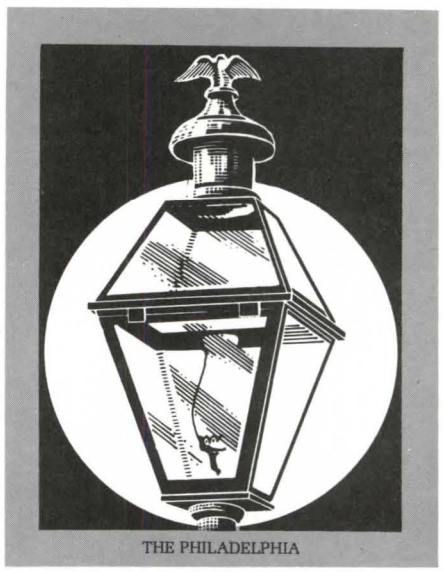

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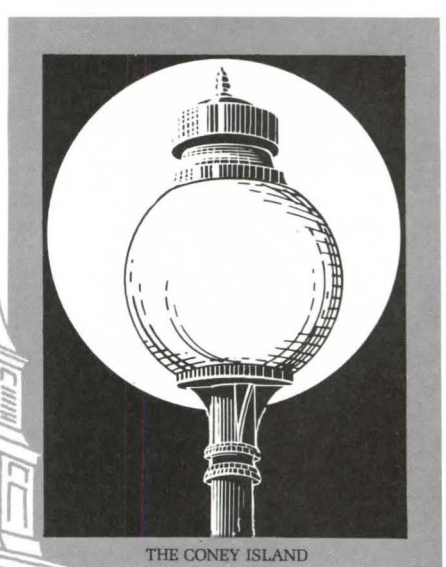

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There's the pompous Boulevard perched atop a stately fluted pole right off the streets of Baltimore. And the cheery Coney Island which seems so much at home amid a crowd of happy people. The Independence Square and the Philadelphia are truly colonial with design ancestry dating back to the 1700's. And many more.

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• Control Center, Power Generation Plants, Pa. and Okla. (architect: Robert L. Ziegelman, AIA).

The jury members were Roy O. Allen, FAIA; William Marshall Jr., FAIA, president-elect of the AIA; Maxwell G. Mayo, AIA; Byron L. Nishkian, president of Nishkian, Hammill & Associates; and William L. Pereira, FAIA.

Wainwright Competition Winners Announced

Winners of the national competition to renovate Louis Sullivan's Wainwright building and construct additional office space on the remainder of the block it occupies in downtown St. Louis were Hastings & Chivetta of St. Louis in association with Mitchell/Giurgola Associates of Philadelphia.

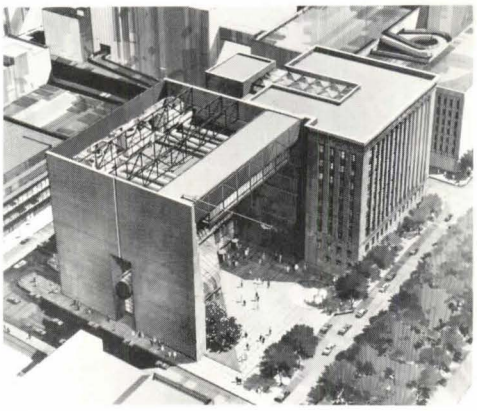
Together, the renovated Wainwright and the new construction will provide 200,000 square feet of office space for the State of Missouri, which conducted the competition. The winning design calls for three L-shaped buildings, kept horizontal to emphasize the Wainwright's height, each of the three forming an outdoor court. Like the Wainwright, walls are of red sandstone.

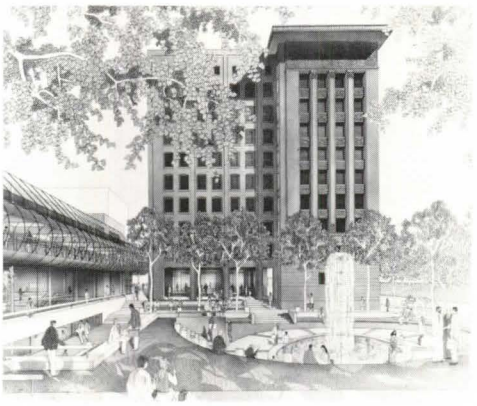
The two-stage competition, begun in June, attracted 47 entries, all of which had to include a Missouri firm. In addition to the winner, the other semifinalists were: Urban Architects, Kansas City, Mo., second place; W. B. Ittner, AIA, St. Louis, in association with Perkins & Will, Chicago, third; HNTB, Inc., Kansas City, Mo., in association with Joseph W. Albert, Milwaukee; and W. B. Ittner, AIA, in association with Perkins & Will, New York (the last-named, honorable mentions).

The winner was awarded a 7 percent commission on construction cost of the project, estimated at $8.5 million. Detailed design already is underway.

The jury was E. C. Bassett, AIA, of Skidmore, Owings & Merrill, San Francisco; Gunnar Birkerts, FAIA, of Birmingham, Mich.; landscape architect M. Paul Friedberg of New York City; Norman Pfeiffer, AIA, of Hardy Holzman Pfeiffer Associates, New York City; George Hoover, AIA, of Muchow Associates, Denver; Vincent Scully of Yale University; and Walter McQuade, FAIA, of *Fortune* magazine. Professional advisers were John A. Cooper, AIA, director of the state division of design and construction, and William H. Albinson of Team Four Inc., St. Louis urban design and planning consultants.

The historic Wainwright has been called "probably the most important surviving early skyscraper in the nation." Efforts to save it have required cooperation by national and local agencies.



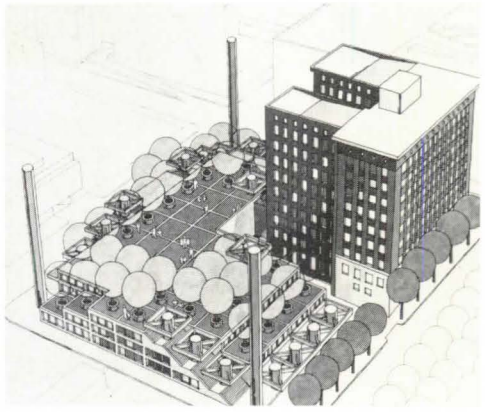


First prize winner (top left) emphasizes the quadrants of the block, the fourth quadrant being the Wainwright; second place (top right); third place (center left); honorable mention (center right); honorable mention (bottom): W. B. Ittner, AIA, in association with Perkins & Will, New York. He was also third place winner, with Perkins & Will, Chicago.

NAAB Appoints Director

Hugh G. Blasdel has been appointed executive director of the National Architectural Accrediting Board, headquartered in Washington, D.C. He completed a doctorate in architecture at the University of California in Berkeley in 1972, having previously earned a master of architecture degree at the same university.

The position of executive director was created by NAAB as part of a restructuring study. Initially, Blasdel will be assisting in the completion of the self-study and NAAB's educational development plan book.



Growth Policy Forum

Since shortly after publication of the national growth policy report of AIA's national policy task force in 1972, a group of representatives of highly diverse national organizations has been meeting to discuss the report's recommendations and how they could be implemented.

Now 20 of these organizations have formed a National Forum on Growth Policy. The forum's objectives will include "the exchange of information and ideas on problems relating to national growth, encouragement of debate within the member organizations on growth-related issues, and increasing the awareness of such issues among government officials and the general public.

In addition to AIA, members of the forum are American Institute of Interior Designers, American Institute of Planners, American Society of Civil Engineers, American Society of Consulting Planners, American Society of Landscape Architects, Associated General Contractors of America, Consulting Engineers Council, Industrial Designers Society of America, International Downtown Executives Association, Junior League of Washington, League of Women Voters of the U.S., Mortgage Bankers Association of America, National Association of Housing and Redevelopment Officials, National Committee Against Discrimination in Housing, National League of Cities, National Society of Professional Engineers, Potomac Institute, U.S. Conference of Mayors and Urban Land Institute.

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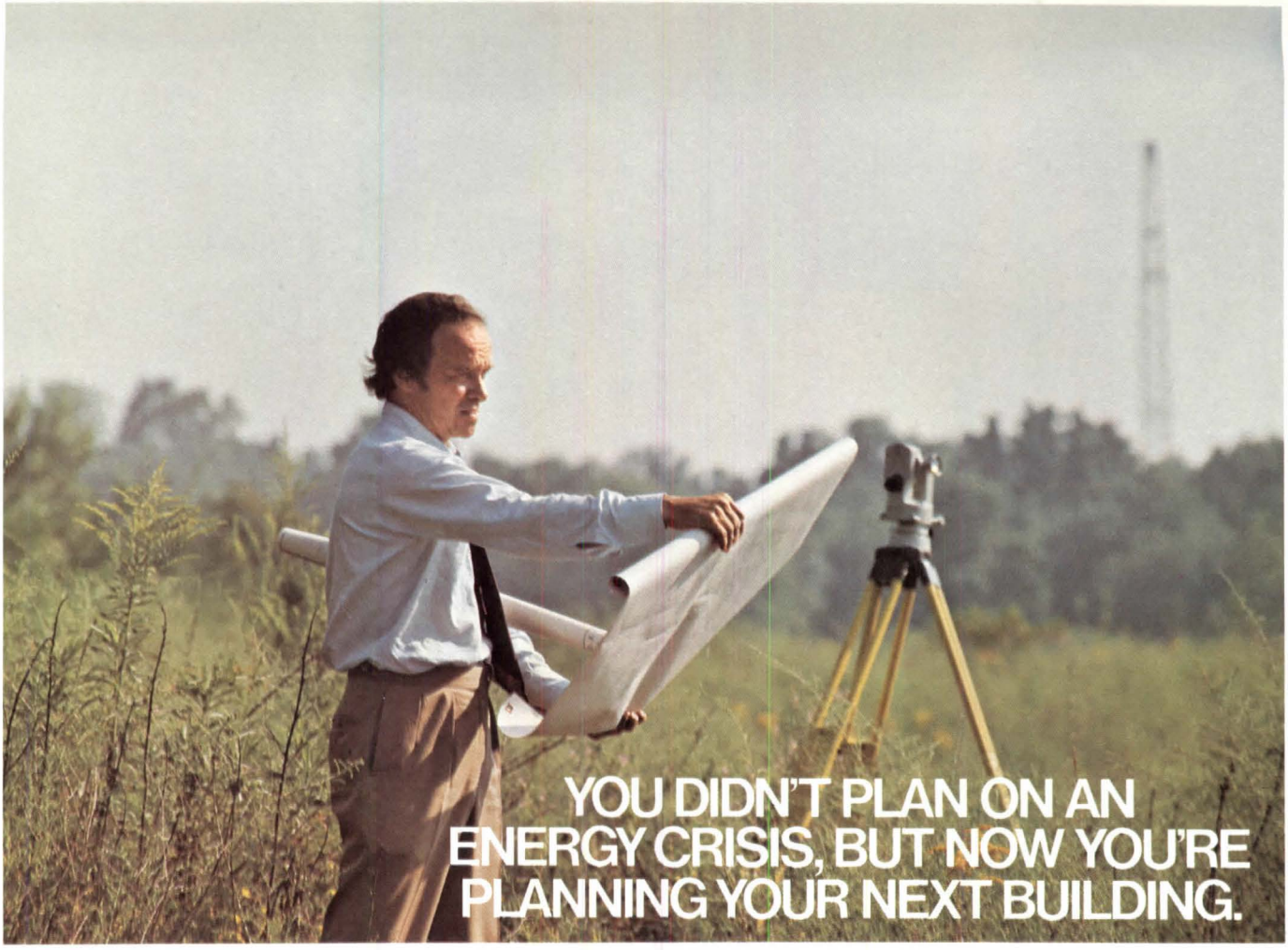


YOU DIDN'T PLAN ON AN ENERGY CRISIS, BUT NOW YOU'RE PLANNING YOUR NEXT BUILDING.

Which building material will you use?

You've got energy shortages to think about. Air-conditioning costs. Heat gain through the long, hot summers. Heat loss in the winter months. Heating equipment costs. The whole set of energy-use factors suddenly has become critically important. The building material you use affects all of them.

Compare the energy conserving capability of masonry, for instance, with double-plate glass walls.

At 4:00 P.M. on a hot August day in Washington, D.C., the heat gain through a square foot of west-facing insulated brick and concrete block wall will be 2.2 Btus an hour.

The heat gain through a double-plate glass wall in the same location will be 173 Btus a square foot in an hour. A big difference.

Project this differential over 10,000 square feet of wall. You come up with a heat gain through masonry of 22,000 Btuh, while the heat gain through double-plate glass is 1,730,000 Btuh.

In the case of the masonry wall, cooling equipment with a two-ton capacity can handle the heat gain. But with the double-plate glass wall, about 143 tons of cooling capacity will be needed.

An analysis of a typical 10-story building shows that over its useful life, the air-conditioning cost for a square foot of our masonry wall will be about 23 cents. For the double-plate glass wall, it will be $7.60.

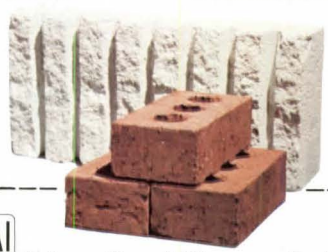
It takes a lot of money to buy, install and create space for all the extra air-conditioning equipment required by the double-plate glass wall. A lot of money and a lot of energy to run that equipment.

Compare the heat loss in winter. It has a dramatic effect on energy consumption and building operation costs.

Our masonry wall, for example, has a "U-value" of .12. The double-plate glass wall has a "U-value" of .55. (U-values are used to determine heat loss through one square foot of wall area in Btuh per degree Farenheit differential across the wall.)

This means that the masonry wall is about 450% more efficient, on the average, than the glass wall in reducing heat loss.

Over the useful life of the building, the heating cost per square foot of wall area for masonry will be about 30 cents. For double-plate glass, about $1.38.



In a time of one energy crisis after another, masonry makes eminently good sense as a good citizen.

The masonry industry believes that the thermal insulating qualities of masonry are an important economic consideration to building designers, owners and investors, and all citizens.

Masonry walls save on air-conditioning and heating costs. And just as important, they are less expensive to build. The masonry wall we've described would have a 38% lower initial cost than the double-plate glass wall.

If you'd like to find out more, write to us and we'll send you a booklet comparing the thermal insulating qualities of masonry walls with double-plate glass walls, metal panel walls and pre-cast concrete walls.

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AIA

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We are proud to announce
the appointment of

ROBERT WILLIAM BROWN

as Director, Computer Operations

AIA JOURNAL

This issue, as the cover rather boldly indicates, is mainly concerned with housing and urban development, as a subject more than as a department of the federal government. Given the direction of things, but for the familiarity of the initials, the issue might better be labeled housing and community development.

For the urban emphasis of the national housing and development thrust is not what it used to be. In fact, the thrust is not so national as it used to be.

As Carter McFarland notes in the essay following this one, the local and state levels are where most of the decisions are and most of the action is.

Whether this is considered a good or bad thing depends in part on political philosophy, one man's new federalism being another's federal cop-out. There are, however, a few experience-based points that can be made apart from either politics or philosophy.

One is that the federal government has made some promises to ill-housed Americans in general and to particular groups (such as the San Francisco community discussed on page 26). Nothing in the record indicates that such promises can be delegated downward with confidence.

Another point made by the AIA housing policy task force (whose report is excerpted at length in this issue) is that the federal level is where the big bucks are, and it will take big ones to tackle housing problems as large as the ones we have let develop.

A third point, which the task force unfortunately brushed lightly over, is this: Advocacy of making housing decisions at the local level may sound like

down-home democracy, but it is a sham unless the local body making these decisions can make them for the entire local housing market.

This is, of course, almost never the case, because housing markets are regional in nature and very few local governments or housing agencies are. What this means in practice is that the localizing of housing decisions effectively disenfranchises many Americans from having a voice in them.

Specifically, in the metropolitan areas where more than two-thirds of us now live, the smallest suburban government can make decisions affecting the housing opportunities of thousands in the metropolitan area who have no local recourse. This is one reason why most of metropolitan America is in a state of virtual apartheid, a condition which I'm convinced will take national clout to cure. D.C.

New Legislative Leverage for the Shaping of Growth

M. Carter McFarland

The omnibus Housing and Community Development Act, authorizing $2.5 billion in block grants to states and localities and giving them wide latitude in how it can be used, creates new opportunities for implementation of the growth-shaping recommendations of AIA's 1972 national policy task force.

The new legislation contains many provisions which, if the local governments choose, can be used for activities that further the objectives of the AIA growth policy. The challenge to AIA and its components and members is to persuade localities to make choices and to take actions with the help of the new law that will bring to realization the principles embodied in the AIA growth policy.

Some of the crucial recommendations contained in the AIA growth policy follow:

Building and rebuilding at neighborhood scale: One of the most basic elements in the AIA's growth policy is the recommendation that building and rebuilding should take place at the neighborhood scale, i.e., in units of from 500 to 3,000 dwellings with a full range of essential facilities, which the report calls "growth units." According to the report, the growth unit does not have fixed dimensions, but it should be large enough to require an elementary school, day care and community centers, convenience shopping, open space and recreational facilities, along with housing and other facilities. The report calls the growth unit the building block of the planned develop-

Mr. McFarland, associated with the development and implementation of federal housing programs for 20 years, and former director of urban and housing programs for the AIA, is now a consultant to the AIA.

ment and redevelopment that it recommends. The growth unit would be built either singly or in multiples, which over time would be fitted together into larger satellite communities.

There is no question that planning and building at the growth unit scale can be carried out under the provisions of the 1974 act. All that is necessary is for a local government to decide that it wants to plan and execute growth at this scale and to develop the public agencies or instrumentalities necessary to accomplish this objective.

Planning and building the infrastructure: A most important element of AIA's growth policy is the principle that urban growth can and should be guided and shaped by the public construction of utility corridors, including transit, water, sewerage and electricity. According to the report: "Federal, state and local governments should join in planning and paying for the necessary infrastructure—particularly transportation and utility corridors which would weave the growth units into the existing fabric of metropolitan life; jobs, education, health care, etc."

The report goes on to say that "public utilities and facilities can be used to determine settlement patterns," and that these corridors "should be the essential basis for comprehensive planning." The report sees the planning and development process going on in four stages: 1) land acquisition; 2) preparation of broad-based plans for its development; 3) installation of the necessary utilities and public facilities; and finally, 4) sale or lease of the improved land to developers who agree to build in accordance with the prescribed plan.

Under the block grant provisions of the 1974 act, federal funds are available to state and local units of government, both for the acquisition of land and for the construction or installation of public works, facilities and site or other improvements for the purpose of guiding growth. Indeed, the guidance of urban growth is one of the major objectives of that section of the new law which authorizes the acquisition of land and the construction of public facilities.

Land banking: One of the boldest recommendations contained in the AIA growth policy is that relating to what has come to be known as land banking. The report states that "the appreciating value of land benefitted by public investment should be recaptured and recycled into community facilities and services." What this means is that public agencies should purchase, sometimes well in advance, land that is in the path of planned development, develop a plan, install the necessary public facilities and then sell or lease the improved land to private developers.

The profits to be derived from such public acquisition and improvement of land, the so-called "unearned increment," would go to the public (instead of to private speculators) to finance community facilities and services.

This idea is not new. It has been carried out in several European countries, and goes back in American thinking to Henry George, the well-known proponent of the "single tax." Although the idea of land banking is not new, it takes boldness to propose it in a country whose traditions put great emphasis on the free use of private property.

I have consulted with a former Department of Housing and Urban Development associate general counsel who played a large part in drafting the 1974 legislation, and have been assured that land banking of the type visualized by the AIA national policy task force is authorized by the new community development legislation.

Building the mechanism: The framers of the AIA growth policy wisely saw that orderly urban growth of the type they conceived would take more than new money and new authorities alone. They saw that a coherent and effective growth policy would require the creation of new governmental entities—mechanisms with the power and capacity to turn the ideas into realities. The AIA growth policy, therefore, recommended that public development corporations should be created by federal, state and local governments, as well as on the metropolitan level.

In describing the powers of such corporations, the AIA growth policy states that they "must have authority, with teeth, to see that development plans are actually carried out." The new legislation explicitly encourages the formation and effective operation of state housing finance agencies and state development agencies. Under the law, the Secretary of HUD is authorized to provide technical assistance to such agencies, and to guarantee their bonds, and to make grants to such agencies to cover one-third of the interest payable on their financial obligations.

The legislation is less encouraging—virtually silent—on the creation of such mechanisms on the metropolitan level, a sine qua non of achievement of some of the most crucial recommendations in the AIA report. In fact, through funding formulas specifically tied to existing local institutions, the 1974 act may militate against creation of new ones at metropolitan scale.

However, there is nothing visible in the legislation to actually prohibit the use of its funds for creation of metropolitan planning and development agencies if states and localities can be persuaded to do so.

Such persuasion is necessary if any of the above-mentioned recommendations of the AIA report, or the many not mentioned here, are to find implementation through the 1974 act. The lobbying arena has shifted from Washington to the city halls, county courthouses and state houses, where the decisions are now to be made. The impact of the AIA policy thus depends on action at these levels by individual members and components. □

The 1974 HUD Design Awards: An Interdisciplinary Jury Looks Beyond Appearances

In late October, the U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development announced the results of a most unusual awards program and released a far-ranging report by the awards jury.

The composition of the jury itself was one unusual element of this sixth biennial HUD awards program. It was an agressively interdisciplinary group, including:

C. Randolph Wedding, AIA, the architect-mayor of St. Petersburg, Fla.; social psychologist Robert B. Bechtel; planner Sheryl L. Handler; landscape architect Ervin H. Zube, director of the University of Massachusetts Institute for Man and Environment; John B. Williams, president of the National Association of Housing and Redevelopment Agency; and Andrew F. Euston Jr., AIA, HUD urban design program officer, as professional advisor.

The awards themselves also were unusual, ranging from a playground to a massive, 30-year downtown renewal effort in a major city (*see* page 25). And seven of the 24 awards were in a new category called "management approaches" that did not necessarily pertain to the quality of anything yet built.

The introduction of this category, and the emphasis placed upon it, were part of an effort "to broaden the recognition of the awards for excellence beyond that of form or function to embrace considerations of organization, form and context," according to HUD.

The effort was also reflected in requirements that the entries (there were 347 in all) include data about project organization and context. In its report, the jury noted that this data was often insufficient.

The jury took the report "as the occasion for broader commentary upon the trends in provisions for the quality of our urban settlements." Excerpts from its commentary follow.

"The question of design excellence today," it said, "is one that asks 'how well do people organize and solve a problem?' and not, 'what does the appearance of things seem to be?' Ultimately, we must be prepared to ask and to answer the question, 'how well does our built environment work for people?'

"For three days the jury was submerged in the task of evaluating entries that covered all physical types and scales of urban development—from tot lots to regional land use concepts. It soon became apparent that too many entries, as end products of federal assistance, reflected great deficiencies in design. It was distressing, for example, to discover a proliferation of isolated highrise projects for the elderly in which there was little or no adaptation of public spaces and shared facilities to satisfy the special needs of the residents.

"Deficiencies were evident in the work of firms and agencies known to have superior resources, experience and talent to apply. Altogether too many entries failed to address design except as a problem for the photographer's eye. The entry form requirement that 'entrants must clearly describe the consideration of the urban design context, including social factors, of the specific development project,' was so largely ignored that the jury could not in good conscience award potentially deserving project entries.

"On the whole these were a very peculiar group of entries for an excellence awards program. Most project entries offered little evidence of contemporary design thinking. For example, one elegant school project lacked basic concepts of physical layout widely recognized in elementary school administration today. Many of the urban design solutions were mere 'Main Street bandaidisms,' revamps or nostalgia—or just plain mediocre. The sparks were not jumping the gap. Hence, our suspicion that HUD programs (through their design services fee administration, for example) had somehow filtered out the superior designers, of which America has many. Furthermore, many state and local housing agencies have been doing far more innovative work than is reflected in these entries. Finally, there was for 1974 an appalling lack of social and behavioral science components in the texts of all design awards entries.

"We concluded that the design level of many entries is that low that our government is placed in the position of assisting

A fountain in one of the many courtyards of the 11-building Cedar Square West complex in Minneapolis.

The jury assessed the 'state of the art' of environmental design and found it wanting.

projects which lower the quality of life in the U.S. Only concerted effort will suffice to nullify the inertia that seems to have developed. HUD, as the lead agency for urban growth, can improve this situation greatly by entering into a movement to raise levels of awareness and performance on a national basis in the area of environmental design.

"There are serious questions that such entries raise that will not be answered in one jury sitting—questions concerning the quality or worth of highrise and high-density construction, of endless urban sprawl, of the physical forms of new communities and of their actual validity, of constructive change versus painful disruption, of 'wasteland clearance' and of all forms of impacts we find in a nation that went from 5 percent urban to 70 percent urban in two centuries of time. These are issues that compel us to look at how decisions were made in order that their appropriateness may be gauged.

"This year, a disproportionate number of awards, relative to the number entered, were assigned to the newly introduced management approaches category. In the texts of the latter, the jury found far more adequate evidence of what the client had intended and the designer had attempted against which to gauge their success. The management approach entries, while proportionately few in number, clearly signified a new trend in the field of design. These entries were so composed that they were in themselves design statements. They expressed a recognition that process steps were crucial to good results.

"As for the entries selected to receive recognition this year, these were exemplary of what can be done. Based on their accomplishments we have attempted here to indicate what other cities may do to better assure greater benefits from their area's investments in public and private works."

The jury, whose report was titled "State of the Art of Environmental Design," had some specifics to offer these cities:

"The jury foresees a shift in the fields of design and in the ways cities are developing during this decade. The more innovative awards program entries evidence this trend. The new housing and community development legislation assures some form of change. Increased popular focus upon the quality of the built or urban environment is required, however, to assure beneficial change. Among the changes may be transformations such as these:

- "The creation of neighborhood development corporations.
- "A change of attitude towards the concept of 'pigeon-hole' zoning and with this change a wider provision of mixed land uses that return to our cities the richness of, say, the medieval town.
- "A change in the belief that man cannot function in modern conditions without the private car.
- "A change in the opinion that work has to be performed in one spot—the large office center—on the part of large institutions.
- "The emergence of publicly motivated leadership as a vital element in future development programs.
- "A requisite for superior design of buildings based on total lifecycle costs and impacts by private financial institutions.
- "New local level public/private development strategies directly involving the community in development decisions."

The jury also addressed itself to future HUD awards programs, suggesting that they (and, by indirection, other awards programs) should be broadened further.

"This jury viewed itself as having crossed, for now, a bridge between product-focused judgment and process-focused judgment. Although design process may be of no particular interest to a building user—living processes and daily management are most vital—far too often what gets built never gets thought through first in terms of the user. Design research is such today that we cannot say precisely what any specific design will mean in the experience of a user. We believe, nevertheless, that steps can be taken to avoid repeated failures, or mediocrity or simple lack of common sense when we build and rebuild in our cities.

"Though a proportion of the entries did have a multiple base for their evaluation, the level of environmental design practice reflected in this year's entries was far behind the literature and resources of the field. The jury found that few dealt explicitly with the elements of process called for in the entry form. Responsive in this way or not, the great mass of materials we examined drew us to the unanimous conclusion that future programs must deal with 'how' as much as, if not more than, with 'what.' This therefore summarizes our views on future awards entries:

- "They must recognize the interdisciplinary nature of environmental design. Product design entries should not be confined to intuitive statements, but should be informed by other forms of knowledge and methodology.
- "They must explicitly address issues of process, context and product, and completed projects should address issues of user satisfaction, indicating a user evaluation process.
- "They cannot be based on the mere presentation of products—on facade photography, for example. Unsubstantiated intuitive design is not sufficient any more. One should know the intention to help judge the results.
- "HUD should be able to employ the entries as a tool for its own edification by preliminary review assignments to its local offices. Significant entries, awarded or not, should become case study subjects. HUD offices should also encourage their successful clients to enter the awards competition.
- "HUD should use the awards system to encourage better projects in the future. Thus, HUD must integrate its awards into project and program decision-making at the federal and local levels. This means more publicity, better exposure of the substance of awarded entries, better feedback to designers, developers and officials of successful approaches accomplished around the nation."

HUD has contracted with the AIA Research Corporation to counsel it on the direction that future awards programs should take. This year's winners, in fact, were announced following an environmental design evaluation workshop conducted by the corporation at AIA headquarters.

On the following pages is a sampling of this year's winners in the urban design category. *Donald Canty*

The 1974 Winners

MANAGEMENT APPROACHES

Charles Center-Inner Harbor Management, Baltimore.
A 30-year redevelopment program around the city's inner harbor, being implemented by a partnership between the city and the private sector. Required was the innovative use of a special corporation charged with both planning and implementation.
Urban design/planning/ architecture: Wallace, McHarg, Roberts & Todd, Philadelphia.
Clients: Charles Center-Inner Harbor Management Inc., Greater Baltimore Committee, Department of Housing & Community Development, City of Baltimore.

Decatur Rapid Transit Impact Study, Decatur, Ga.
The city and local citizenry worked in a compressed time frame with an interdisciplinary urban design team to make immediate and major decisions affecting the impact of three new rapid transit stations. The "charrette" approach focused on options and stimulated the public decisions required before major choices were lost.
Architects/urban designers: Muldawer & Patterson Associates, Inc., Atlanta.
Client: City of Decatur, Ga.

Edgewood Village, East Lansing, Mich.
With state housing agency cooperation, a high quality residential environment was achieved for low- and moderate-income families. Collaboration was required between nonprofit, private sector and government groups, working with residents of a larger community.
Architects/planners: Rogers/Hammarskjold/ Scurlock, Kalamazoo, Mich.
Owner/client: Village Limited Dividend Housing Association, Southfield, Mich.

New Community Development Management System, Minneapolis.
This effort enabled numerous public decisions to be timed and integrated with the introduction of major privately financed residential redevelopment. The city established a managment and technical infrastructure and a highly flexible procedure to fold in public improvements on an innovative basis.
Planning consultant: Barton-Aschman Associates, Inc., Chicago.
Client: City of Minneapolis.

New Harmony-Historic Preservation Plan, New Harmony, Ind.
A small community, having set a clear goal of architectural conservation, introduced a long-term system of management to realize this goal. The approach is designed to govern the agricultural open space as well as new community development itself.
Urban development and historic preservation consultant: Ralph G. Schwarz, New Harmony, Ind.
Landscape architects: Kane & Carruth, Mt. Kisco, N.Y.
Client: The Town of New Harmony, Ind.

Urban Design Management Approach, Dallas.
Stemming from a citywide goals movement, the need for municipal direction in all aspects of the city's design was institutionalized and financed without compromise. In its two year life, the new agency role of urban design has set a national example.
City urban design team: James M. Schroeder Jr., director of urban planning; Weiming Lu, assistant director of urban planning.
Client: City of Dallas.

Yavapai-Prescott Comprehensive Plan, Prescott, Ariz.
Tribal council initiative was taken to assure the harnessing of the federal and state agency assistance programs, adapting these to unique social and cultural needs.
Planner: Office of Economic Planning & Development, State of Arizona, Dennis N. Thompson, chief.
Client: Yavapai-Prescott Tribe.

URBAN DESIGN CONCEPTS

Cedar Square West, Minneapolis (*see* page 33).

Kauai General Plan, Kauai, Hawaii.
The jury found this to be the most exemplary presentation received this year. Starting from broad state land use considerations, the document works down to levels of specific design recommendations in a clearly described and illustrated sequence that is appropriately inclusive of all relevant factors.
Planner/landscape architect: EDAW, Inc., Honolulu.
Client: County of Kauai Planning Commission.

New Hunters Point Community Master Plan, San Francisco. (*see* page 26).

Rapid Creek Flood Disaster, Rapid City, S.D.
After two tragic floods, a comprehensive urban open space and relocation program was introduced that creates an integrating social and physical seam out of a former barrier to a small metropolitan core area.
Urban research/planning/design consultants: THK Associates, Inc., Denver.
Client: Rapid City Urban Renewal Department.

White Plains Central Renewal Project, White Plains, N.Y.
The comprehensive design analysis, excellent automobile-pedestrian separation, articulation of the spine plan, the use of an intermixture of governmental and private buildings, a well defined transportation hierarchy and a resulting physical design that was pleasing made this a top entry.
Architects/landscape architects/urban & ecological planners: Wallace, McHarg, Roberts & Todd, Philadelphia.
Client: White Plains Urban Renewal Agency.

Works of Art-Golden Gateway, San Francisco (*see* page 29).

PROJECT DESIGN

Charles River Park Synagogue, Boston.
The design combines a pleasing exterior treatment with an imaginative use of natural lighting to produce a warm interior. The architect worked with the congregation to blend their desire for tradition with modern design. This is an example of how a government urban renewal program can provide a product of cultural value.
Architect/landscape architect/interior designer: Childs Bertram Tseckares Associates, Inc., Boston.

Harbor View Homes Rehabilitation, Duluth, Minn.
A successful rehabilitation of an exceptionally bad housing design. Exterior spaces ranging from private to public were created replacing the previously undifferentiated site plan. Exterior treatment of the buildings added an important element of texture and visual amenity to otherwise undistinguished buildings.
Architects: Damberg & Peck Architects, Inc., Duluth, Minn.
Owner: Duluth Housing Authority.

Heritage Sound, Milford, Conn.
Cited for the owner's involvement of residents in continuing maintenance and management. The developer/designer team did well on the site arrangements to provide privacy in a dense mix of townhouses and middle-rise housing
Architects: Carrell McNulty Jr., Weston, Conn.; Robert Steinmetz, AIA, Wilton, Conn.
Owner/builder: Heritage Development Group, Inc., Southbury, Conn.

The Greenery, Campbell, Calif.
A carefully detailed residential complex with sensitive use of materials and good site development. The needs of children in a medium density development were given special attention.
Architects: Fisher-Friedman Associates, San Francisco.
Owner: Hamilton Associates, Burlingame, Calif.

Water Filtration Plant, Andover, Mass.
A straightforward solution to a strictly utilitarian design problem. The facility achieves technical purposes without cost to the quality of its semiurban setting.
Architects: Jung/Brannen Associates Inc., Boston.
Owner: Town of Andover, Mass.

SPECIAL MENTION AWARDS

Fire Station Playlot, Chicago.
This very modest project creates a strong urban design symbol of community out of the common fire house and a retired fire engine. Children's play is enhanced by the supervision of local firemen.
Architect: Jerome R. Butler Jr., AIA (city architect).
Owner: City of Chicago, Department of Public Works.

Everett Community Plan, Everett, Wash.
An innovative charrette approach to community involvement in physical planning with an emphasis on raising public awareness of issues. The jury was disappointed that a broad-based decision-making management team was not an outgrowth of the initial program.
Environmental planners/designers: Lawrence Halprin & Associates, San Francisco.
Planning Consultants: Livingston & Blayney, San Francisco.
Client: City of Everett, Wash.

Open Space and Parkland Plan, Santa Cruz, Calif.
This entry was lacking in several areas as an urban design product, but the analysis and presentation of natural resource components and distribution of open space resources have been dealt with in a complete and exemplary fashion.

San Antonio Urban Design Mechanisms Study, San Antonio, Tex.
This represents a rare conceptualization of how to fit interdisciplinary environmental design capabilities into a municipal government. The jury regrets that the city has not as yet responded and commends the American Society of Planning Officials for its publication of these concepts.
Prepared by: Skidmore, Owings & Merrill, San Francisco.
Client: City of San Antonio, Tex.

Sign Controls, Evansville, Ind.
This entry is a competent variation upon the theme of urban design enhancement through graphics. A choice was made to reduce the impact of signage in order to strengthen the spaciousness of a public mall.
Architects: Condict & Fosse, Evansville, Ind.
Client: Evansville Redevelopment Commission.

Woodlands, Conroe, Tex.
The entry is one element judged out of its social and economic contexts. As a technical guide for site planning and ecological considerations, it is of textbook quality.
Architects/landscape architects/planners: Wallace, McHarg, Roberts & Todd, Philadelphia.
Urban design consultants: William Pereira & Associates, Houston.
Owner: Woodlands Development Corporation, Houston.

A Hillside Slum Sees to Its Own Transformation

The most ambitious undertaking to receive a 1974 HUD award is the renewal of San Francisco's Hunters Point neighborhood, now in its seventh year. The Hunters Point effort aims at no less than turning a slum-ghetto into a functioning community, with all of the breadth of physical and social improvement programs that such a goal implies, plus all of the design consciousness that a colleague of Frank Lloyd Wright's could be expected to impart.

He is Aaron Green, FAIA, of San Francisco and he was chosen for the task by the residents of Hunters Point themselves. The fact is characteristic of the kind of role that the residents have played throughout the endeavor.

The HUD jury termed it "a thorough and aggressive approach to solving the most critical problems in city design" and noted that "local citizen involvement was central to the decision-making of the many agencies involved."

It is appropriate, then, to let a community leader give a progress report on the effort here. She is Mrs. Elouise Westbrook, chairman of the Bayview-Hunters Point joint housing committee, and she initially delivered this report to a San Francisco hearing of the U.S. Senate committee on banking, housing and urban affairs in April 1973. It was a time when the programs of most HUD and other domestic agencies were in a state of near-suspension. Mrs. Westbrook:

"San Francisco is a beautiful city as you all know.

"But nobody visits the part of San Francisco where I come from—Hunters Point.

"Some day a lot of people will. Because some day soon it is going to be one of the most beautiful parts of San Francisco.

"But only you gentlemen can make it happen.

"Nobody else can.

"Forgive me, please, if I take just 10 minutes of your time telling you about my own little neighborhood of Hunters Point.

"Because I think my neighborhood is typical of hundreds and maybe even thousands of Hunters Points throughout the country.

"We're 20 percent of the way of turning a rocky hillside of rundown shacks into an entirely new environment—

"A new environment of shiny housing, parks and schools and child care centers for our kids, playgrounds, shopping and community centers—

"Everything, in other words, that makes the difference between living and just existing—that makes the difference between a real neighborhood and just a lot of houses.

"You have to see the job that's been done so far to believe it.

"And when you see the new housing, you've got to pinch yourself to make sure you're not dreaming—it's so beautiful.

"You know, I happen to still live in one of those old wartime Navy barracks that some government investigators condemned as 'unlivable' way back in 1948.

"I live there on purpose, because I'm not going to move into one of the new houses across the street until the entire redevelopment job is done. . . .

"Maybe some of you remember back in 1966 when a lot of people said you could never rebuild Hunters Point.

"That was after we had our famous so-called 'riot.'

"Well, I think we have proved a lot of people wrong.

"For the last five, six years that whole community where I come from has worked long and hard with the federal government, with HUD, with the city and with the redevelopment agency—and together —*all of us together*—and we have proved a lot of people wrong.

"When we started out with the rebuilding and the federal government and HUD got together with us on it, I looked at those first contracts.

"They didn't say President Lyndon B. Johnson or President Anybody Else—they said the United States of America was entering into that contract with us.

"And that, gentlemen, is why I think

The photo shows three generations of Hunters Point housing: in the foreground the aging original stock; behind it some of the first-stage redevelopment construction; at top right surviving examples of the wartime barracks that formerly lined the hillside. Above the photo, a rendering of the master plan for renewal.

it would be immoral and unethical and maybe even illegal for anyone in Washington to walk away from that bargain we all made in good faith many years ago.

"Besides, I think it's been a good bargain all around.

"Please listen to what we have all been able to do together so far at the *New* Hunters Point:

- "350 attractive, modern new homes built or under construction
- "300 more ready to start—but now threatened by the housing moratorium
- "Three beautiful child care centers completed—but now threatened by HEW cuts
- "A new $4 million school under construction
- "A big new community center completed
- "A $1-million new water system underway by the city
- "And a $500,000 investment by the city in new parks.

"All this has been done so far and done well—and yet, *despite its own successful $35-million federal investment so far, the Administration now proposes to turn its back and walk away.*

"This is what the federal government would now abandon:

- "1,250 more homes
- "The tearing down of 600 of those wartime shacks, like the one I live in
- "A new shopping center
- "The parks, recreation areas, another school, some new churches
- "In fact, all of those thing that would make us a complete and *proud* and healthy new neighborhood.

"Please don't get me wrong.

"I'm proud of Hunters Point right now—and I always have been.

"From my sometimes broken hillside window, I get a beautiful view of downtown San Francisco.

"You know, I've got a big panoramic view of the city that's even fit for a President—and I sometimes wish the President would come and see it for himself.

"In fact, since I know he likes chicken, I'd even cook him a special down home chicken recipe if he'd come look through my barrack's window sometime, *anytime*.

"For that window also overlooks the promise of a new and even prouder neighborhood—one that all of San Francisco, all of the Bay Area and all of California and the nation will be proud of.

"Today, that bright promise appears shattered—and hopeless once again for so many of us at Hunters Point.

"That's why I ask you, please help us. You're our best hope.

"Thank you very, very much."

Hunters Point has had its ups and downs at the hands of the federal government since Mrs. Westbrook spoke. In fiscal year 1972-73, it received a total of $6.6 million in federal funds. In the next fiscal year, as Mrs. Westbrook feared, the total plummeted to $3.8 million.

This fiscal year, however, the city put some of its revenue-sharing money into the community and Hunters Point had received $4.9 million in direct and indirect federal aid by the end of the first half. Architect/planner: Aaron G. Green, San Francisco. Client: San Francisco Redevelopment Agency. □

A Renewal Project as a Stage for Art

Another San Francisco winner in the urban design category was the Golden Gateway redevelopment project for its use of works of art. The jury was unrestrained and almost poetic in its praise of the effort, saying, "The combination of courage in art selection, determination in the implementation, and imagination of concept make this entry stand by itself."

Golden Gateway, 51 acres of apartments, offices, shops and open spaces that replaced a declining produce market on San Francisco's storied waterfront, resulted from one of the most celebrated urban renewal competitions of the late 1950s. A condition of the competition was that developers devote at least 1 percent of the project cost to works of art.

In Golden Gateway, this money was used not to purchase existing works, but to commission new ones for specific locations. The program extensively involved the local art community and included two competitions for major pieces of sculpture.

Winding throughout Golden Gateway is a pedestrian network of paths and street-spanning bridges linking a wide variety of open spaces, all accessible to the public as well as those who live and work in the adjacent buildings. Knowing of the art program, the architects and landscape architects shaped these spaces as settings for the works and their viewers.

An objective of the art program, in the words of the awards submission, "was to rise above a standard of acceptability in art that meets only the common denominator of public taste.

"Not every piece meets every taste," it continues, "but all have been created by serious and competent artists. . . . As hoped, public discussion—even controversy—has been engendered by the more bold, striking and innovative works."

Credits: Architects/landscape architects, Justin Herman Plaza, Halprin-Ciampi-Bolles. Architects, Maritime Plaza, Skidmore, Owings & Merrill, San Francisco. Architects, Golden Gateway Center, Wurster, Bernardi & Emmons; DeMars & Reay, San Francisco. Architects, Embarcadero Center, John Portman & Associates, Atlanta. Client: San Francisco Redevelopment Agency.

The spaces and sculpture of Golden Gateway: previous page, Willi Guttmann's 'Two Columns with Wedge,' Embarcadero Plaza; below, Henry Moore figure, Maritime Plaza; at right, fountain by Armand Vaillancourt, Herman Plaza; overleaf, Jacques Overhoff bronze, Boston Ship Plaza.

An In-city New Town Stalled by Environmentalists

James Bailey

Cedar Square West in Minneapolis is a bristling, dramatic work of neo-Corbusean architecture, an intricately interconnected complex of 11 buildings rising from four to 40 stories.

But Cedar Square West is other things too: It is the first visible manifestation of the nation's first new town in-town; it is, as such, something of a laboratory of physical and social planning—and it is, currently, in the middle of a battlefield.

Cedar Square West was built as the initial element of Cedar-Riverside new town, scheduled to accommodate 30,000 residents on 340 acres along the west bank of the Mississippi near downtown Minneapolis. Cedar Square West was to be joined by 10 similar complexes over the next two decades to comprise the town.

But now this planned future is much in doubt. An environmentalists' suit has halted all further construction on Cedar-Riverside and the town's financial problems grow more serious with each new day of delay.

The suit essentially represents a conflict between two sets of environmental values. The first set, upon which the design of Cedar Square West and the planning of the new town were based, might be summarized as follows:

The conservation of energy, land and the environment require the development of in-town alternatives to urban sprawl, new living places that provide a variety of choices in dwellings to a variety of social and economic groups.

Such places should be built at the scale of communities, and provided with the services, facilities and amenities to make them such.

Even though only the first unit of the new town, Cedar Square West serves this set of values remarkably well. The 1,299-unit complex contains families of nearly every income level, a variety of shops and stores, a broad range of social and cultural activities, a parking garage and a network of pedestrian walkways, parks and playgrounds.

Over half of the apartments of Cedar Square West are subsidized for families of low- and moderate-income. They are scattered among units for higher-income families in all but one of the 11 buildings.

All income groups, moreover, have available a wide range of apartment types, from walk-up townhouses to two-story maisonettes to tower units.

Along an elevated plaza at the center of the complex are a grocery store and a variety of shops, a daycare center, a health clinic, an amphitheater and a display area for sculpture. Each of the buildings has its own community room where residents participate in a variety of cultural and social pursuits.

An active residents association and religious council are also part of the scene. The residents association, which was formed soon after the first tenants moved in and has as its major purpose the development of a sense of community and neighborliness, publishes a newspaper and sponsors a number of programs. The pastors of several ministries live in Cedar Square West and conduct worship services in the community rooms.

The HUD awards jury, while generally eschewing highrises, "found this vertical residential complex to reflect careful attention and amenities," noting that "ground level settings were introduced with particular care for the needs to establish viable community life."

The contrary set of values was expressed in the suit filed against HUD, Cedar-Riverside's developers and others

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While the future of the town is in doubt, its first element 'has found overwhelming acceptance.'

by a "Cedar-Riverside Environmental Defense Fund." Says the suit:

"The density of the development and its highrise character are both at variance with the low-density general development of this city and thus it represents, *per se,* a radical departure of major significance. Associated with density are well-documented adverse effects on the physiological-social behavior of residents, including increased crime, loss of a sense of community and neighborhood, sense of personal anomie and retarded child development."

In addition to raising the specters of criminals and retarded children, the "defense fund" predicted that the new town would flood the area with traffic and destroy a neighborhood which it termed the Greenwich Village of Minneapolis. A leader of the New Riverside Cafe Collective, a prime mover in the defense fund, said that "this particular neighborhood is an outstanding cultural pocket where a new kind of social culture has developed." He warned, "If this plot of ground is destroyed, the first home of the new culture will be lost."

The federal district court hearing the suit, whose final decision is due at any time, earlier this year directed HUD to conduct an environmental impact study of the project. HUD did not take such a positive view of the existing neighborhood, characterizing it as containing "dilapidated and deteriorating housing, incompatible land uses, inadequate street patterns and industrial sources of pollution."

HUD acknowledged that the new town would create new demands upon city services, increased traffic congestion and other problems, but concluded that it would be superior to the existing conditions and thus have a "positive environmental impact."

By November, Cedar-Riverside's developers were in danger of defaulting on its HUD-guaranteed debentures unless new sources of income, possibly including federal subsidies, could be found. The delays caused by the suit already had prompted staff cuts and increases in rents for Cedar Square West apartments.

Despite the problems of the new town as a whole community, Cedar Square West has found overwhelming acceptance. It is almost completely filled, and some 60 percent of its more than 2,000 residents work in the area or study at one of the three educational institutions, including the University of Minnesota's West Bank Campus, located within the new town site.

The site of Cedar Square West itself was chosen as the first to be developed because of the particularly rundown condition of the housing situated on it. Occupants of the housing were offered equal or better housing within the community at the same rental rate. Of the 125 households that were relocated, only two chose to move outside the area. One house, which contained 17 elderly persons living in communal style, was picked up and moved because no comparable housing could be found in the community.

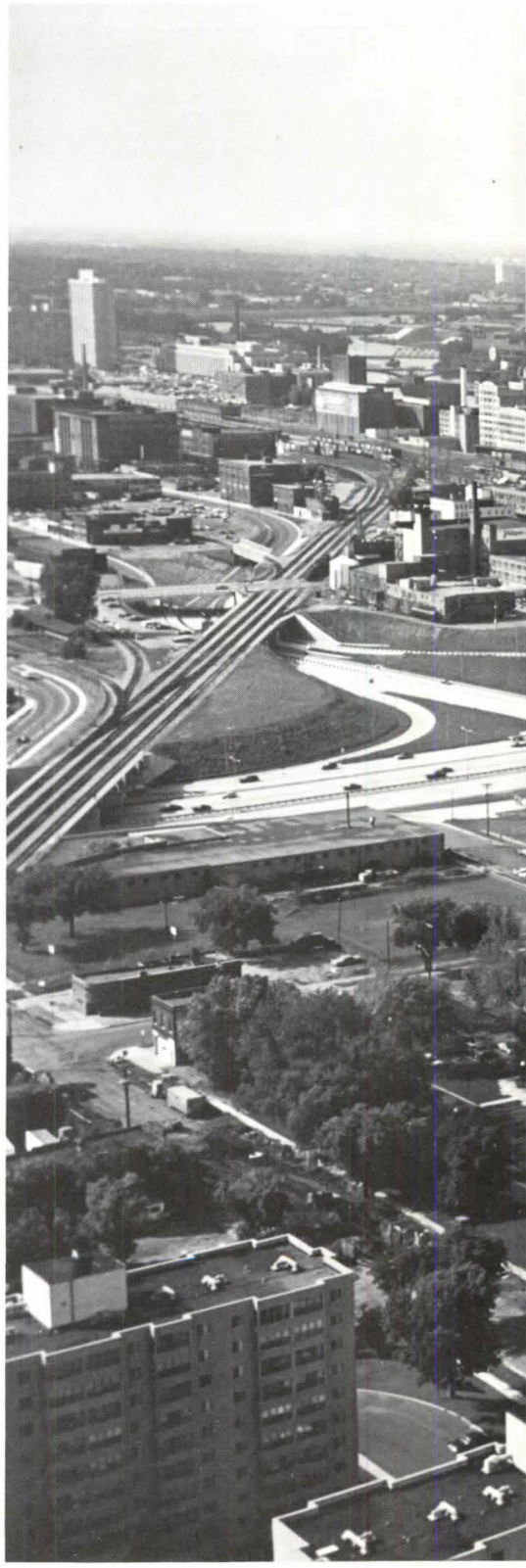
Despite its bigness and high density, Cedar Square West maintains a human scale. Rather than filling its site envelope, its edge is irregular, softened by green spaces and older, lower-density buildings.

The complex is accessible on foot at several levels: on grade; on the central plaza, which forms the roof of the seven-level parking garage; and through skyways. A pedestrian bridge crossing Cedar Avenue connects the project with an older neighborhood bar. It is the first link of a planned community-side pedestrian circulation system that will separate people from cars.

If present plans can be carried out, the pedestrian system will tie in with an automated transit circulation and distribution system that will serve the new town. It will be designed to link with a larger rapid transit system for the Minneapolis-St. Paul metropolitan area.

All of these plans, of course, depend on the court and funding sources, including the same federal government which encouraged Cedar-Riverside's start.

Credits: Architects, Ralph Rapson & Associates, Inc., Gingold-Pink Architecture, Inc., Minneapolis. Environmental planning, Lawrence Halprin & Associates, San Francisco. Environmental design, Sasaki, Walker & Associates, Inc., Sausalito, Calif. Owners, Cedar-Riverside Associates, Inc., Minneapolis. □



Readings from the Report of AIA's Ho

The first major followup study to the 1972 urban growth report of AIA's national policy task force has been completed and approved by the board of directors. It was undertaken by a housing policy task force appointed last year to examine "all issues connected with the production, financing, maintenance and management of housing, with particular reference to the provision of housing for low- and moderate-income families."

Chairman of the task force was David F. M. Todd, FAIA, of New York City, and members were Jeh Vincent Johnson, AIA, of Poughkeepsie, N.Y., Gerald M. McCue FAIA, of San Francisco, city planner Goldie Rivkin of Washington, D. C., home-builder Stanley Waranch of Norfolk, Va., and Dr. Robert C. Weaver, former HUD secretary and now distinguished professor of urban affairs at Hunter College. Staff director for thet task force was M. Carter McFarland and consultant was Hilbert C. Pfefferman.

The task force report will be published in early 1975. The following are excerpts:

The Goal: A Sense of Community

As the nation has moved from confidence in economic growth as the problem solver into a period of uncertainty and confusion, goals must be examined in qualitative terms rather than as numerical objectives. Without underlying agreement as to the moral basis of goals, targets may become meaningless. "Decent shelter" must be defined and freedom of choice must be offered within the context of fairness to all.

The conditions of the mid-1970s raise a host of questions regarding national values and priorities, the allocation of resources, and affluence and poverty. We can anticipate growth in population and in new family formation, but not necessarily proportionate economic growth. Factors that in the past could be counted on to solve most social problems, through economic expansion or through advocacy by pressure groups, may not serve us today. Although the traditional marketplace has served most of us reasonably well, we now have a growing recognition that priorities and allocations must be made in such a way as to be to everyone's benefit, even while recognizing that greater needs exist for some than for others.

The marketplace has historically been the great leveller in bringing the house, the family and the production process close together, psychologically as well as physically. The marketplace implies, of course, freedom of choice. It also implies many different viewpoints as to what is "good." The easy solution, and the tempting one, is to allow the marketplace to govern in all situations, or, to put it another way, to do nothing. In that sense, everyone is being treated in the same way. When the size of the marketplace shrinks, however, when hostility restricts mobility, when the goods are just not available, or when standards become inflexible, the "decent home in a suitable living environment" is in danger of becoming a hypocritical promise.

At the same time that expansionist traditions of America are being called into question, we have experienced the cruel collision of national values on the subject of race. One of the most damaging aspects of the present urban situation is the excessive concentration of the poor and deprived in the central core of our cities. This situation is as much the product of racial discrimination as it is of the economics of poverty. The suburban stranglehold reflects a condition that has to be faced in the development of any national housing policy.

America considers itself, at least in principle, an open society in which all members can pursue their own goals freely. Housing policy on a national level must be designed to further this aim. The problems are by no means limited to issues of race and poverty. The issues of freedom of choice affect all. Some like high densities, some don't; some like commuting, some hate it. If one group is deprived, we believe all are deprived. If the deprivation stems from a general economic dislocation, that is one thing. If it derives from racial discrimination, that is another thing. The question then arises: Does this mean the deliberate dispersion of blacks, other minorities and the poor into the so-called middle American mainstream? The answer is both yes and no. From the point of view of America's minorities, integration of social life, per se, is not necessarily the immediately compelling goal, but as a long-range goal, it must be an unchallenged part of national housing policy.

The objectives of most of America's ethnic, religious and racial minorities are a better life, more stable and attractive communities, and free choice in the pursuit of these objectives. Some believe these ends are best met by dispersing or decentering the ethnic community. Others assert that these ends can best be met by building up, strengthening and developing the ethnic community in its present location. But this is not an either/or issue. Both approaches are required, and they are not mutually inconsistent. The decision cannot be the same for all families, in all places, at all times. Policies, therefore, must be flexible enough to permit both the rebuilding of inner city neighborhoods and the development of new land and new towns. The knowledge that one can move to another location can be more important than whether the move actually takes place.

To understand what housing can bring to the ongoing community, we must first accept what housing cannot do. There has, perhaps, been too much promise for the efficacy of good housing in creating good citizens. Housing as buildings is only the beginning. Housing alone cannot solve problems that people make for themselves, or that other aspects of society impose upon them. In the community that thrives, services are all important. The responsiveness of the landlord to complaints, the availability of carpenters and electri-

ısing Policy Task Force

cians at reasonable prices, and the ground rules of the neighborhood—the firmness with which delinquents are dealt with, the identification of leaders and the familiarity of faces—are likely to be more important than the condition of the structures. The elements that make for community stability are elusive. Each community is different. It may be a whole village, a group of apartment houses, a subdivision or a single city block. It is defined by a state of mind.

Housing and Growth: In January 1972, the AIA's national policy task force published its report on national growth policy, "America at the Growing Edge: A Strategy for Building A Better America." The report was approved by the Institute's board of directors and formally adopted by the AIA at its 1972 Annual Convention. It recommended:

- That the building and rebuilding of American communities be planned and carried out at neighborhood scale and with regard to facilities and services essential to good neighborhoods;
- That the value most to be respected in carrying out this process is the enhancement of free choice as to where and how people of all incomes and races and with varying needs and preferences may live;
- That first concern be given to the condition of those trapped in the poverty and deterioration of older, blighted neighborhoods;
- That changes be made in patterns of neighborhood design, in the ways in which infrastructure and social services are financed, and in governmental institutions, aids and restraints affecting community development—all in order that the physical environment, both natural and man-made, may best meet the varied and changing needs of all segments of society; and
- That special programs be adopted for large metropolitan areas that are most affected by the impact of the forces of rapid growth at their edges and decay at their centers.

This report on housing policy accepts the precepts of the earlier growth report. The task force has been charged with the responsibility of translating the broad strategic goals affecting housing into specific mechanisms of attainment. In accepting both the precept and the charge, the task force has chosen to consider housing as itself a major resource, both shaped by and shaper of national growth policy. In this context, the report's purpose is to identify the economic, political and moral concerns that affect housing policy and to suggest some directions for their accommodation.

Our overriding interest is in good communities, which nourish a feeling of well being and security. If we are to have such communities, it is essential that we have a national housing policy and that it be effective. □

Needs: The Numbers

The evidence is clear that past federal housing programs have contributed substantially to the well being of the nation, particularly in meeting quantitative goals. There exists, nevertheless, acute deprivation and the expectation that shortages and dislocations will get worse, rather than better, unless coherent policies are adopted and carried out. The people and their government—at all levels—have a mutual responsibility to recognize that housing is a critical resource.

The condition of the nation's housing has broad implications for the larger social and environmental systems, even beyond the desirable goal of the good community itself. For over four decades, national policies have developed in response to separate concerns. Beginning in 1930s, housing production was seen both as a means of furthering the welfare of poor people and as a spur to the economy. Until fairly recently, each such concern had a separate focus. Similarly, slum clearance programs have had conflicting objectives, sometimes with lip service being paid to one concern—such as better housing—but with the real interest somewhere else—such as reuse of land for economically productive purposes. Unfortunately, housing has also been the sacrificial victim in attempts to control inflation simply because it offers the least line of resistance to available controls, primarily monetary. The emerging broad view of housing as a critical and complex resource therefore calls for a policy that takes account of the separate and interrelated concerns, recognizing that they are not necessarily mutually supporting. They frequently involve conflicts and trade-offs among and between them. Housing needs should become the central focus of such policy. Such a policy would go beyond historical targets into issues of conservation of natural resources, environmental protection and equal opportunity in choice of settlement and in access to employment.

Housing data can be read both optimistically and pessimistically. The record of past performance may not tell us much about the future. To look back over the past decades is to see that remarkable progress has indeed been made. Yet complacency is shattered if we look hard at how much yet remains to be done; at the persistence of old problems and the emergence of stubborn new problems.

As for evidence of past progress, we can note that each decennial census after the 1940 census has shown a marked decline in the percentage of households living in substandard housing. This percentage has dropped from 48.6 percent in 1940, to 35.4 percent in 1950; 16 percent in 1960; and 7.4 percent in 1970. Crowding dropped from 9 percent to 2 percent over the same period (if crowding is defined as more than 1.5 persons per room); and those doubled up with another family dropped from 6.8 percent to 1.5 percent. During this period, the percentage of owner-occupied units has risen from 43.6 percent to 62.9 percent. Although there is justification for taking satisfaction in this data, there are no grounds for complacency.

1) The high rate of past progress is accounted for partly by the low base against which measurements have been taken—namely, the period of the Depression of the 1930s and of World War II. The problems that remain are likely to be less tractable, even at best. For example, at the same time that ground is being gained through the elimination of housing units that lack customary items of plumbing, ground is being lost by increasing dilapidation. Although much of this loss is traceable to recent deterioration of entire neighborhoods in older central cities, the Census Bureau reports that the number of dilapidated units with all plumbing has actually risen between 1960 and 1970 in all areas, including rural areas and metropolitan areas outside central city cores. There will, in all likelihood, be a substantial lessening in the rate at which substandard housing is reduced during the 1970s.

2) Substandard housing even at 7.4 percent means that in 1970 4.74 million American households were still living in housing that was either dilapidated or lacking in one or more of the usual items of plumbing. People who live in such housing during periods of general national prosperity take little comfort from knowing that the percentage was once much higher.

3) The standard by which progress has been measured is crude. If varied forms of housing deprivation are taken into consideration, as discussed below, we find that about one out of every five American families is suffering from a serious housing problem.

4) Gross national statistics hide as much as they reveal. The burden represented by continued occupancy of substandard housing, of course, falls primarily on the poor, and it falls—inequitably and with crushing weight—on racial minorities, on the old and on the inhabitants of rural areas which have not shared in the nation's economic progress. Those trapped in the slums of old central cities perhaps carry the heaviest burden because not only their housing but their total environment is bad. These same groups also suffer different and sometimes more traumatic forms of hardship (nowhere reflected in the favorable statistics) when they are uprooted by actions that either destroy their substandard homes or rehabilitate them for occupancy by others.

5) Housing problems transcend deficiencies in individual units of shelter and must be viewed in relation to broader problems of neighborhoods, communities and regions. The national or local statistic, which tells us that there has been a decrease in the number of occupied substandard units, fails to tell us how many of those units should have been saved (along with the economically depressed community in which they were located) or how many of them have been abandoned and are contributing in their unoccupied state to the destruction of a central city neighborhood that should be rehabilitated.

6) New pressures on the availability and cost of financing, land, energy, transportation and public facilities and services have resulted in a recent, drastic reduction of housing production. Widening segments of the population, extending well into middle-income levels, are being priced out of the market for new homes. At the same time, persons of modest, fixed incomes—especially the elderly—are being threatened in the continued occupancy of their homes by rising property taxes and the rising costs of utilities, fuel and repair and maintenance.

Needs: The People

The requirements of the people who use housing, both renters and homeowners, should be distinguished from the interests of others who develop, manage and finance housing. As development becomes more complex, users have insufficient opportunity to affect the decisions which control housing. In order to improve the usefulness of housing in the U.S., we must better understand the consumer's needs, and we must seek means for representing these needs in decisions about housing. Housing involves sensibilities as well as shelter.

The quality of the living environment, both neighborhood and dwelling, is a major influence on the lives of our citizens. Yet only small segments of the public have broad options in selecting their own living environment. Whether seeking a rental apartment or a house for sale, the consumer does not have as much opportunity of choice as in selecting other products. For, although rent or house payments constitute the major expenditure for most households, the available variations in type of living accommodations are relatively limited. There are several reasons for this situation. First, there is not a sufficiently open market to permit free choice; and second, almost all decisions about housing are made by others than the consumer.

The fixed conditions which establish the feasible alternatives placed upon the market emerge from a team that never meets. The parameters imposed result in an averaging of issues, so that regardless of good intentions by some, the housing products available to the consumer tend toward sameness. Also, because private housing must be profitable to succeed, decisions about first cost and available market must dominate other considerations.

In both public and private housing, the primary decision-making authority resides with those who have an interest in housing as an investment vehicle or business opportunity. It is not surprising then that the public receives a product which is more a reflection of the financial considerations that affect its production and operation and the bureaucratic limitations imposed by legislative edict, than of the functional specifications and esthetic preferences of the consumers who spend their lives in its shelter.

In past years, architects and planners in many parts of the world have come to recognize their potential role as spokesman for the ultimate consumer of housing. These professions have led in the efforts

to articulate more specific definitions of user needs; more sensitive programmatic criteria which, if incorporated in new housing, would make it more useful and adaptable. It is now reasonable, therefore, to expect that the architect will endeavor to include in his designs those elements which make housing both more useful and attractive. But architects are still by and large operating on intuition and from an incomplete data base. Our knowledge of valid user needs is sketchy; preliminary findings have been based upon insufficient scepticism. Many should be challenged as being more conjecture than fact, and as reflecting a bias as to what the public should have, rather than needs or wants.

If we are to improve the quality of the living environment in the U.S., we must set as our goal the production of housing which is both responsive to the needs of the immediate users and the ultimate needs of the community. In the past, national housing programs have considered the soundness of the building, of its structure, finishes and mechanical services, as the measure of its adequacy largely to the exclusion of other factors. We must now evaluate the adequacy of housing in terms of its overall suitability and usefulness in supporting a healthy living environment.

The consumer's needs from housing are two kinds: physical and psychological. The physical needs are for a structure that provides adequate environmental control to insure physiological comfort and for a convenient and useful space for habitation. Psychological needs relate to our sense of safety, privacy, social environment and self-determination. Perhaps most subtle of all are the psychological needs of satisfaction through an esthetic appreciation of the environment and a sense of achievement and fulfillment.

In order to improve our nation's living environment, we must set as our goal the achievement of the full range of user needs. It is not enough that people should emerge from substandard conditions merely to live in structurally "sound" boxes with plumbing. But our awareness of the need for better living environments comes at a time when we face increased costs for land, raw materials and labor. We must now recognize the reality that a better living environment cannot mean bigger, more lavish homes. Instead, the nation must face a reduction in the amount of land and material which can be devoted to each dwelling unit.

The Prospects of Satisfaction

Projections of housing production based on past conditions of capital flow, interest rates, availability of land and political consent can be seriously questioned in estimating house production over the next decade. An increasing gap in the ability of families to pay for new housing, combined with conflict over land use and the needs of environmental protection, introduce variables that reduce the predictability of future performance.

Demand for new housing from those who can afford it would be strong during this decade—always assuming, of course, that there would be no major and persistent falling off either in the economy as a whole or in the supply of mortgage credit. If, in addition, the nation resumes its efforts to better the lot of those whose low incomes require them to live in inadequate or overcrowded housing, the level of construction activity for the remainder of the decade would be higher still.

In many localities, pressures against new housing construction are being generated by opponents of development—some motivated by a desire to preserve the natural environment, others by a desire to exclude their fellow citizens on the basis of race or income. Clearly then, clashes between proponents and opponents of development will inevitably continue to occur in many localities throughout this decade. In the absence of informed governmental leadership at the federal, state and local levels, the outcome for the public interest will in many instances be the result of mindless chance.

Appropriate land use becomes the focal point of pressure and counter pressure—particularly in and on the fringes of the metropolitan areas where housing needs will be greatest in the foreseeable future. Although we have no real shortage of land in the U.S. today, a variety of phenomena are converging to create an effective shortage for low- and moderate-income housing. Many suburban and outlying areas, which welcome new higher-cost homes, exclude lower-cost housing through zoning and subdivision controls. Higher income families are likewise excluded from some suburban localities that refuse to expand, or that delay expanding, the public facilities required to accommodate growth.

The spirit of distrust and the fear of change that motivate the residents of many localities to oppose further development are reinforced by an increasingly general concern that our natural environment and our finite resources are threatened by population growth and by economic and urban development.

The Rockefeller task force on environmental quality describes the "new mood" in America. While the ultimate expression of this new mood has not yet taken shape, it will surely prevent housing development from returning to its previous status. There will be delays and studies, rejected proposals, removal of land from the potential residential supply and increased competition for the well-located remaining sites suitable for urban uses. All will contribute to increasing land costs.

The rising share of land cost, in proportion to total housing cost, is but one part of the problem. It is politically difficult to gain acceptance of large-scale planned developments, particularly of new towns. This compounds the preexisting obstacles to assembling land parcels of sufficient size and to securing the necessary financing for advance planning and preparation.

The price of public investment to support residential development has escalated. Rising standards of environmental quality and stringent enforcement measures demand increasing planning efforts in the fields of solid waste management, waste

water collection and treatment, and mass transportation, among others. Along with this comes increased public attention to the major decisions involved in these matters and a growing insistence upon accountability of the decision maker. Perhaps the end result will be greater efficiency and a better product. There is the lurking danger, however, that under the close scrutiny and challenge of numerous citizen groups, the processes of local government, instead of becoming more orderly, and efficient, may be brought to the point of a virtual standstill.

The Conditions of Satisfaction

Housing costs are high and may be abnormally higher than other necessities. Costs are made up of many parts, not just brick and mortar. Land, as a significant element of cost, can no longer be squandered as an abundant resource, but must be viewed as a precious commodity whose use must be guided for the benefit of all. Similarly, past standards, designed to invoke rising aspirations toward an assumed middle class norm, need reconsideration. The role of government is crucial.

The gap between the economic cost of housing and ability to pay has been the hole that most housing policies have tried to plug. Subsidies have been granted grudgingly, and generally in a welfare context. The general public, along with most legislators, has hoped that through some technological cleverness, the need for subsidies could be substantially reduced. Popular assumption has it that the major answer to the housing "problem" lies in the reduction of the cost of producing new housing. This usually focuses on the brick and mortar costs. Popular remedies are directed at such targets as unimaginative design, restrictive trade practices, archaic building codes, unnecessary quality standards and "rip-off" service fees.

Experience also points to high interest rates, land speculation and high property taxes as being major contributors to the high cost of housing. All these things do contribute to housing costs. Each should be examined on its merits. Some are more manageable than others, and some more significant than others. One group addresses itself to first costs and a second group to carrying charges. Taken together they constitute the matrix of housing costs —culminating in the monthly charge to the consumer.

We frequently hear that prefabricated construction, or some new systems approach, will solve the housing "problem" by substantial reductions in initial cost. It is clear that efforts should be made to reduce initial cost. It is not obvious, however, what realistic opportunities exist in this approach. We can look at what might be done if labor unions were less restrictive and building codes more rational. Those trades most affected by restrictive labor practices and archaic codes probably constitute less than 50 percent of total construction costs. This suggests that even if major savings were effected in each of these trades, the impact on the monthly payment would not be much more than a healthy dent. A 20 percent saving in such trades would probably have something less than a 5 percent effect on the monthly bill. The search for such savings is well worthwhile, nonetheless, since they are at least potentially controllable. Such a search, however, should be combined with a search for lower costs everywhere, including operating and maintenance costs.

These observations suggest that brick and mortar costs are only a part of the problem. While they constitute the largest element and, therefore, need constant scrutiny and discipline, they cannot be manipulated through clever devices or technology to provide very large cost reductions. Panaceas do not exist—in any aspect of housing. Perhaps the areas of cost which are more amenable to policy control are taxes, the mortgage terms, the land costs and how it is spread, and standards. The direction that cost analysis must take is to view the entire interrelated complex of costs. The actual "bottom line" is the monthly rent to the tenant or the equivalent periodic rental cost to the owner. But in the long view, costs must be measured in terms of the value received and the soundness of the original investment. The adequacy of the physical plan, the financial plan and the management plan—all affect the economic life of the housing and its ultimate cost.

Land acquisition and development is very much a part of the cost problem. In the Department of Housing and Urban Development's recent report "Housing in the Seventies," the view is expressed that the trend toward high residential land costs is unlikely to be reversed. The report refers to the fact that land for housing in expanding metropolitan areas tends to become available slowly, and that this tendency is likely to be strengthened by a continuation of environmental controls and of "no growth" policies. In recognition of such trends, the "Plan for Urban Growth" of the AIA national policy task force recommends such bold measures as massive public acquisition of land in the areas of likely future development.

In the context of land "control" lies the problem of land taxation. This report does not attempt to argue the merits of land tax reform, except to reiterate that the property tax is regressive and often contrary to sound land use objectives when utilized as the principal source of municipal revenue. We also observe that tax policy, when dominated by planning as opposed to revenue considerations, can become a very powerful tool in controlling land use.

The unresolved issues of land use, property taxes and urban distress in general have brought about such programs as revenue sharing, both for general state and local expenses and for community development. In turn, the mutual obligations of the local, state and federal levels become crucial. Besides securing the essential flow of capital into housing, which cannot be delegated below the federal level, a successful housing policy involves land, material, finance or the public infrastructure, and community services.

Budgetary limitations on federal spend-

ing are but one constraint on federal action in these other problem areas. Legal restrictions and administrative difficulties have also served to limit direct federal action in implementing national housing policy at the local level. Consequently, we have relied very heavily on private entrepreneurs, responding to federally-provided economic incentives to organize the housing production process and on local governments to provide the necessary support facilities—usually following the initiatives of private enterprise. This approach is inadequate to assure equitable distribution of housing related to national needs.

Investments in the public works that support housing are required ever-larger scale and must cope with growing cost. It is more important than ever before to establish efficient relationships between the timing and location of public works and patterns of housing development. These essentials of community development are also outside the scope of activities that can be performed well by either the federal government or market forces alone. The record of efforts at interagency coordination in these areas has rarely been highlighted by great success; and the process of development as we have known it—regulatory efforts notwithstanding—has produced only infrequent examples of orderly relationships. If long range goals are to be set and met, the private sector can no longer be the lone housing proponent in the local arena. For local government to continue to sit as a passive referee in adversary proceedings between builders or between the construction industry and citizens advocates of the status quo, especially when cynicism and fear prevail, is irresponsible. We need leadership, guidance and support of national housing policy at the level where important community development decisions must be made. If state and regional bodies are to have the key roles in environmental protection, then these levels, too, must have their housing proponents lest important decisions be made without due regard for the needs of future urban settlement.

Initiative has been demonstrated by a few state and local public bodies, particularly the New York State Urban Development Corporation in acquiring and developing strategic tracts of land for housing.

While this report does not advocate that agency as necessarily the model for other states to follow, it does recognize the example set by it for planning excellence and for a willingness to accept responsibility for a wide range of complex issues. State and local agencies, however, need the back-up of national purposes as expressed by the Congress and the President.

The federal government can make housing policy, set national targets, identify unmet needs, develop programs for providing the essential funding, but it cannot do everything. It is removed from the local markets in which housing is produced. It cannot determine the specific combinations of programs likely to be most effective in a given place. The federal government can write guidelines for administration of its programs, but it cannot take the initiative in applying them.

Difficult questions arise with respect to the appropriate role of the states. The task force recommends placing gradually increasing accountability for implementing national policy at the state level. At the present time, a rapid move in this direction might prove to be a backward step in view of the unsatisfactory record of state legislatures in facing up to their responsibilities with respect to urban centers. The fear of the oligarchic legislature may prevent the desirable loosening of federal detailed standards and bureaucratic control. The danger is that the opportunity for reasonable balance and identification of responsibility will be lost. Over the long pull, there is perhaps no option but to advocate a gradual shift of responsibility for carrying out the basic programs from federal to state level, assuming appropriate steps are taken to build the necessary state institutions; to assure adequate regional land planning across state lines; and to assure a seriousness of purpose at the state level with respect to the achievement of all basic national objectives.

The Subsidy Issues

The nation has accepted over the years the concept of housing subsidies. The controversies have been over the type and depth of the subsidy system. Questions of fairness and effectiveness have dominated the debates, along with the search for administrative efficiency and new formulas and new techniques to supersede the old. The arguments of those who advocate "demand" versus "supply" and "deep" versus "shallow" subsidies sharpened the search for policy.

[At this point the report summarizes the running debate of the early 1970s as to the effectiveness of existing and past subsidy programs, and in particular the question of whether subsidies aimed at increasing the supply of housing should be replaced by others aimed at increasing effective demand through direct cash allowances to lower-income families.]

Demand-oriented advocacy: This side argued that money payments to persons of low income permit the recipients greater freedom of choice than is likely under supply-oriented housing subsidy programs. The latter offer occupancy in housing units specially built for persons of low income in places and at times largely determined by program administrators.

The advocates of cash subsidies also argued that their proposals serve the goal of equity or fairness since money could be more readily and widely distributed on the basis of need, whereas housing production subsidies frequently resulted in mismatching the unit and the occupant. They emphasized the claim that only a minority of the poor had ever been housed in the new units, and that some who had been so housed were better off than persons whose somewhat higher incomes made them ineligible for any aid. Another source of inequity was alleged to result

from the fact that the housing production programs were unevenly distributed among neighborhoods, localities and regions, whereas money subsidies could, it was claimed, be more equitably distributed geographically. Finally, the advocates of money subsidies also argued that their proposals were less costly because of greater reliance on existing housing and greater incentives given to the beneficiaries of the program to exercise their own best efforts in finding the best possible housing for the money placed at their disposal.

Supply-oriented advocacy: Those holding this position contended that it would be many years before a national income maintenance plan could be debated, perfected and enacted by the Congress and then funded and placed in operation. They argued that it was unlikely even then for the level of the total payment to the poor to be set high enough, at least in the early years—if not decades—of the program, to permit the purchase or rental of decent housing after meeting costs of food, clothing, transportation and recreation. Accordingly, they rejected this solution as unachievable in the foreseeable future, regardless of the theoretical merits of its design.

Similar arguments were made with respect to the political acceptability of a national housing allowance program that would provide an adequate level of payments to all families needing subsidies in order to be able to afford decent housing. Opponents of the proposal stated that the very ease with which money payments could be distributed, an advantage claimed by the proponents, would threaten so sudden a budgetary increase that a national program (as distinct from relatively small-scale experimental programs) would be rejected on political and budgetary grounds. Conversely, a program that was more than experimental and less than national would not have the claimed advantage of being equitable.

Quite apart from issues of political achievability, opponents of housing allowance proposals pointed out that the proposals would not be workable in any locality where housing was in short supply. In such locality, the increased demand generated by the housing allowances would inflate the cost of housing not only for the recipients of the allowances, thereby eroding the value of the subsidy, but also for others of the next higher income bracket who would compete for the inadequate supply of modest housing in the locality. The supply of housing, unlike the supply of inexpensive, movable goods, is relative inelastic, and cannot be quickly expanded to meet sudden large increases in demand generated by a housing allowance program. Also, given the distinct possibility that such a program may be first approved and later discontinued or reduced in volume, potential long-term investors in new private housing would not be likely to take risks that depended upon housing allowances that might be ended before their investment could be recouped.

Finally, the advantage of inherent economic efficiency that was claimed for demand-oriented subsidies by virtue of their reliance on the availability of inexpensive housing is, of course, unavailable where such housing does not exist. There is no way in which persons of low income can move into newly built communities, or rapidly growing small communities, or new suburbs, or newly created redevelopment areas, unless they are assisted through subsidies under supply-oriented housing production programs. Nor can those who have been displaced by highways or other public projects be provided in timely fashion with replacement housing in localities where housing vacancies are scarce unless supply-oriented programs with a capacity to anticipate relocation needs are in operation. New construction is also necessary to serve the special needs of the elderly and physically handicapped. In all such cases, the claimed advantages of the demand-oriented subsidy programs are very limited and in most cases illusory.

Arguments also arise between those who would give greater emphasis on deep subsidies for the very poor and those who would give greater emphasis to shallow subsidies for people who need only a relatively small amount of financial aid in order to enable them to move to decent housing. The proponents of deep subsidies contend that it is more equitable to use limited funds for first serving the very poor, while those in favor of shallow subsidies believe that it is more equitable to serve a larger number of people who need a lesser degree of help.

What appears to be an issue of fairness is clouded by the realities of things as they are. In the first place, subsidies are not exclusively related to income status. Mortgage interest and property tax write-offs for federal income tax purposes operate as indirect demand subsidies that favor the well-to-do. Furthermore, it is not always true that the very poor suffer the greatest housing deprivation. There are a variety of circumstances, including the intervention of various forms of welfare benefits and other factors peculiar to the particular locality or household, that prevent a full correlation between the extent of poverty and the extent of housing deprivation. For all income groups, the depth of subsidy, therefore, becomes relative to other factors. Those whose housing needs are most urgent ideally should be served ahead of others with lesser needs, whether or not they require a deep or shallow subsidy. That is, housing subsidies should be available that are deep enough to serve the very poor whose housing needs are of an urgent nature, such as the dispossessed. Priorities may also be accorded to the poor who are elderly or handicapped. But similar needs and priorities should also be recognized for those who require only a relatively small amount of aid in order to enable them to be decently housed.

The claims and counterclaims made by advocates of income maintenance plans, housing allowances and deep or shallow housing production subsidies are all persuasive in at least some of the contexts in which they are made. The common goals to which all make obeisance can best be served by some of the proposals under some circumstances and by others under other circumstances.

If and when a national income maintenance plan has been placed in full operation, it can be expected to serve more efficiently the housing needs of many of the poor who would otherwise be badly served by present welfare systems. There will even then, however, be

continued need for supply-oriented (housing production) subsidies, particularly when public policy calls for the poor to have early access to new housing being provided in specified places, such as new communities and redevelopment areas. In such cases, open market mechanisms, even with housing allowances, cannot be relied on to serve the poor in a timely manner because higher income persons can outbid them in the competition for an early market response. There can, however, be a combination of both types or subsidy: Production through shallow subsidies can meet part of the need; and direct allowances to the user can close the economic gap further—with the production subsidy being made contingent upon having a percentage of the units made available to low-income occupants.

Tools for Action

Subsidies will be required, in one form or another, to meet the goals stated in 1949 and again in 1968. Direct housing subsidies (either to producer or consumer) are not the only type of subsidies available. Furthermore, subsidies are only a part of the tools needed to provide good housing and to keep a major industry functioning. To plan for the best use of land and other resources, experience is sufficiently broad to act. Old tools can be strengthened and new ones can be devised, particularly in areas of financial support, land planning and entrepreneurial initiatives, but their refinement is not a precondition to action. Essential to action is leadership at the federal level as an expression of national purpose.

Credit is the life-blood of the housing industry, and its reasonably steady flow is vital to the health of that industry. Sharp fluctuations in credit availability have long been responsible for wide fluctuations in housing production. This, in turn, has interfered with the ability to plan ahead with respect to the acquisition of land, the design and timely installation of public and community facilities and the process by which credit when extended to the producer for land development and construction is converted into credit extended to the consumer. (Such credit is extended directly in the case of the homeowner and indirectly when given to long-term investors in rental housing.) Fluctuations have also interfered with the productivity of the labor force. Extended periods of unemployment and underemployment in the construction work force tend to result in compensatory increases in basic wage rates among skilled construction workers when they do work, and also in premium pay for overtime.

Contributing to the uneven flow of housing credit are federal monetary policies that are designed to aid in combating inflation in the general economy. Because uncontrolled inflation is seriously damaging to all consumers, including the housing consumer, some federal policies, particularly fiscal policies, that result in moderate reductions in the flow of housing credit are nevertheless consistent with national housing goals, as well as with anti-inflationary goals. That is, the housing industry may well find it prudent to resist interest costs by postponing a reasonable proportion of planned construction until credit costs are lower. Both producers and consumers may benefit from such sensibly timed borrowing. But this assumes that reductions in the flow of credit are moderate and reasonably predictable. Unfortunately, national policies for combating inflation have all too often been adopted without duly balanced consideration being given to the devastating impact that extremely wide and sudden credit fluctuations have on housing production and housing needs.

Federal policies and programs should be designed to induce a steadier flow of residential mortgage credit and equity investment through:

- Fiscal and bugetary measures to reduce general inflationary pressures while encouraging reasonably sustained and efficient housing production;
- Income tax incentives such as credits for depreciation, mortgage interest payments real property taxes, and deposits in thrift institutions that make residential mortgage loans;
- Techniques such as the Government National Mortgage Association "tandem plan," which provide mortgage purchase commitments at prices favorable to the borrower during periods of mortgage credit stringencies in order to increase the flow of low-cost housing credit;
- The exercise of regulatory power over financial institutions in such a manner as to permit thrift institutions to compete for a fair share of deposits.

To provide further flexibility in smoothing the credit flow curve, and also to serve as the basic financing tool for certain types of programs, the federal government is in a position to make direct loans at less than going market rates without suffering an out-of-pocket loss if it lends at an interest rate adequate to cover its borrowing costs, administrative expenses and reserves for losses. Direct loans are a highly efficient way to provide federal assistance because of the government's superior borrowing power. (The loans may be made with or without direct subsidies in the form of interest reductions or separate cash payments.) The primary obstacle to the feasibility of this aid device is political and arises because of the way in which the federal budget is kept. The loans, which should be treated as capital investments, are instead treated as current expenditures fully chargeable in the year in which they are made. This has led to limiting funds for needed programs.

The provision of government mortgage insurance constitutes a leverage technique for backing private mortgage loans that would not otherwise cover as much of the development cost. The Federal Housing Administration has been the dominant agency in this field, but is now being challenged by private mortgage insurance companies. This governmental technique should, nevertheless, be continued and the FHA's ability to carry it out should be

strengthened. Mortgage insurance risks should be spread over a broad spectrum of housing needs, including marginal market areas and potential new market areas not readily served by private mortgage insurance companies.

State and municipal agencies have successfully assisted low- and moderate-income housing projects by financing them through revenue bonds that are, under constitutional law, exempt from federal income taxation. This attractive feature of the bonds has resulted in favorable interest rates, the benefits of which are passed on to the tenants in the form of reduced rents.

This form of assistance has been very helpful in meeting urgent housing needs and should be retained, notwithstanding losses of income tax revenues to the U.S. Treasury, until the time that more efficient forms of federal subsidy, such as direct low-interest rate loans, are well established and adequately funded. The eventual establishment of more efficient federal subsidies should be treated as an opportunity to phase out tax-exempt revenue bonds.

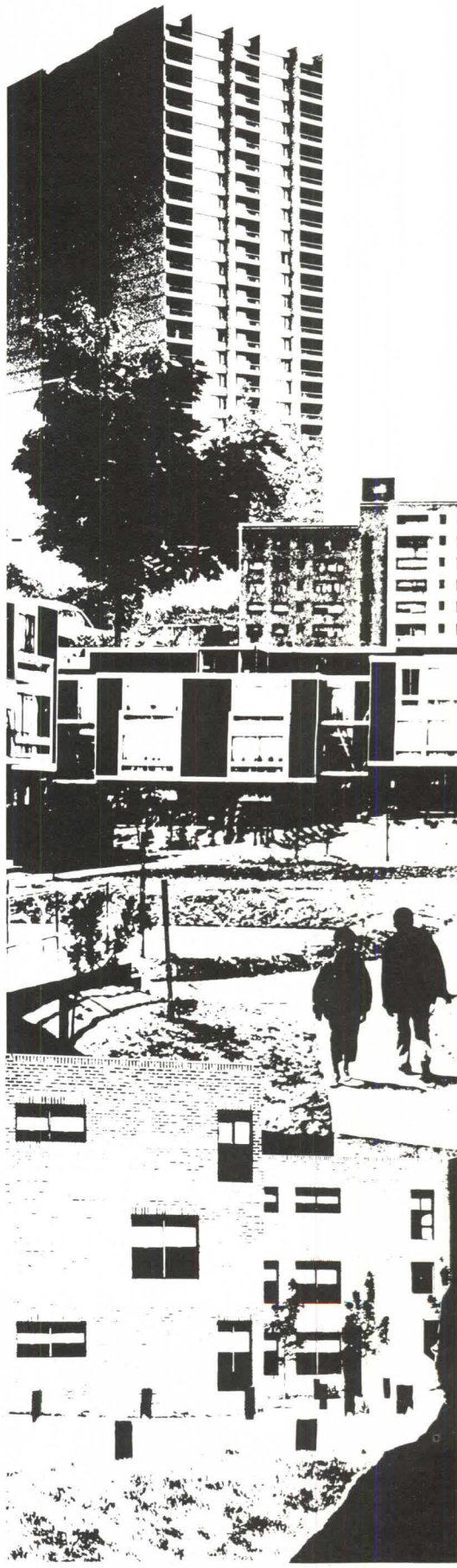
Tax abatement is widely used in some states where enabling legislation permits municipalities to grant varying levels of tax abatement—particularly for rental housing—in order to reduce costs to the consumer. It has generally been identified, but not exclusively, with programs that also benefit from other forms of subsidy. It has proved to be a strong incentive to development of conventionally financed and sponsored housing, even when the abatement is sometimes limited to levels that assure the return of more taxes than previously were received from the site so that the benefit (or subsidy) to the recipient is accompanied by an expected benefit to the municipality, financial as well as social.

The following recommendations are made with a view of ameliorating the adverse effects of high land costs and shortages of residential building sites: Federal grants to both states and metropolitan agencies are needed for comprehensive land use planning (to include housing components), and for improving their institutional capacity to make and implement such plans. Guarantees, loans and grants (as already authorized by law, but not adequately funded) are needed to assist both private and public sponsors to develop entire new communities.

Development needed to support housing uses should be provided before, or at the same time as, the housing, but the cost should be spread over a period of time so that it does not fall as an undue burden on the first occupants of the new housing, nor as sharp increases in taxes to the existing community. Federal subsidies (which may flow as part of block grants or as direct low-interest rate loans) should be available in cases of special need arising from rapid growth, if such growth is in accordance with regional or local plans that acknowledge freedom of choice.

Entrepreneurial Incentives and Initiatives: Among the tools available to support private enterprise are such devices as accelerated depreciation, which provide tax incentives to investors. This report advocates their continuation, not so much an endorsement of their efficiency, but rather to point out that in marginal markets (which are most markets today), very few other incentives exist to drive the profit motivated entrepreneurial engine. The fruitful search for alternatives may lie along the path that is not as concerned with moral reform as with institutional reform. New incentives are needed to induce sponsorship of housing, not only by initiators but by continuing owners, managers and users. The entreprenurial function does not have to be profit motivated if other rewards exist. The experience of Europe has something to tell us, as does the emergence of our own development agency concept.

Although lending agencies, at both federal and state levels, become involved in the approval process of housing design, their role has traditionally been that of protecting their interest as mortgagee. The public development agency that initiates and selects a development team, that creates and monitors programs and supervises the entire process from concept to management, has come into being only in recent years. The way has been led by UDC. This unique agency has been able



over the past six years to launch a major building program by combining the devices of revenue bond financing, tax abatement and federal cash subsidies, both in central cities and in outlying areas. It has done so in partnership with teams of private sponsors and builders. It has introduced a level of accountability for results not associated with the more passive role of other public agencies.

In addition, and with particular impact on the quality of land planning and architectural design, this agency directly engages the professional. Whereas cash flow problems, imposed by the uncertainty of the mortgage closing, force the typical sponsor of housing to pinch on design services, the UDC recognizes the value of good design and pays for it fully at the time it is rendered. The typical situation, which accounts for so much ill-conceived housing, could be corrected somewhat by a change in the tax laws to treat planning costs as ordinary business expenses rather than as capitalized investments.

The development agency as an initiating, not passive, arm of the government may well be the key to the states' ability to assume leadership role in housing for the future. The aggressive development agency is not without its dangers, however. The deserved praise for good planning and architectural quality that characterizes the UDC could turn sour under leadership less dedicated to such purposes. It could also turn sour under the same leadership if other objectives of housing policy, such as sound long-range management and sound financing, were neglected.

The nations of western Europe have employed a variety of techniques, but with a significant number of similarities. Their housing policies have combined a production component with a cash allowance program to those most in need. The construction side of the subsidy programs, however, has generally been directed at moderate-income housing markets, rather than low-income markets as such. The devastation of World War II undoubtedly necessitated building programs not restricted to the poor, but it is interesting to note that this still continues even after substantial rebuilding. A further aspect of the European experience has been its encouragement of nonprofit sponsorship, particularly in West Germany and Scandinavia, where the cooperative movement and quasi-public organizations have been major initiators of new construction.

Nonprofit sponsorship has not constituted a major mechanism for production of housing in the U.S. There are outstanding exceptions, such as the United Housing Foundation in New York City, but these are scattered. More typical nonprofit sponsorship has involved the ad hoc neighborhood group that has organized for the purpose of serving immediate constituencies. Political support has often been instrumental in the success of nonprofit organizations, but this has not developed great expertise or ability to continue through the difficult phases of construction and management. As a result, nonprofit sponsorship has been given a low priority by those who have lent money, processed the applications and have had to witness failures brought about by both wishful thinking and ineptitude.

The past failures of nonprofit sponsorship should not be allowed, however, to deny it a future role in the creation of housing. The European models are clear in their message that such organizations can succeed and can bring rewards to their staff and membership. As matters stand, nonprofit sponsorship has been at a serious disadvantage in competition with profit-motivated entrepreneurial housing programs because of the depreciation allowances and tax shelters provided to the latter. Devices, therefore, need to be developed that can encourage well organized nonprofit sponsors to enter the field with the rewards directed towards a continuing process of further development, through plowing back of imputed profits to permit fresh ventures. Such sponsorship could be of particular value in combination with public acquisition of land so that speculative motives in land development can be minimized. To be effective, such nonprofit sponsoring organizations would have to be well staffed and expert in the housing field. They would have to be engaged in a series of undertakings, not isolated ventures in which the organization disappears after the initial success has been achieved. □

The New Towns of Israel: Unprecedented in Scope and Impact on National Life

Jane A. Silverman

The names Kiryat Shemona and Ma'alot are best known to Americans as the scenes of two bloody attacks in the spring of 1974. But to the Israeli public, they have quite another meaning. They are two of 29 new towns, which, when plotted on a map, stretch from the mountainous Golan in the north to the Negev in the south.

The Israeli new town experience is unprecedented, both for the scope of national commitment and the impact that the towns are having on national life.

More than 500,000 Israelis—close to 16 percent of the total population—now live in "development towns," as the new towns are called. By 1983, Israeli statisticians estimate that 22 percent of the nation will live in these communities, and the figure could be much higher as new immigrants pour into the country from the Soviet Union.

Israel's financial commitment to the development towns is in stunning contrast to the experience in the U.S., where federal assistance is at best a guarantee of the funds that a private developer obtains from private sources. In Israel, not only does the state provide virtually all of the financial backing, the national government also orchestrates the entire development process from its inception until the point when a town is self-sufficient. Between 1961 and 1967, for example, more than 43 percent of all publicly assisted housing in Israel was in new communities; by the end of the 1960s, public investment in industry in development towns was more than $60 million.

The Israeli experience raises questions that go much beyond the policy role of the central government. The 29 development towns were conceived and planned largely by architects and urban planners who had a definite vision of what the country should look like, where towns should be located and why, and how big they should be. Because these communities could be developed without many of the profit constraints of a private entrepreneur, to a large extent the Israeli planner was able to turn his vision into a reality.

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But what does that reality mean today? Are the towns "good" places to live and do people want to stay in them? What opportunities do they offer for their citizens?

The answers are mixed. Israeli planners did not anticipate many of the social problems that exist in development towns today—problems of integrating diverse ethnic populations, of having housing and jobs proceed apace and of providing a rich social environment.

The national government began developing a new town policy almost from the moment the State of Israel was created in 1948. In fact, such policy was a necessity if the country was to absorb in any sort of rational manner the huge number of immigrants entering after 1948. These immigrants, mostly from North Africa and other Arab states, formed the population base for the development towns. Israeli ministries and the Jewish Agency, charged with repatriating the newcomers, channeled them to the development towns. "The new immigrants went where we told them to," says Jacob Dash, who is now head planner for Israel.

Israeli planners also wanted to deflect population away from the coastal plain cities of Tel Aviv and Haifa, where nearly 50 percent of the population lived in 1948. Closely related to this goal of populating the hinterland was the need to set up new towns as defense outposts on the border—especially in the north. In the south, several development towns were established to probe the Negev's natural resources.

These objectives took the form of concrete national plans starting in the 1950s. The development towns, some of them rural centers of up to 12,000 population and other regional centers of 40,000 to 60,000, were meant to provide urban services of various kinds for the kibbutzim and other rural settlements. Most were started from scratch, but some were extensions of existing centers, such as Beersheba, Akko, Tiberias and Safed.

The best example of this planning and the place where it has been most success-

ful was in Lakhish, south of Jerusalem. The development town of Kiryat Gat was laid out to serve as the main urban center, providing an array of shopping, job opportunities and professional services. A hierarchy of other smaller towns was plotted also for the region to complement existing settlement patterns.

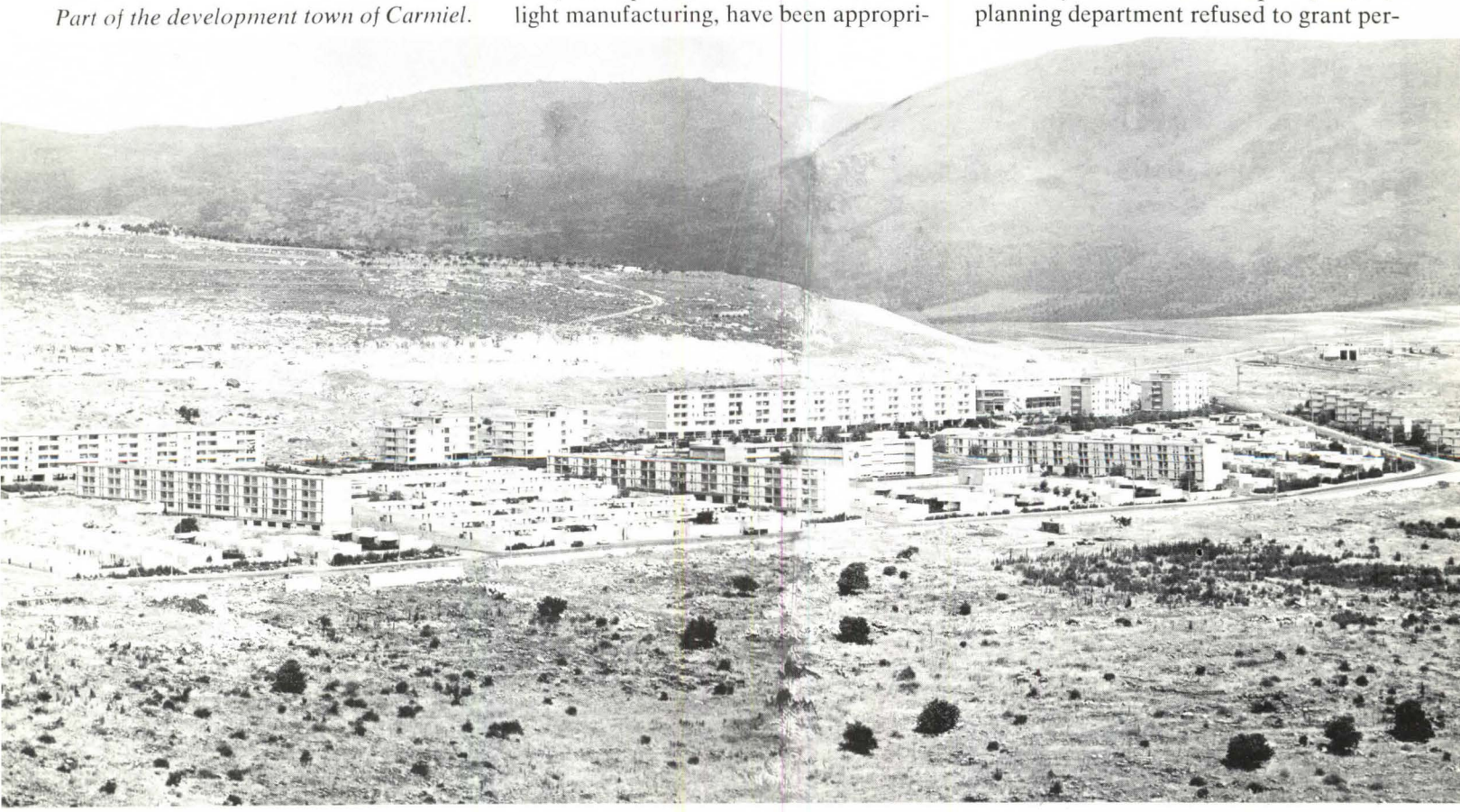
The new immigrants literally built the new towns. Housed at first in transit camps on the site of the developments, they constructed the housing in which they would live eventually. This formed the initial employment and economic base of the development communities. To this day, many of the towns retain the look of "refugee camps," as one architect described them, which is exactly what they were at the outset. Faced with the need to put up housing quickly, the architects paid little attention to site planning or good design, and this visual neglect still characterizes many of the new towns.

The government provides various incentives to persuade new immigrants and native Israelis to move to the development towns. The majority of Israelis own their own homes, and housing costs in the cities are high even by American standards. But the Ministry of Housing provides low-interest mortgages at attractive terms, especially for immigrants and young couples who wish to go to the development towns. There is also a rent supplement program for lower-income families. In addition, households that move to the towns are given generous income tax exemptions.

Similar incentives apply to industry. Firms are given tax preferences, and the government provides low-interest capital for plant expansion and investment. In some cases, sites for factories are given free of charge to companies if they will locate in a given place. Nevertheless, only certain types of industry, especially textiles, metal products and other forms of light manufacturing, have been appropriate for the mountainous terrain of many of the towns.

In addition to these incentives, the national government has considerable power to make industry locate in certain places and not in others. For example, the national planning law gives the department of planning the authority to deny rezoning for industry in big cities, although the government cannot stop such development on land already classified for it. In addition, all local plans must be approved at the national level. The ability to control land use is further strengthened because the state, through various national funds, has primary ownership of most of the land in the new towns.

This power to oversee and direct development from more urban areas to less developed ones has been critical for the development towns. For example, a large power plant had to be built to serve the southern Mediterranean coastal area. Tel Aviv very much wanted the plant, but the planning department refused to grant per-



Part of the development town of Carmiel.

mission. The state had decided to build a new port city to the south of Tel Aviv, and the power plant was located there. It thus became the initial industrial base for the new port city of Ashdod and literally fueled that town's development.

In contrast to the U.S., there is virtually no private investment in new towns in Irsael. Ashdod provides the one exception. It was developed at the request of the state by a consortium of foreign (mainly American) investors. But there is little difference in Ashdod's appearance, economic stability or social environment to distinguish it from many of the publicly developed communities. The fact that it has grown rapidly and is attracting population at a steady pace is because it has a built-in industrial base in its port rather than because of any private input.

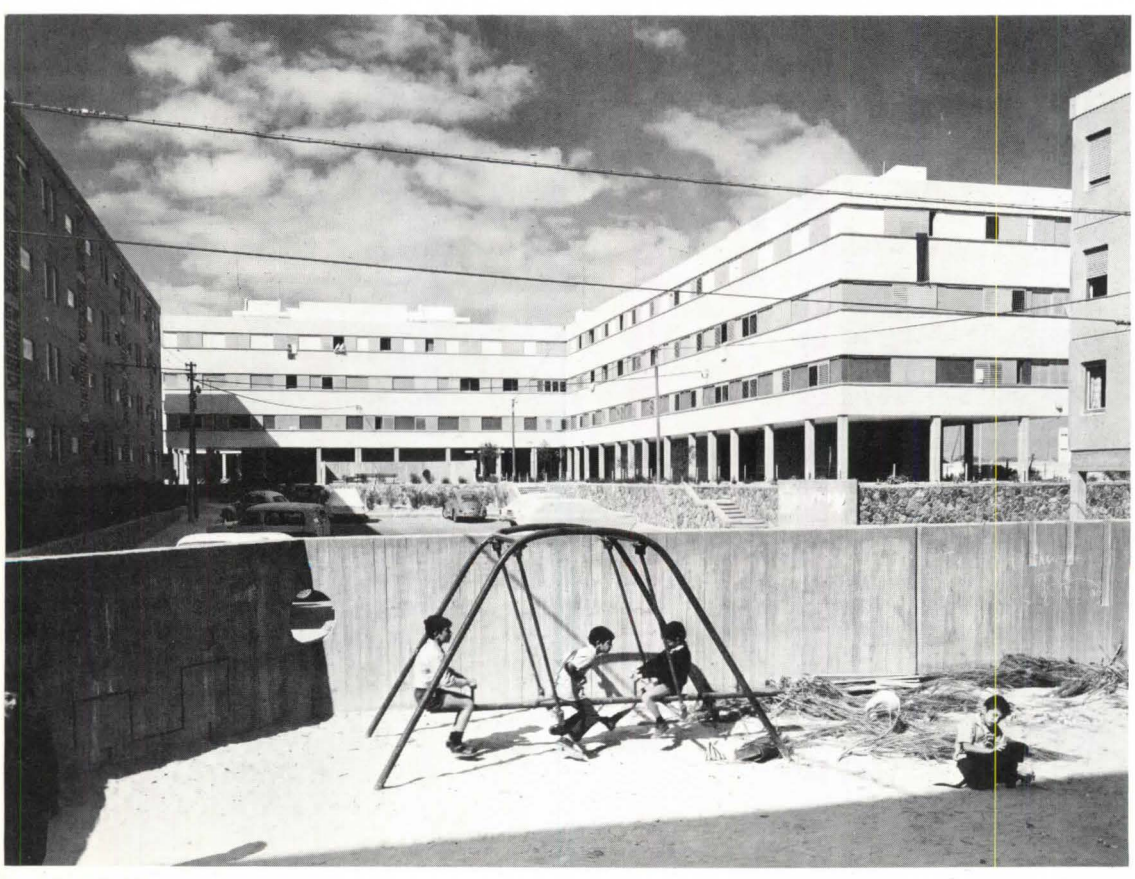
Most of the development towns are still too small to attract much private capital. They average around 10,000 people, but their population is generally less affluent than in other sectors of the country. The head of RASSCO, the development arm of the Jewish Agency, feels that private interest in the towns is growing, and his company already has begun building at a few sites. "Investment will grow," he says, "as towns and their economic base grow."

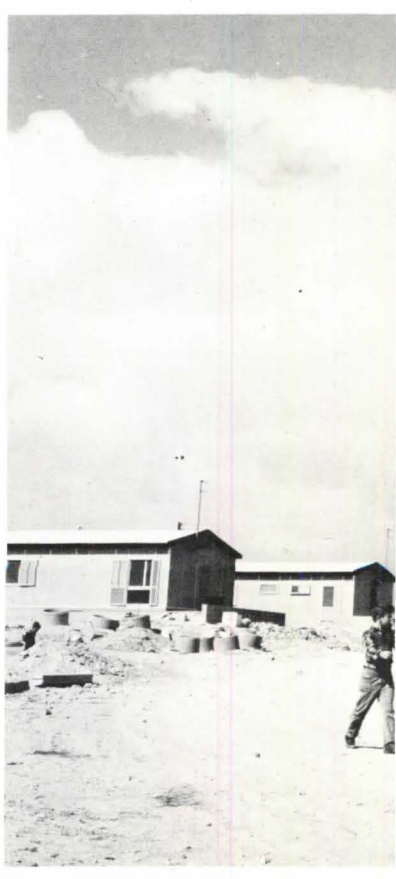
Infrastructure, services and even operating costs are paid by the central government until a town becomes totally self-sufficient, which virtually none of the development towns is yet. For example, Carmiel was begun in 1964 and still receives 85 percent of its budget from Jerusalem. The rest is paid for by local taxes. For the coming fiscal year, according to its economic development director, Carmiel, which has a population of approximately 8,000, will receive about $1.5 million in operating funds from the state and close to $4 million for special capital investment, including a new school, town pool and parks.

The new towns bear a striking similarity, at least visually. Many, especially those in the Galilee, are tacked onto the sides of mountains or perched over valleys. Yet, the architects, mostly from the Ministry of Housing itself, have rarely met the esthetic challenge of these dramatic sites. Most of the building is in mid-rise apartment buildings laid out on a traditional grid pattern, with little variation of facade and even less use of landscaping. In several of the towns on mountainous sites, the architects have designed slightly more interesting terraced buildings.

In contrast, towns like Arad and Carmiel and Beersheba have more interesting architectural qualities. But Arad and Carmiel, developed in the mid-1960s after the immigrant pressure had subsided, had the luxury of time, which the other towns lacked. In fact, Carmiel and Arad have proved to be models in more than just architecture. These towns also have become showcases of advanced Israeli planing ideas.

The neighborhood is the basic unit of organization in most development towns for two reasons, one social and the other





The task now is to change the new towns' image from second-class cities to the nation's new frontier.

developmental. Because the towns are composed largely of newcomers to the country, the neighborhood becomes an essential focal point for integrating them into society and giving the immigrant some initial point of identification. From the development point of view, the neighborhood forms a useful module that can be recreated or modified at each stage of the plan. In Carmiel, the neighborhood module consists of residential units along a linear core that contains kiosks, benches, play areas for children and some basic shops and services.

Bisecting the town is the main commercial area that contains supermarkets, movies, the town government facilities and more elaborate shopping areas. This core, when completed, will be a linear strip stretching the total length of the town. Such strip development might be offensive in the American suburban configuration, but it is absolutely essential in an Israeli development town where most people do not have cars and have to be able to walk to shopping. The other advantage of such an arrangement is that it can grow as the town grows.

Housing in the Israeli new towns ranges from sophisticated apartments to dwellings reminiscent of refugee camps.

Carmiel also pioneered in a residential type, which Israeli planners call the "carpet development." This is a block of one-story townhouses, with patios arranged in a closely interlocking pattern like the texture of a finely woven carpet. This walled compound gives the individual family privacy and its own open space in the form of a patio; at the same time, it is a self-contained neighborhood, with interaction between the units. The carpet developed in Carmiel visually and socially resembles the sort of village from which many of the immigrants probably came.

Another experiment in neighborhood design has been tried in Kiryat Gat. Modeled on Le Corbusier's *unite d'habitation,* the "Integrational Habitation Unit" in Kiryat Gat combines varied types of housing units and services in a large residential block. The Israeli architect Arthur Glikson, who led the planning team, says, "It is an attempt to fulfill the most essential urban requirement: unity in diversity."

The neighborhood is organized into six subunits, each of which is dominated by a long multistory apartment building. The other units in the neighborhood vary from mid-rise structures to patio apartments. The six highrises are grouped in the center of the neighborhood, surrounding a core area of community services and small shops.

To a large extent, the experimental neighborhood has been extremely successful. A study carried out by Israeli sociologist Judith Shuval shows that residents in the neighborhood usually are satisfied with their environment and identify with it strongly. They also apparently have a greater degree of interaction with one another than residents in other neighborhoods in the new town.

To some degree, the emphasis on neighborhoods laid out on paper in advance has locked several of the towns into a rigid development pattern. When asked to design a neighborhood for the town of Arad, David Best, an English-born architect, strongly urged the Ministry of Housing to modify its master plan to allow for a scale of 1,600 people rather than 800 people. This, said Best, would allow the designer to include a sufficient array of services in the plan.

Best made a great effort to observe and talk to residents and incorporated the feedback he received into the design itself. For example, he learned that the large number of Rumanians living in the town were accustomed to chatting and gathering in plazas, a common feature of European cities; so Best designed plazas into his plan.

He also noticed that many of the European residents of the town liked to promenade in the evening, but the main roadways were designed for cars only. So Best laid out his roads as wide boulevards, with landscaped pedestrian strips.

Careful planning is one of the most noticeable features of towns like Arad, Carmiel and Kiryat Gat. Unfortunately, it is lacking in most of the other development towns at this stage.

In fact, for a country so small and tightly knit as Israel, the most dramatic feature of most of the towns is their social and economic isolation from the rest of the country. Many of them literally are places apart, located as they are in mountain regions, on borders or deep in the Negev desert. Although the bus service to many of the towns is quite good, the roads connecting them to larger urban centers are poor.

In the social sense, the developments are also extremely isolated. Israel is a nation of immigrants; so towns composed entirely of newcomers are really not unusual. But the development towns consistently have become the repository of specific types of immigrants: those from backward countries in Asia and Africa. By almost every social index—earning power, education and family size—they lag behind the rest of society. The population of Kiryat Shemona, for example, is almost 75 percent immigrants from North Africa, Iran, Iraq and India. Most of them have five or more children, yet most apartments in the town are small, designed for about four people. One section

of the town, dubbed "the jungle' by its residents, houses 1,000 children and their parents in some 200 apartments. The small apartments and the lack of recreational facilities have led to increasing juvenile delinquency in the town.

Kiryat Shemona is not unique. Residents of Mizpe Ramon—a town in the Negev—recently staged a 24-hour hunger strike to protest the bad conditions in the town. Perched on the Biblical Ramon crater, Mizpe Ramon is called by a Ministry of Commerce and Industrial official "a dead-end road to nowhere."

Trying to draw conclusions about the quality of life in a town is at best a hazardous task. But one measure of whether people like their town is whether they want to continue living in it. A study done by the Center for Urban and Regional Studies of the Technion shows that the majority of the new towns have experienced an outflow of population, a trend that is continuing today. Most of the former residents are moving to large urban centers, such as Tel Aviv and Haifa, where there are more jobs.

Similarly, native Israelis and recent immigrants have been less than eager to move into the troubled new towns. Immigrants from the Soviet Union, less malleable than those from North Africa and more metropolitan-minded, are extremely selective about the development towns to which they go.

Thus, the prevailing feeling of the communities is that they are ghettos—"second class cities for second class citizens," as one architect put it. The residents of the towns feel this way, too. Citizens of Kiryat Shemona and Ma'alot bitterly complain that it took two terrorist attacks to turn the attention of the nation to the conditions here. Now Kiryat Shemona, which resembles an undeveloped frontier town in the American West, has received a large grant from Jerusalem, which it is using to rebuild its shopping area.

In contrast to the Kiryat Shemonas and Mizpe Ramons are the Carmiels and Arads. But the better conditions in these towns must be attributed to more than good planning alone. The populations are also different. Ninety-five percent of the residents of Carmiel are either native-born Israeli or immigrants from Europe and America. The figures for Arad are similarly high. In fact, at Arad the population was extremely carefully "selected" to insure that newcomers had certain skills so that the town could become self-sustaining and attractive to others. This quota system has now been lifted and Arad continues to attract new residents.

Eliezar Brutzkus, an eminent Israeli planner, looks sadly now at what he calls "the social deficit" of many of the towns. "There is selective integration," he says. "The people who leave the towns are the most educated and the most sophisticated. We did not think carefully enough about the right sort of integration."

Israeli planners felt at the outset that Jews of diverse nationalities could live happily with one another. This, in fact, has not been the case. Well-educated Jews from Europe do not much like to live with primitive families from North Africa, and vice versa. So towns composed almost entirely of the latter failed to attract the former.

This realization is one of the main reasons why the neighborhood has achieved such prominence in the development towns. The neighborhoods have quite clearly defined ethnic characteristics, and interaction among nationalities occurs for the most part in shops, at schools and on the job. Planners like Brutzkus hope that future generations will dissipate the ethnic differences as the children of immigrants are born native Israelis.

An equally pressing problem is the imbalance of opportunity in these towns. In some places, there are not enough jobs and too many houses; in others, it is the reverse. This lack of syncopation has come about because the government tried to build too many towns, according to David Best, and could not give sufficient attention to individual cases. "The critical mass just wasn't there," he says. "Experience shows that the countries which have been successful in new town development put a lot of investment in a few places at a time."

In fact, most of the development towns, with the exception of Ashdod, Ashkelon and Beersheba, have failed to come anywhere near the critical population mass of 30,000, which Israeli planners consider the takeoff point for self-sufficiency.

The location criteria that the government used share responsibility for this lack of self-sufficiency. Defense positions are a legitimate need for a country like Israel, but they are not a good criterion for locating a new town. Thus, settlements like Ma'alot and Kiryat Shemona, located near the border, lack the accessibility that would attract people to them.

In addition, the government made a bad calculation about the role that the development towns would play in the local economy. Especially in the north, it was hoped that they would become the regional service centers for the numerous kibbutzim located there. But these agricultural settlements already had well developed market outlets. Furthermore, even though their residents had adopted a largely rural lifestyle, they were mostly immigrants from Europe and America and were highly sophisticated and urbane.

This resulted in a paradoxical situation. David Best noted that as originally conceptualized the development towns were meant to be the urban places and the kibbutzim the rural sites. "But just the opposite has happened," he says. "The development towns like Kiryat Shemona still have predominantly rural values and the kibbutzim have the urban ones." Even today, there is very little interaction between the two types of communities.

The national government is beginning to take steps to reverse the negative image of many of the towns. It has classified all development communities into four categories ranging from those that are virtually self-sufficient, such as Ashdod, to those that are most problematic. There are six towns in this category, including Kiryat Shemona and Mizpe Ramon, and they will receive first priority in government help.

Reuven David, director of the national committee for the development towns, says that "the challenge of development towns is much greater than the kibbutz." It was the idealism of the kibbutz that initially attracted many early Zionists to Israel. "But the new frontier," says David "is in the new towns. If we can only sell that idea, we can make them succeed." □

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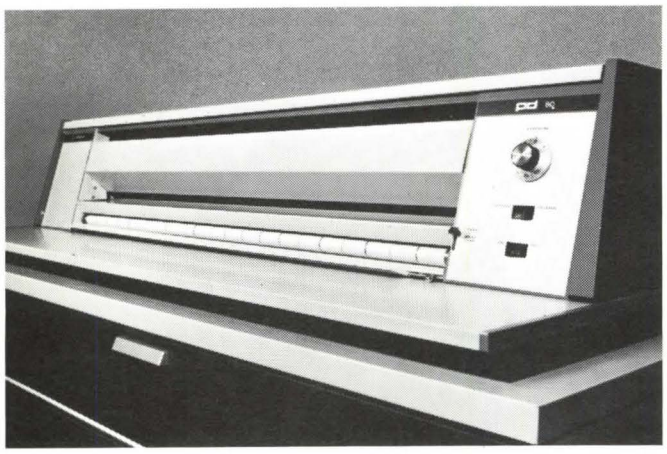

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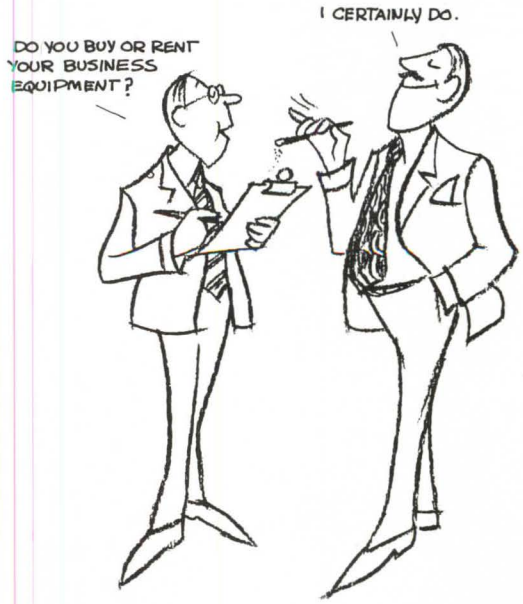

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BOOKS

Design for Human Affairs. C. M. Deasy. Halsted Press (John Wiley & Sons), 1974. 183 pp. $15.

This is the first book written by a practicing architect that describes the methods, problems and rewards of collaboration between designers and social scientists. Deasy, an AIA fellow and senior partner in the Los Angeles firm of Deasy & Bolling, was one of the first practitioners to become involved in this area. He has seen the future and it works. He believes that it is possible to bring the right kind of social scientist into a project, tie him or her to the same construction deadlines that everyone else has, and obtain some good practical information. "Compared to the modest amount of time and money invested in (social sciences) consultation, the practical benefits that accrued to my clients and to the ultimate users of the building were a bonanza."

Details of this collaboration are presented for several projects, including a bank, branch library, school and a college campus. It is noteworthy that all of these projects involved institutional spaces where the chief users of the building (customers, library patrons or students) were not the clients. It is here that Deasy sees the social scientist as ombudsman for users.

Deasy has an easy conversational style and punctuates his prose with anecdotes and quotes. It is gratifying to those of us on the research and writing end of socio-architecture to find that there have been practicing architects out in the field reading and *using* our results. This is good news to both social scientists interested in further collaboration and architecture students who have been hearing a great deal about socio-architecture in their classes but wonder if there will be any chance to apply it when they get out.

The thrust of the book is modest and deliberate. Deasy provides no brilliant insights and promises no great breakthroughs. "All that can reasonably be claimed is that design based on social psychological research will relieve some of the stress that is a concomitant of urban life, eliminate some of the chaos and confusion that mars so many public programs, and increase the options and opportunities that are available to the individual in pursuing his or her affairs." If these goals seem too humble or self-evident to warrant explicit concern, the reader is not going to like this book.

For the practicing architect, the metamessage of this book is clear: Find yourself the right kind of social scientist, squeeze a little money out of the client or obtain some outside funds and start on the first steps of what can be a fruitful collaboration. Not every Ph.D. will do. Some won't be able to adapt themselves to the tight deadlines and innumerable constraints of a working design project. This is a valid indictment of the parochialism of many academic disciplines. Deasy isn't very specific as to how one goes about finding the right Ph.D. This is a question that I have been asked frequently.

To be quite honest, I don't know of a single environmental psychologist or environmental sociologist in San Francisco, although I do know a number who live across the bay in Berkeley. Deasy was fortunate in that early in his career he came across a concerned sociologist, Thomas Laswell, with whom he could work. In a similar vein, Ewing H. Miller, FAIA, principal of a Terre Haute, Ind., architectural office, was able to call upon the services of a former college roommate, Lawrence Wheeler, in a fruitful series of architect-psychologist collaborations that still continues.

Eventually, this may be solved as more social scientists develop specialized consulting firms in environmental fields and make their availability known to designers. Fruitful collaboration requires more than hit-and-run behavioral consultation. It is terribly frustrating, and not very productive, for a psychologist to fly in for a single design session, attempt to reconstruct what has happened previously and identify the objectives of the project, and then try to do something meaningful before leaving on the next plane. Deasy is fortunate that he has a behavioral consultant within reach. Of course, there's nothing like money to stimulate interest among social scientists in design consultation. Fortunately, as Deasy indicates, the amount of money needed for behavioral research is not very large in the light of a total project budget. He has on occasion obtained the money directly from a client or from outside agencies, such as the Educational Facilities Laboratories or the Council on Library Resources (for a study of branch libraries) or scrounged it out of his firm's own resources. There is nothing farfetched in this approach to generating support for behavioral research. The book will help architects convince clients and outside agencies that behavioral research will have a practical payoff in human satisfaction.

The book is somewhat limited by its emphasis upon the programming stage of design. Each project is considered on an ad hoc basis, and there is no attempt to tie together information even about related projects, such as libraries or schools. Deasy seems to leave information sharing and retrieval to his social science collaborators, whom he feels should be familiar with the literature of the field. However, the work of his own office in issuing numerous useful reports belies his seeming unconcern with information sharing. The lack of attention to post-occupancy evaluation is more disconcerting. In the examples of what was done, there is no mention of efforts to evaluate outcome. Here is what I regard as the chief oversight in this architect's use of social scientist consultants. With a little more money, the design could be evaluated in terms of success in meeting user needs.

In summary, this is a very readable, worthwhile book which will have its greatest influence among practitioners. As the principal of an established and successful office, Deasy believes that the practical benefits from behavioral consultation cannot be ignored. To those of us familiar with his mimeograped reports (no longer available) and his articles in *Psychology Today* and the AIA JOURNAL, this book has been eagerly awaited. Ten years from now, when the architecture students who are exposed to these ideas will have become established and can apply these methods themselves, many of the ideas in the book will be refined and extended. Right now the chief value is its demonstration that behavioral consultation is feasible and worthwhile on design projects. *Robert Sommer, Professor of Psychology, University of California at Davis.*

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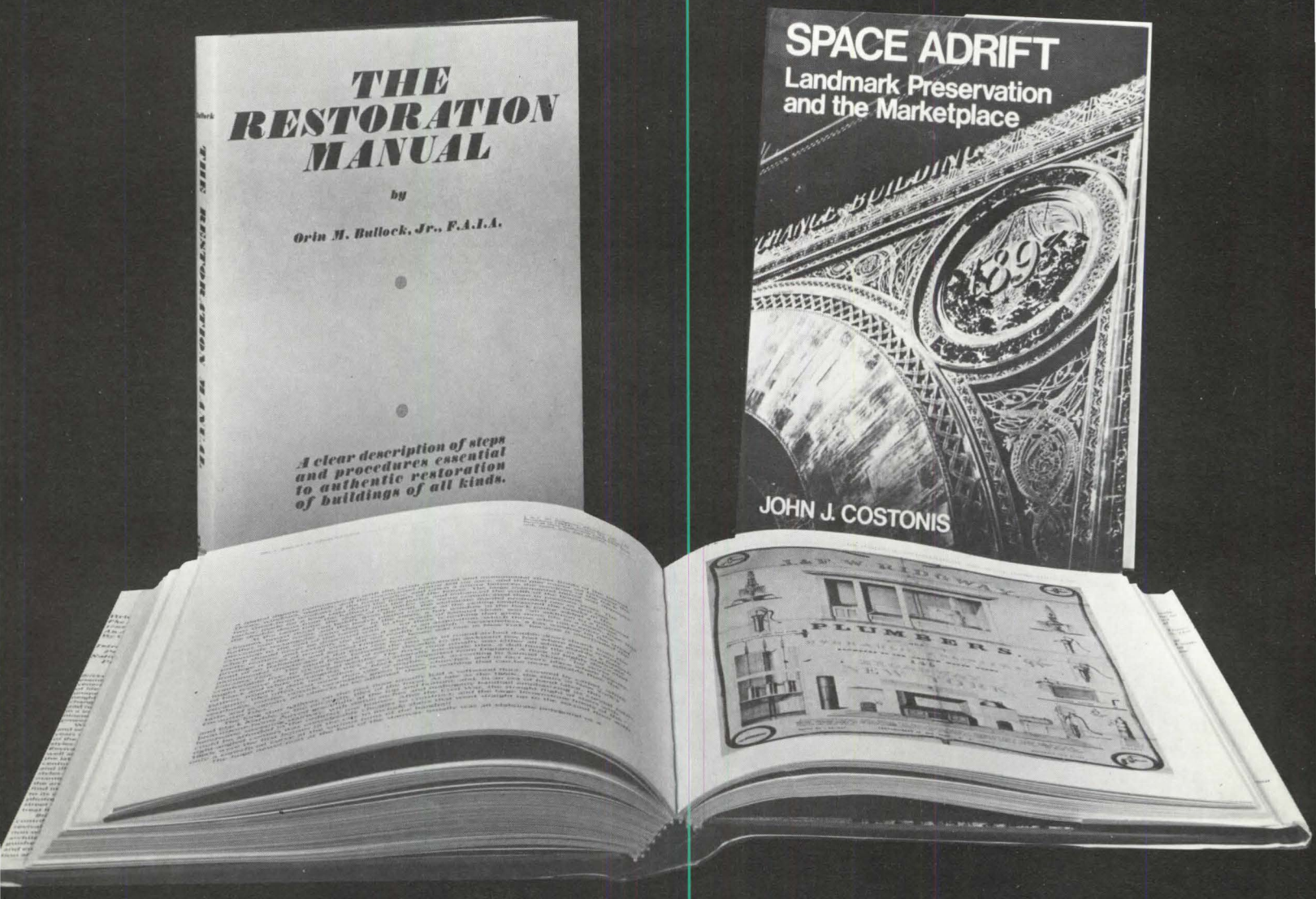

Rehabilitation

As the bicentennial year approaches, *Bricks and Brownstone,* the study of past social customs and architecture of city houses and entire neighborhoods, should be of prime interest to any architect.

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LETTERS

Architects in Fiction: Cecil D. Elliott's article titled "Another View: The Architect as He Is Pictured in Fiction" in the September issue was entertaining and informative. He did fail, however, probably from pure embarrassment, to comment on the implications of the image projected by the architect/supporting actor in the popular TV series of recent past, "Mr. Ed."

The problems of public image outlined by Elliott seem almost desirable when compared with the alternative of being a straight man for a horse. The "Apple's Way" image leaves a great deal to be desired, but at least the trend is in the right direction.

James E. Gardner, AIA
Bloomington, Ill.

In the past year, two more architects have cropped up in film and literature, both as leading characters. Nat Wilson is a bright, self-confident and aspiring young architect in *The Tower,* by Richard Stern, soon to become a motion picture. The story dramatizes the disastrous consequences of the "chimney effect" in a burning World Trade Center-like building. In the movie "Death Wish," the role of the architect is played in an unconvincing, steel-eyed manner by Charles Bronson. In this incredibly brutal and simple-minded story, the architect turns overnight from a "bleeding-heart" liberal to a self-appointed executioner of all the scum of the earth. Both architects are shown to have control over the life and death of other people, though in radically different fashions.

Mark L. Hinshaw
Anchorage

I enjoyed Elliott's witty and insightful article. He might have cited also two American novels of the turn of the century with architects—not the stay-at-home kind—as central characters: *The Common Lot* (1904) by Robert Herrick and *The Cliff-Dwellers* (1893) by Henry Blake Fuller.

The focus of Herrick's novel is the moral decline and regeneration of Francis Jackson Hart, an architect born in Chicago, trained at Cornell and the Ecole des Beaux-Arts. Forced into the "common lot" of earning a living at the death of a wealthy uncle, Hart sells his artistry and training to the causes of high society and low speculators. Herrick uses the downfall of Hart's artistic integrity as a measure of other ethical failures. The climactic moment of fire in a death-trap structure that Hart has designed for fast profit serves at once as a plot device: a symbol of man's evil and fall to the fires of Hell, and an indictment of profiteering architects, and American materialism in general.

The main character of Fuller's novel is really a Chicago skyscraper, but an architect—again, a ne'er-do-well socialite—figures prominently. Both novels really examine the role of the architect in society and prove fruitful for anyone analyzing the image of the architect in fiction, a pursuit which I, like Elliott, have found fascinating.

May I also compliment the AIA JOURNAL on its new format and broadened focus? I find the covers particularly well done. The magazine is the brightest thing in my mailbox. I couldn't do without either its graphics or its prose.

Deborah C. Andrews
Department of English
Ohio State University
Columbus, Ohio

The "We Know Better Department": The article titled "Seeing the City Whole" by Charles A. Blessing, FAIA, in the September issue is very well done, except for the fact that Los Angeles and Boston were printed with switched copy. I wonder how many architects will notice the difference.

Martin Santini, AIA
Hackensack, N.J.

You've finally designed the perfect city: the heredity and charm of Boston blended with the climate and excitement of Los Angeles. It will take a little expansion of the Los Angeles River to create the

setting, but for the sake of a good urban plan, anything is feasible. *Ralph Jackson*
Director of Corporate Communications
Charles Luckman Associates
Los Angeles

Although our office thoroughly enjoyed and agreed with the article by Blessing, we could not agree with the sketch of our beloved city as presented. Alas, the narrative of Los Angeles, on the following page, revealed that fair Boston has been stolen and moved to the West Coast.

In order to reassure the readers of the article, we wish to confirm, contrary to the presentation in the September issue, that Boston is still right where she's always been. Only in the pages of the AIA JOURNAL has she suffered the indignity of being pictured as Los Angeles.
Eugene K. Skoropowski, AIA
Boston

Boston—Los Angeles, what's the difference? The drawings by Blessing are wonderful. *Arthur Rosenblatt, AIA*
Vice Director
Architecture and Planning
Metropolitan Museum of Art
New York City

ED. NOTE: The inexplicable switch is an embarrassment since we're well aware of the contours and qualities of both cities. Our apologies to Boston and Los Angeles.

EVENTS

Dec. 31: Applications and submission of work deadline, Rome Prize Fellowships for 1975/76. Contact: Executive Secretary, American Academy in Rome, 101 Park Ave., New York, N.Y. 10017.
Jan.-June: Course on architectural conservation, Rome. Contact: International Centre for the Study of Preservation and Restoration of Cultural Property, 1522 K St. N.W., Washington, D.C. 20005.
Jan. 9-10: A/E conference on new federal agency programs and policies, Miami. Contact: Marshall E. Purnell, AIA Headquarters.
Jan. 13-17: Short Course on Solar Utilization Now, College of Architecture and the College of Engineering Sciences, Arizona State University, Tempe, Ariz.
Jan. 15: Proposals deadline, 1975 Brunner Scholarship Awards program. Contact: New York Chapter/AIA, 20 W. 40 St., New York, N.Y. 10018.
Jan. 16-18: AIA Grassroots, East, Statler Hilton Hotel, Washington, D.C. Contact: Robert A. Harris, AIA, AIA Headquarters.
Jan. 19-23: National Association of Home Builders convention, Dallas.
Jan. 23-25: AIA Grassroots, Central, Palacio del Rio, San Antonio, Tex. Contact: Robert A. Harris, AIA, AIA Headquarters.
Jan. 27-29: AIA Grassroots, West, Double Tree Inn, Tucson, Ariz. Contact: Robert A. Harris, AIA, AIA Headquarters.
Jan. 31: Entries deadline, Design in Steel awards program. Contact: American Iron and Steel Institute, 633 Third Ave., New York, N.Y. 10017.
Jan. 31: Abstracts due, call for papers for workshop on "Innovations in Building Regulatory Agency Management and Procedures," to be held in connection with annual meeting of the National Conference of States on Building Codes and Standards, Apr. 27-May 1, in Santa Fe, N.M.
Feb. 1: Applications deadline, 1975 James Stewardson Travelling Scholarship. Contact: New York Chapter/AIA, 20 W. 40 St., New York, N.Y. 10018.
Feb. 4-7: Annual conference, Reinforced Plastics/Composites Institute, Shoreham-Americana Hotel, Washington, D.C.
Feb. 6: Design submissions deadline, Reynolds Aluminium Prize for Architectural Students. Contact: Maria Murray, AIA Headquarters.
Feb. 10-15: Short course on "A Systematic Approach to Building Material Evaluation and Selection," University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wis.
Feb. 11: Applications deadline, 1975 American Institute of Steel Construction graduate study fellowships for civil or architectural engineering students. Contact: AISC, 1221 Avenue of the Americas, New York, N.Y. 10020.

Going On from page 16

AIA is acting as secretariat for the forum, a function which will be rotated among the organizations. Charter meeting of the forum was held at AIA headquarters in early November with Institute President Archibald C. Rogers, FAIA, as chairman.

Principal speaker at the meeting was John Price, former member of the White House domestic council now with Manufacturers' Hanover Trust in New York City, who predicted continued support by the Ford Administration of efforts to plan for future national growth.

Deaths

Kenneth W. Dalzell Sr., Dundin, Fla.
William Henry Grant Jr., Clarksburg, W. Va.
Henry Huband, Richmond, Va.
Jack W. Ledbetter, Fort Smith, Ark.
Robert H. Millett, Little Rock, Ark.
Hugo E. Olson, Dover, Mass.
Colvin E. Pyle, Cincinnati
Arnold Stanley Rinaldi, Hempstead, N.Y.
Julian V. Thompson, La Mesa, Calif.
Norman M. Yeretsky, Oakbrook, Ill.

S. Kenneth Johnson II, FAIA: Co-founder and chairman of the board of the Los Angeles-based firm of Daniel, Mann, Johnson & Mendenhall, Ken Johnson had a colorful career. He participated in the birth of the Hollywood movie industry and pioneered in the evolution of the architectural and engineering professions into space-age technologies. He was a childhood movie star, acting in the first "Our Gang" comedy series. After graduation with honors from the University of Southern California, he helped establish his firm and worked toward its entrance into the aerospace and industrial fields.

Johnson, who died on Nov. 1 at the age of 62, is credited with new installations at Kennedy Space Center; Vandenberg Air Force Base; the McDonnell Douglas Space Systems Center at Huntington Beach, Calif.; the Aeronautics Complex in Newport Beach and the formation of the DUSAF joint venture that built the National Accelerator Laboratory. He also directed design projects for numerous educational facilities and was the recipient of many design awards and honors.

Active in many professional organizations, he served as an officer and director of the Southern California Chapter/AIA and of the Society of American Military Engineers. Particularly interested in young people, he initiated the DMJM mentorship program with USC for scholarships and on-the-job training for architectural students and also assisted the University of California at Los Angeles extension program in its building and construction industry training.

Newslines

Roy F. Knight, AIA, has been appointed to the staff of the National Endowment for the Arts' architecture + environmental arts program to be responsible for the grants' program. It is expected that new programs will be initiated as continuing ones expand. Knight comes to the independent federal agency headquartered in Washington, D.C., from the University of Tennessee's school of architecture, where he was assistant dean.

The nation's highest preservation honor—the Louise du Pont Crowninshield Award of the National Trust for Historic Preservation—has been bestowed upon Mr. and Mrs. Jacob H. Morrison of New Orleans for their work in the restoration of that city's French Quarter. The award is given for "superlative achievement" in preservation of historic sites, buildings and objects.

George H. Nelson, FAIA, president of the New York City industrial design firm bearing his name, has received one of the Industrial Designers Society of America's most coveted awards for "distinguished contribution to the profession of industrial design." The award was presented at IDSA's recent annual meeting, at which time George Kosmak, AIA, and Eliot Noyes, FAIA, were added to IDSA's roll of fellows.

The Office of Energy Conservation has been established by the National Bureau of Standards to advance the use of energy-efficient technology. Funded this fiscal year at $3.5 million, OEC will coordinate its efforts with other federal agencies having energy conservation interests and will oversee NBS' energy conservation programs and research. It will be headed by Jack E. Snell, who has been associated with NBS since 1971.

John Wyman, AIA, professor of architecture at Ball State University, is the recipient of the 1974 National Institute for Architectural Education scholarship. The grant will be used to develop an architectural case study on the problems that do not show up in building documents, such as site selection and political and esthetic aspects of decision making that affect shape and structure.

Lessons about earthquakes learned from the Managua, Nicaragua, disaster of Dec. 23, 1972, are summarized in a report recently published by the American Iron and Steel Institute. It contains two papers. One, by Glen V. Berg, of the University of Michigan, concerns the effects of the quake on major buildings; the other, by Greer W. Ferver, of Ferver Engineering Co., San Diego, describes how the quake affected water and sewer lines, streets and highways, electrical generating stations, etc. Copies of "The Managua, Nicaragua, Earthquake of Dec. 23, 1972" may be obtained without charge by writing Engineering Division, AISI, 1000 16th St. N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036.

Hugh Stubbins, FAIA, who heads his own firm in Cambridge, Mass., has been elected an honorary fellow by the Mexican Society of Architects.

The American Society of Interior Designers has elected its first national officers, to take office in January when the American Institute of Interior Designers and the National Society of Interior Designers are consolidated. Norman DeHaan, AIA, who is current AID president, will become president of ASID, and Richard W. Jones, current president of NSID, will become ASID first vice president and president-elect for 1976.

Archibald C. Rogers, FAIA, president of the Institute, was the first Oscar Ekdahl Memorial Lecturer for Kansas State University's college of architecture and design. The lectureship was established recently through a bequest from the estate of the Topeka architect who was graduated from KSU. At the time of his death, Ekdahl was senior member of the firm of Ekdahl, Davis, Depew & Persson.

The Ohio Governor's Award for Community Action has been presented to six faculty members of the department of architecture, University of Cincinnati, for their services in the development and construction of Lincoln Heights Community Facilities Building, located in a black community with a population of about 8,500. Those honored are Richard H. Stevens; Donald E. Stevens, AIA; David Lee Smith, AIA; William C. Widdowson; J. William Rudd; and Dennis Alan Mann.

John C. Portman Jr., FAIA, of Atlanta, is the subject of a bibliography recently published by the Council of Planning Librarians. Titled "John Portman: An Introduction and Bibliography," the publication is the work of James C. Starbuck. It may be bought for $1.50 from CPL, P.O. Box 229, Monticello, Ill. 61856.

The Massachusetts Institute of Technology's department of architecture has been awarded an additional $600,000 by the National Science Foundation to continue to develop its "Architecture Machine," described as the most comprehensive computing facility in a school of architecture in the country. Nicholas P. Negroponte, who heads the computing laboratory, says the goals are to "augment design abilities, to recognize design intention and to generate design solutions." □

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