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R. A. I. C. JOURNAL

M A Y 1 9 4 7

THIS year there are more students studying architecture in Canadian Universities than ever before. A new school has been set up in British Columbia in which 43 students are enrolled in the first two years. All schools have increased their staff and possibly doubled their accommodation. Some operate auxiliary establishments miles from the university proper as Toronto's Ajax and McGill's Dawson. The task of training the young architect is requiring a great effort on the part of the schools of architecture throughout the country.

AN equal effort is required from the architectural profession to help these students to qualify themselves. Study in the schools has never been considered the whole of an architect's training. It is of utmost importance for students to balance their theoretical work with sound practical experience. They need to be exposed to the routine of an office, to see something of how an architect must deal with clients, builders, and suppliers of material in order to understand what the business of architecture is. It is therefore important to find summer employment for architectural students in which they can use some of their theoretical training, and from which they will return to the universities with a sense of what they still lack before they are ready to graduate. Jobs of this kind increase the value of what the university has to offer by making it real and purposeful to the student and they increase immeasurably what the student has to offer the university.

ALL practising architects are likely to be approached for employment by students. Only a limited number of these can be accommodated easily in the offices, although it is hoped that space will be found for as many as possible. Even if he cannot employ all who come to him, an older member of the profession can assist students by discussing with them the abilities and preferences and the opportunities which may exist for them. Jobs might be found upon a building under construction or with a reputable manufacturer. Suggestions, possibly introductions, and the considered advice of a practising architect are extremely valuable to students.

IN the past only a proportion of architectural graduates actually practised architecture. A large number found work in related fields. This was largely determined by chance and jobs were often unsuitable and unsatisfying for a young architect. With help and advice from men in practice, students may find summer jobs which suit them, and which might lead to useful careers in actual construction, in industrial design, in the manufacture of materials, possibly in property management, or city planning.

IN any case the eventual establishment of this body of students is the concern of the profession. Many have had wartime responsibilities and are surprisingly mature in their outlook. Their vigour and spirit will revitalize and expand the scope of the profession and their sound training is of interest and importance to all architects.

IN this issue work has been included from Manitoba, Toronto, McGill and the Ecole des Beaux-Arts. The latter, due to circumstances beyond their control, had little to offer this year and did not wish to be included. However, they were persuaded to submit the drawings shown. Nothing has been sent from British Columbia because that school has only been operating for a few months. In future issues we shall look forward to seeing their work and take this opportunity of wishing them success.

John Bland

UNIVERSITY OF BRITISH COLUMBIA

By FRED LASSERRE

ACADEMIC year number one of the Department of Architecture, U.B.C., has just ended — the start of what is expected to be a long and fruitful history. Already some 40 students are on their way to graduation, "B. Arch. (British Columbia)."

The University has grown within two years from a student population of 2,500 to one of 9,000. The Library, the Science Building and the Power house are the only permanent structures on the breathtakingly beautiful campus. All other buildings are temporary. Some of these have remained so long that they are called "semi-temporary" to differentiate them from the row upon row of converted Army huts which have been brought to the campus. New permanent structures are now under construction. The University is in the process of being built, of breaking the land, of claiming the forest, of pioneering.

A great challenge is placed before the one who has the rare opportunity to start a Department or School of Architecture — a thrilling challenge. It is even more so when it is hitched to a pioneering enterprise whose development it can assist.

The Department of Architecture was only an announcement until my arrival three days after term's start. Soon forty-two students were sharpening their pencils. Thirty-five were first year men. Another seven, sad-faced but eager-eyed, begged for a second year. Originally only a first year had been contemplated. A compromise year was arranged for with first year subjects in Architecture plus extra design work, and with most second year subjects in Applied Science. The seven were satisfied, and will be next year's third year.

Headquarters were located for me in the vast and sumptuous Board and Senate Room. Make-shift drafting rooms and classrooms were found at different corners of the campus. Somehow we groped through the first term and began to behave like Architectural students. In the meantime a hut was being converted for us. January's end saw us moved into our new quarters. We found, as many at U.B.C. have found, that the 24'-0" wide converted huts can provide excellent teaching accommodation. Ours became known on the Campus as "that best lit" and "most luxurious and modern" hut.

Our books are divided into three libraries — an unsupervised library in our reading room; a library of books of current use and interest brought from the main Library and kept in charge of the Department's Secretary; and the main collection in the Library. Some 15 Architectural magazines spend one month in our hut before residing at the Library. A few are kept in the Department.

The Department has the assistance of an Advisory Committee of seven: the President, A.I.B.C., J. S. Porter;

J. Y. McCarter, Architect; J. F. Watson, Architect; Peter M. Thornton, Architect; C. J. Thompson, Architect; B. C. Binning, Canadian Federation of Artists; Ralph C. Pybus, Commonwealth Construction Company and President of Contractors' Association. This committee has already greatly helped the Department organizationally and will continue to do so academically and in developing healthy relations with the profession, with the other arts, with the construction industry and with the public.

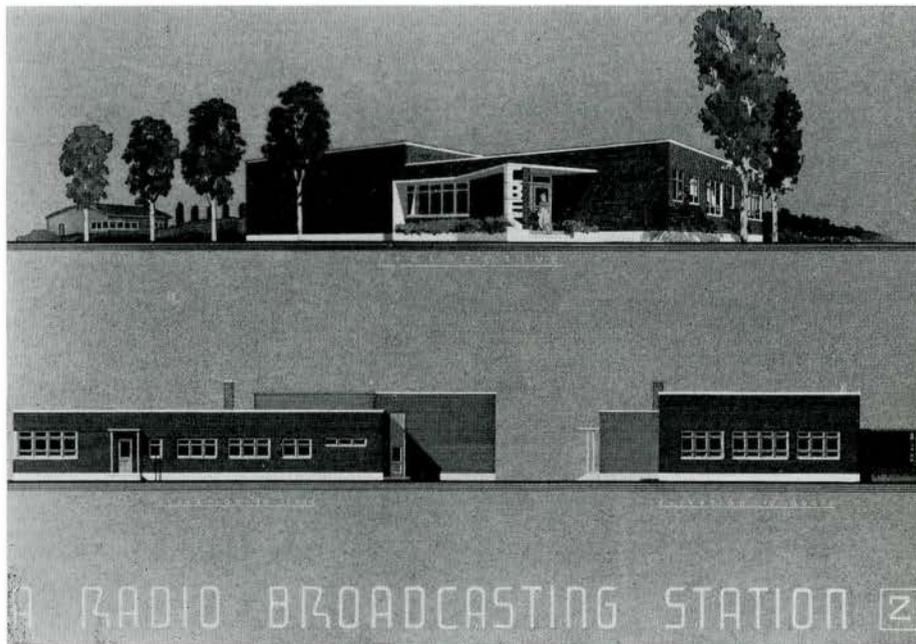
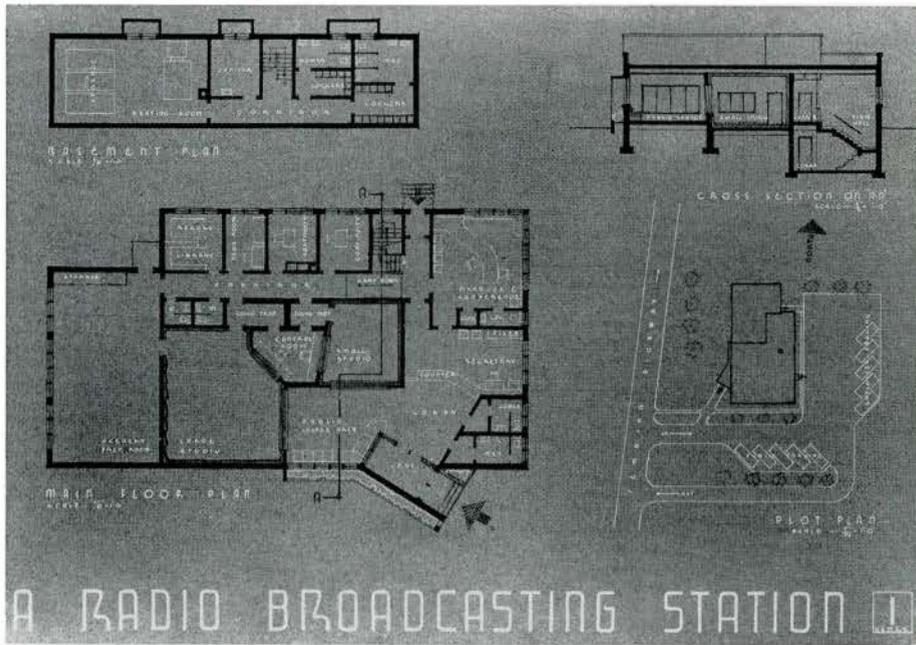
The first year's principal and most important task was the preparation of a Curriculum of Studies for the Department. Here is set the pattern of future development. Standards are established.

After passing through the nth sifter we have put into print a course by which we hope our students will gain academic competence in Architecture, and practical experience in its integration with contemporary technology. The student will spend the first three years largely in building up his architectural vocabulary. The last two years will be much more professional and integrating in character, practically an apprenticeship. Emphasis will be laid on a broad and scientific understanding of human environmental needs, of building materials, construction, structures and of the processes of industrial and mass production (prefabrication). In the design workshop and laboratory the student will build models and abstract studies as thorough grounding for three and four dimensional thinking. More straight economics, accounting, building and construction economics, and sociology will be given to our students than to those in the other Canadian Schools. This we hope will assist the graduate in his financial and social responsibilities. The student will be trained from the start to be architecturally disciplined, systematic and "professional".

Considerable attention will be given to the theory of architecture: "We must aspire at the impossible, if we want to succeed with the possible. This means that we must start from very clear theoretical foundations so that we might travel the road of practice without too many mistakes . . . The hollow agnosticism of to-day must be replaced by a new culture, a new style." (The editor of "Domus", Ernesto N. Rogers writing in that excellent magazine *L'Architecture d'Aujourd'hui*.)

The spirit of the students has been most encouraging to me. My hands were very full with basic problems of organization and of establishment. The students have been cheerfully co-operative. Their progress has been excellent, specially so in view of the disadvantages of pioneering and of being "guinea pigs". Thanks to the present active group of students the Department was conceived; largely thanks to them will it grow and make itself felt in the community and in the Province.

UNIVERSITY OF MANITOBA



A RADIO BROADCASTING STATION

W. G. Hames

ARCHITECTURAL DESIGN IV

THREE WEEKS

Located on a main highway in a suburb of Winnipeg, this radio station was designed as one of a series of such stations to be built across Canada by an association of Canadian Retail Merchants. This station would serve as an advertising medium, as well as a cultural agent for the surrounding communities.

THEORY OF PLANNING EXAMINED

ARCHITECTURE is more than mere building, and Architects are, or should be, more than mere copyists. To produce in the old-established manner is not enough. If we cannot design with ideas as results of reason and thought, we fall far short of training for future needs.

The following paper represents one phase of establishing a basic foundation in Architecture. It consists of a series of selected answers from a one-hour examination given to First Year Design students in Theory of Planning.

Explain briefly what Architectural Design is. Architectural Design is the art and science of sheltering man's manifold activities. It is the inclusion of a volume by bounding surfaces which should happily integrate material function with the no less important psychological function of aesthetics . . . the design of a shelter for an activity which combines the most efficient organization of the space possible for that activity with the most advanced practical construction methods, and the most logical and economical materials.

How has the decline in Hand Craftsmanship influenced Design in Architecture? In the days when all craftsmanship was performed by hand, the buildings of importance combined much detail and ornament, both architectural and artistic. With the advent of the machine age and its accompanying speed, hand craftsmanship began to decline. To-day, it is practically non-existent. As a machine cannot compete with hand work in intricate beauty of detail, there has been much elimination of detail and ornamentation on buildings. Shearing a building of detail, however, does not necessarily contribute to modern planning. The roots of modern design lie far deeper than applied decoration. Just because an ornament is machine-made does not condemn its quality, so long as it is not a copy of hand work and so long as it is expressive of our times. The elimination of hand craftsmanship has changed architecture insofar as surface treatments have simplicity as a keynote, with any designs on the building being abstract and more structural in appearance.

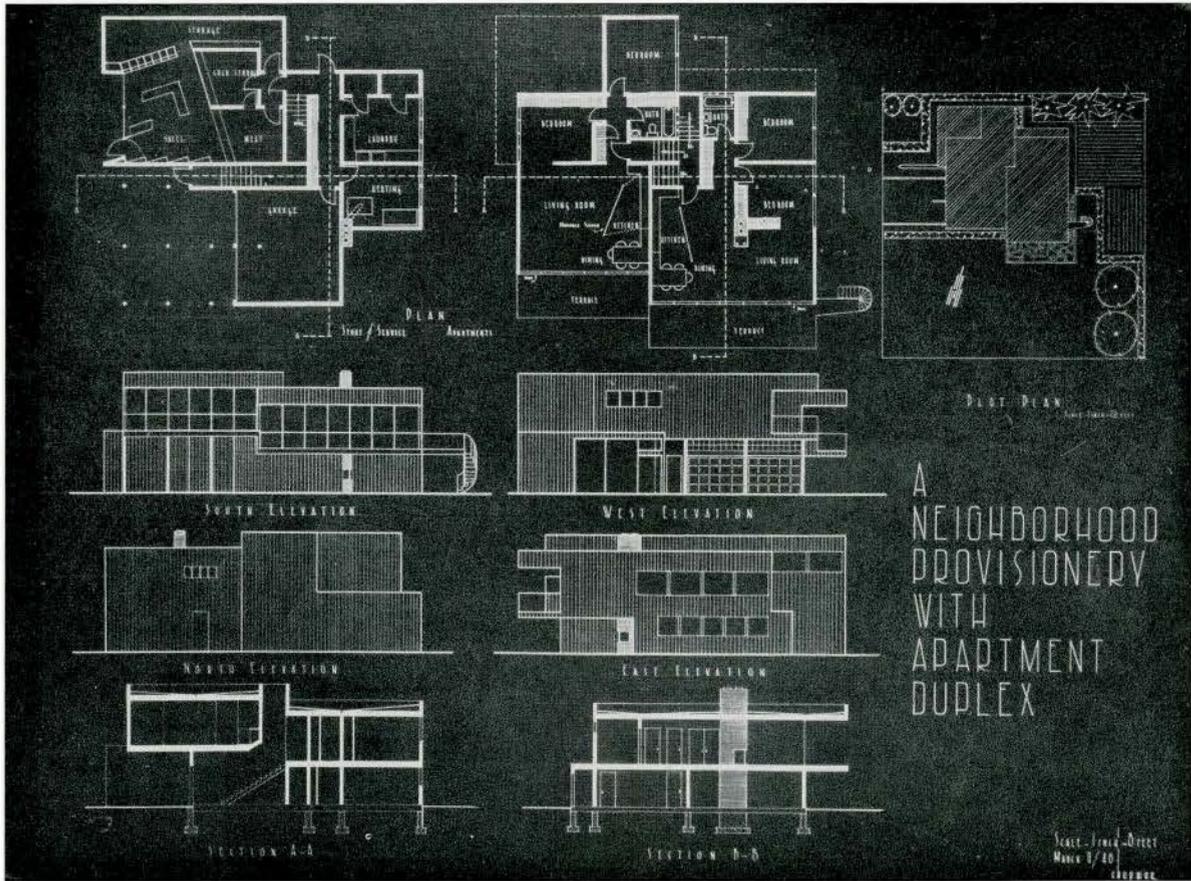
Discuss the relationship of Character in a building to its Design. In designing a building it is necessary that this building achieve a feeling of its own if it is to take its place as an individual object and receive recognition. This feeling is imparted through various means. First, the function of a building should impart character to it; a school should have the feeling of a school, and not that of a factory, though to-day certain items in both are similar. Character may also be imparted by the materials used. Brick and stone have a certain solidity and a quality about them which is transmitted to the building in which they are used. The method of construction,

whether the masonry walls are bearing walls or a steel skeleton with a veneered masonry surface to keep out the weather, adds to the feeling of character. The site or location, and the handling of the building on the site all contribute greatly to the success of a design. If in design, the appropriate feeling of character is not achieved, the building will not live. Character should be honest and should not confuse or humble a person, unless the building were designed with that in mind.

What influence does Transportation have upon Architecture? Our mode of life to-day is entirely different from that of even half a century ago. Changes are taking place that we find are hard to keep up with. All about us is a changing world, and one of these changes is transportation. Transportation is speedier, greater carrying power is here; inaccessible regions may now be reached. All this has had a great influence upon architecture. In early days, when transportation was slow and uncertain, people tended to group their needs as closely together as possible. The factories, homes, shops, etc., were all within easy reach of the person on foot. We find to-day that factories are moved away from the residential districts, and in turn, residences are removed from the large shopping areas. These things have been accomplished through the use of the railroad, the automobile, the rapid transit, and the airplane. Transportation has also affected Trade and Commerce, which have in turn affected Architecture. The old Mediterranean seaports thrived on sea-going trade. Railroads have now replaced the minor inland waterways. Transportation of material also has affected architecture to-day. Transportation, for all its influence upon architecture, has injected a problem in urban areas, and the congestion and lack of parking space will unquestionably influence architecture in the future.

Contrast the methods of the Beaux-Arts System to the Concept of Spatial Planning. The Beaux-Arts System was one of restrictive eclecticism. From the library of historic architecture, architects chose elements (of no structural significance in steel and concrete buildings) and composed them in facades, using principles of symmetry, proportion, rhythm, etc. These facades were foremost, and interiors suffered a loss in efficiency. A working plan was dictated and restricted by the necessity to conform with the imposing, expensive, and expressive facade, which often cut light from important areas and hopelessly cramped working space.

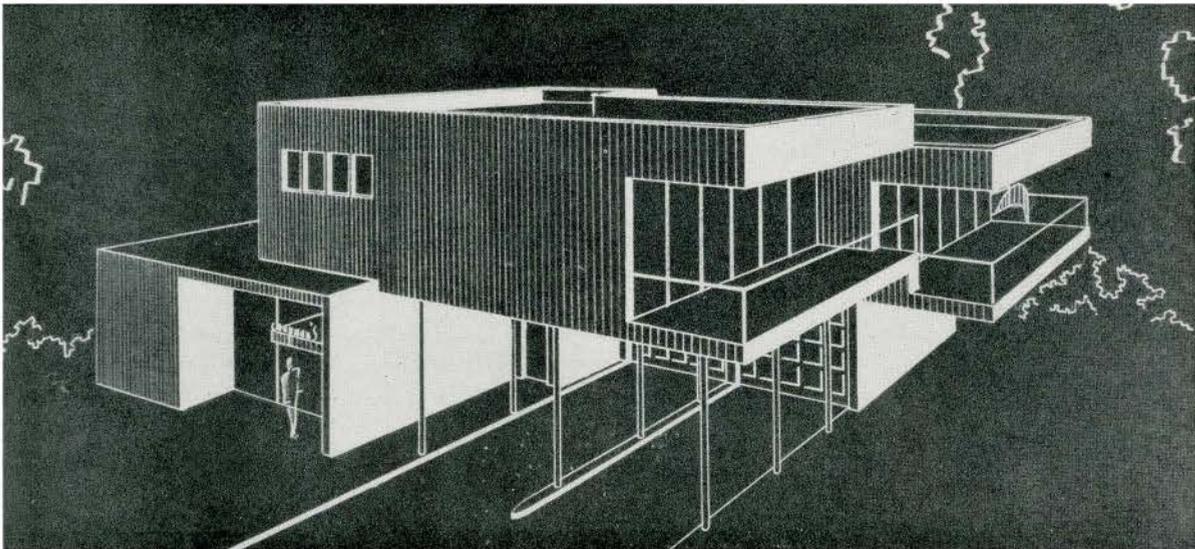
In Spatial Planning, the designer deals directly with three dimensional volumes, and with an understanding of cubic contents. He thinks of architecture as space within space, not as solids within space, and he approaches from general conception to detail in contrast to the approach under the Beaux-Arts System.

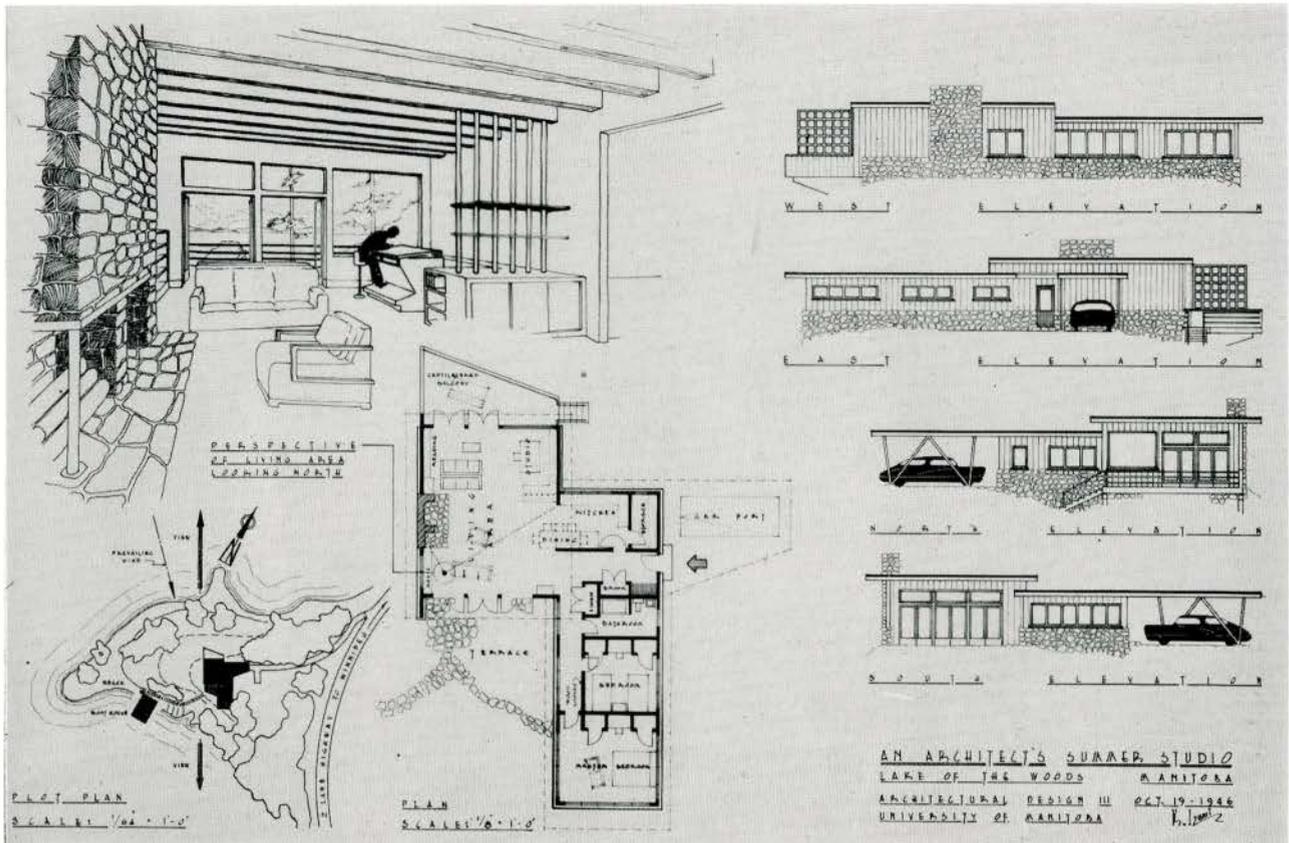


A NEIGHBOURHOOD PROVISIONERY WITH DUPLEX APARTMENT

D. N. Chapman
 ARCHITECTURAL DESIGN II
 FOUR WEEKS

This provisionery is to be constructed in the isolated section of the new Wildwood Development in Fort Garry. The store itself will be semi-self-service. In addition to the necessary service and storage areas on the first floor, an apartment duplex is to be provided on the second level—one apartment being for the provisioner and the other for rental purposes. This preliminary design stage was followed by a five week development of working drawings and details in conjunction with Building Construction I.





AN ARCHITECT'S SUMMER STUDIO

K. Izumi

ARCHITECTURAL DESIGN III

THREE WEEKS

A summer studio for an architect is to be built on an isolated point of land in the Lake of the Woods region. The studio is to provide space for privacy and solitude, and at the same time allow for a quiescent architectural practice. Special consideration for orientation and view are required. Additional accommodation for guests are provided in a combination guest-bath-boathouse, which is not a part of this problem.



FOURTH DIMENSIONAL PLANNING

A FANTASTIC PHANTASY

By H. Williams, Architecture 2

AS MUCH as the Architectural school is pleased to find genius among its various types of students, it is admitted that too much can be dangerous. There is one Second Year student, for example, who had to be burned at the stake despite the fact that burning witches has been frowned upon for many years. This boy had psychic powers it is claimed, and carried about him an "air" of mystery. He is reported to have mesmerized a critic, sending the poor fellow on his back in a stupor, from which he never fully recovered. Fortunately there happened to be plenty of critics in the faculty at the time, so it didn't matter much.

But to continue with the story — a problem was due at the end of the week. Most of the students had arrived at this period still without a usable plan. Gaston, (that's our boy of genius), was poring over his board, his brow glistening with beads of sweat. A fellow student leaned over the other side and said:

"Why don't you try fourth dimension?"

Gaston, (pronounced something like piston), replied, "I've just come to that conclusion myself. I need to put a surgery with North light somewhere between this office and the living room, which ought to be cantilevered out over the fish pond, and the only plausible solution is to put it right inside this partition. That's it! Eureka! If I put the surgery inside the partition by means of fourth dimension, it'll not only have North light, it'll have free access to the incinerator. As a matter of fact, now I can bring the filling station with the combination grease rack and beauty parlour right in between the public lavatory and the janitor's duffle bag."

With that he folded up his tracings and left the draughting room. No one knows exactly what transpired in the next few days but they say that blue sparks and weird noises issued from his room in the belfry of the Residence. The evening that the design problem was due, Gaston's rendering sheet appeared on the pile with only his name and pink coloured square about two inches in dimension, carefully draughted in one corner. Gaston was called into the office. The professor looked at Gaston, his complexion about the same hue as his most popular tie, and pointing at the rendering, demanded, "What's the meaning of this?" "It's fourth dimensional." "Fourth dimensional?" "That's right. Just hang it up and watch it when you judge the others." The professor was unimpressed. An hour later, haggard but triumphant, Gaston emerged from the office. He had won his first round. The rendering would stay.

A tranquil week or so passed by in which Gaston and his class started on a new problem. Then the day came when the staff took on the responsibility of marking the finished ones. Into a large room the presentations were moved, Gaston's among them, and the professors began to pull them piece from part, discuss them, lament over them, and classify them. Gaston's would fit into no classification. After all, a two inch pink square was not the solution to a problem.

But lo! when the first medal plan was decided upon, something began to happen on Gaston's rendering board. The square began to subdivide, splitting off forms and squares like a cell multiplying, and lines began to flit about the sheet like a cartoon movie. The professors stared, horror stricken.

"Look," said one, "it's even better than the other. It actually has the living room cantilevered out over the fish pond." At that the living room shuddered and stretched itself out farther.

"And it's not only got North light in the surgery, but the surgery has a hot dog stand right beside the escalator." The plan began to shuffle about furiously. "Now look," said a goggle-eyed professor, "just what we've been looking for. A view to the East where the moon comes over the slaughter house."

"It all seems to come from this partition. Everything is inside that wall." At this the whole design disappeared and nothing remained but the partition, a thin line of black. Then a weird crackling sound issued from the board. The line began to shiver and then to bulge. Suddenly a tremendous green dragon plunged into the room and the line shrunk to its original size. The professors raced, screaming and clawing at one another, out of the room — the green dragon bounding after them.

Up the stairs to the tower they went, and with wild shrieks and cries, they jumped from a window to the ground below. The dragon disappeared, the line from which it had emerged disappeared, and nothing remained but the pink square.

After the funeral for all the professors, a bonfire was made of Gaston's table, draughting board, tee square, and stool, and Gaston was tied and bound to four stakes which located him over the kindling. A match was lit to the pile and poor Gaston was duly burned.

U N I V E R S I T Y
O F M A N I T O B A

ARCHITECTURAL EDUCATION

By Shelagh Rounthwaite

Extract from a thesis on Architectural Education submitted by Mrs. C. F. T. Rounthwaite of the graduating class of 4T7, University of Toronto. This comprises that part of the thesis concerned with the architectural training to-day and not with the historical background.

THE subjects actually studied in preparation for the degree of Bachelor of Architecture vary to a certain extent in different schools and countries, but in the essentials the curricula are fairly similar in character. Briefly, the subjects comprising architectural courses leading to degrees are: architectural design, theory of architecture, history of architecture, structural design, and construction, services and equipment, specifications, surveying, town planning, professional practice, mathematics, uses of building materials, history of art, history of sculpture, photography, landscape architecture, furniture design, industrial design, etc. Complementary to these subjects which are directly architectural in their application it is significant that many schools consider the following interests vital to the modern architect;— law, modern world history, English, psychology and mass observation, business and economics, anthropology, public speaking, man and the social world, geology, geography, transportation, etc. The pro's and con's of including various items of this latter group could be argued indefinitely, but it is generally agreed that there is need to broaden the education and outlook of the architect.

The prime duty of the Schools is to give the student a thorough training and practice in the theory and application of architectural design. In this subject, more clearly than in any other, the results of the teaching of a school are revealed. The method of teaching design seems to be universally the "problem method". This system places the responsibility for the solution on the student from the beginning and his only assistance is obtained from the staff and other students in discussions and criticisms. In most schools the student is required to complete the problem allotted to him, though in the Beaux Arts School in Paris he may discard the work half-way through if he does not find it "suitable"! At this school the various programmes overlap one another so that there is no waiting between schemes. This procedure might well be followed in other schools, as it would allow greater latitude to those who wished to complete their problems ahead of schedule in order to concentrate on some special research. Also this would more closely resemble office practice where jobs run concurrently. The extra time to think about a problem would certainly be advantageous, as frequently material relating to other matters is uncovered during research on some particular problem.

The question of criticisms, both during the problems and afterwards, is one of vital importance to the students, and one of tedious hard work for the staff. The Architectural Association School in London has adopted a system which seems to have particular merit in that it involves student criticisms coupled with those of the staff and a visiting architect. Each design problem is attacked by the student with help from the studio instructor and visiting experts, who offer their services as the situations demand. When the subject is completed,

a jury consisting of the staff, a student, and a visitor, is held on the work. Formal criticism is then given each design by a member of the jury. As a result of such varied, unbiased opinion the danger of a student being forced into a narrow pattern of development is minimized. Even in these days of progress one hears of well-known schools which turn out designers who are mere pocket editions of some brilliant, but domineering, architect on the staff. There was actually a case within the last fifteen years where a certain professor would not accept any modern designs in the studio. This is almost unbelievable in an age where science has developed such daring advances as the atom bomb.

The matter of presentation of these design problems has led to heated controversy in and among the schools. Some advocate more attention to presentation and "selling" perspectives, others more attention to planning, design and construction. There is certainly need for a change from the flashy white tempera "rendering" on black paper which is, all too often, even hard for an architect to interpret! It is well-known that almost any building can be made to look respectable by dint of a few well placed shadows (leave them out if they don't add to the "picture"!) and some elegant trees clustered in front of the more glaring errors. However, the architectural schools are concerned with turning out architects, and, if possible, good delineators, but they should not stress presentation to such an extent that the student is more concerned with it than with the planning and design of the problem in hand. Mr. D. W. Orr, a well-known American architect, remarks in this respect: ". . . drawing should be considered only a mode of expression to present clearly the solution of the problem. The architect deals in ideas — drawing is the architect's tool, and the tool should never become more important than the object it is to portray and develop." It has been suggested that to promote more efficiency in presentation technique special rendering problems of a few days duration might be set. These should probably occur more frequently in the junior years — possibly three or four times each term. They would be required to do at least two fully rendered problems during the year, but the rest of the programmes might be restricted to plans, elevations and sections only. In the senior years the time previously devoted to elaborately rendered perspectives would be taken up in working out, completely, one or more wall sections. The increasing need for more practical designing in the schools, though not at the expense of originality and imaginativeness, would be met to a large extent in this way. There is always the danger that more sketchy presentation will tip the scale too far in that direction, but well organized assistance from the staff could surely produce very satisfactory results.

Far more about the massing and scale of a building can be determined from a small scale block model than from any number of faked perspectives. Many schools

are convinced of the merits of this method of presentation and many prefer it to perspective drawings. Small quick sketches of different details and parts of the building would be very useful complements to a scale block model. These models have been found to be of particular benefit to the junior years who are not quite as adept in visualizing the results of what they draw.

In this regard a few words might be said about the adoption of a consistent policy by the staff in their dealings with the junior years. Naturally, the opinions of the staff members may differ widely on certain matters and this is to be commended, if architecture is to develop and flourish. However, it has been found that if the junior years in their varying stages of confusion and indecision, are subjected to the conflicting opinions of their instructors, it merely adds to their dilemma. It is sound practice for the junior year instructors to confer and agree upon a general policy before the problems are distributed. In most cases this will facilitate their work during the marking of these problems and will be an immense aid to the students on problems about which few of them may have direct knowledge.

The matter of marking problems raises the question of competition on which there are many conflicting views. Obviously, there must be some way of grading a student's work and no better system has yet been evolved than that of allotting marks. It is interesting to note that in the Royal Academy of Fine Art, School of Architecture in Denmark, marks are dispensed with entirely after the first two terms. They are only used to form a basis for admitting those who wish to enter the third year directly without doing first and second. It is on record that in the schools where co-operation, independence and research are encouraged, and where marks and prizes count the least, the best work has been produced. Mr. R. Furneaux Jordan of the Architectural Association School said in a lecture, ". . . competition must vitiate all creative work. It introduces the fatal shadow of the third person—the judge." It is argued by others that competition sharpens one's senses; makes one put one's best foot forward. Architecture, however, is not a business to that extent; it is an art whose success depends on the co-operation of everyone from businessman to cleric. In connection with the grading of student designs, a successful system has been adopted by one of the schools in Canada. The student's work is considered on its merits in four fields—plan, character, presentation, and draftsmanship. These are individually marked with an "A" or "B", etc., and the student receives his score card. The staff then allots him an overall mark which is used to determine his year's average mark on the final examination.

This question of "policy" as regards the various groups should be one in which the whole staff has a voice—not just that professor who is directly responsible for a particular year. The whole student body should be bound together by certain basic ideas and principles

which the staff has inculcated into them. Very often in a large school this approach to the design problems is lacking and the professor in charge, because he is the most direct influence on that group, secures results which are close replicas of his own solution. It would seem to be desirable to have members of the staff, other than those in attendance during the designing stage, to judge the problems. In this way, there would be less danger of the jury forming pre-conceived ideas on various aspects of the programme and also, very often, a fresh mind does more justice to the different solutions than a slightly weary one.

Drafting room policy also involves the ratio of students to instructor. The R.I.B.A. in their report on education recommends a maximum of twenty students per instructor. This is probably adequate in the junior years where the problems of each are not very complex. In the senior years, however, ten students per instructor, especially in the final year, should be the maximum. The problems and discussions increase as the student advances and if one instructor had to divide his time between twenty students in a three hour studio session the results would be of doubtful value.

The matter of presentation raises another question in the field of drawing — that of life drawing. It is felt by many that the time allotted to these classes is not sufficient to give more than a very cursory introduction to the subject. The R.I.B.A. report recommends that life drawing give way to topographical drawing, instruction being based on the work of 18th century masters. Thus, valuable time could be more profitably spent in acquiring skill in another branch of draftsmanship of more direct use to the architect. Many schools are now concentrating on further studies in composition, abstract design and spatial relationships. These would seem to give more scope to the imagination and further develop that quality so essential to the successful architect. It has been argued that life drawing makes one more adept in drawing figures on rendered perspectives and elevations. In this case it would seem that two hours a week is a disproportionate amount of time to spend perfecting an unimportant aspect of rendering. That time would be more profitably employed actually learning and practising rendering techniques.

It is the practice now for the student in his final year to prepare a thesis which involves preliminary sketches, working drawings and specifications, handled as they would be in actual practice. The student chooses his own subject and writes his programme having done the necessary research beforehand. The average time allotted to this problem is four to five months of the final year. Provided the student organizes his time properly there should be no trouble in getting a fair amount of the work completed, but it is unfair to expect one student in his studio time during three months to prepare complete working drawings of, for example, a ten storey office building. It has been recommended by some

schools that as much as ten months be allotted to the problem and that more attention be given to large scale details. There is the exceptional student who will have many details at his fingertips after some years of office experience, but for the most part this is not the case. Surely it would be more beneficial to the student to graduate with a comprehensive set of working drawings comprised largely of well thought out details than incomplete plans and elevations sparsely dimensioned. There is strong feeling in some quarters that the fifth year student would learn far more if he had charge of a group of junior students to do the actual drafting on his thesis problem. In this way he would have time to work up large scale details with some effectiveness and also, the junior years would gain much useful knowledge of detailing practice. The organization and thought that a graduating student would have to devote to such a procedure would be far more profitable than spending hours drawing in brickwork or cross-hatching on tile partitions.

In this regard there does not seem to be sufficient attention paid to specification writing in the final year. As the thesis design requires one trade to be fully specified, the advantages of actually learning to write specifications would be manifold. Too often the student copies verbatim some specification he has used for three or four summers in the office in which he has worked. If instruction in this subject were closely related to be brief study of quantities and estimates sufficient and integrated knowledge of both would be obtained. On the whole these are not studied together in the schools and the results are of doubtful value under the present system. Further advantage would accrue if specification writing were learned in conjunction with laboratory tests in the properties and uses of materials.

A vital part of the curriculum of an architectural school should be organized field trips to jobs under construction. These should be arranged so that the students visit the job at regular intervals to see the building in various stages of development. Too often these trips are mere holiday excursions and little or no benefit is derived. To counteract this, reports and sketches submitted at the end of the series of trips and marked by the staff should be required. This system has been introduced with notable success in many schools and is strongly recommended in the R.I.B.A. report. Here a sound grounding in Basic English would be a great asset.

This matter of reports and research has been taken a step further in Denmark, where, in the senior years, the students form groups to conduct extensive research into some current building problem. These reports are of such a calibre that they are published and used by practising architects as handbooks on specialized subjects. There is obviously extreme value in the organization of such data into an orderly volume of information. Here, again, close collaboration between students and the profession works to the advantage of both.

Measured drawings seem to have become an exercise performed by the students during the summer with no particular relation to the rest of the course. If this work were carried out in conjunction with research into the history period of the house and a report were prepared on it, surely more lasting benefits would accrue. Also, it would be useful if large scale details of supposed window, door and wall sections were submitted. In this way insight into the craftsmanship of earlier times would develop and form a sound basis for a working knowledge of present day methods and potentialities.

In regard to structural design, there is an increasing tendency to include more in the courses. This is to be highly commended because even though an architect should not make himself independent of the allied professions, there is endless advantage in being able to anticipate, approximately, during the planning stages, what the structural framing system will be. Also in developing an economical and functional building the architect, depending on his knowledge of construction, can facilitate the work of the structural designer in no small way. Similarly, in regard to the services and equipment required for various types of building, the architect's acquaintance with their uses and purposes will enable the specialists to co-operate more effectively with him. The services and equipment include such subjects as acoustics, lighting, heating, ventilating, air-conditioning, plumbing, and electricity. The schools vary as to the detail in which these subjects are taught, but basically they cover the same ground. There is always the danger that these subjects will be presented with a disproportionate amount of technical detail and mathematical formula attached. For the architect's purposes the fundamental theories, well illustrated with practical applications and solutions of actual problems, will serve to far better advantage than the proof of some elaborate equation.

The place of History of Architecture in the undergraduate course is most important. Not only does it increase his knowledge of the profession he has chosen, but it is essential if he is to appreciate the position of architecture in the world to-day. The historian is able to look back over history and isolate the significant facts—those which contributed to the development of life and architecture as we know it. History of architecture should bring the student through a comprehensive outline, extending over four years, from early Egypt right up to the latest developments of the twentieth century. Only by such continuity of thought will he achieve comprehensive insight into his art.

There should be a real attempt to correlate the work in the studio with that being covered in the more technical lectures, especially in the matter of construction and structural design. Also, it would seem to be more logical if various phases of certain subjects could be taught continuously through the four senior years. This system is followed in the teaching of structural design and there is every reason to do likewise in the matter of plumbing, heating, town planning, uses of building materials, etc. Students will agree unanimously that any subject that is crammed into one term is not properly digested and is soon forgotten, partially at least.

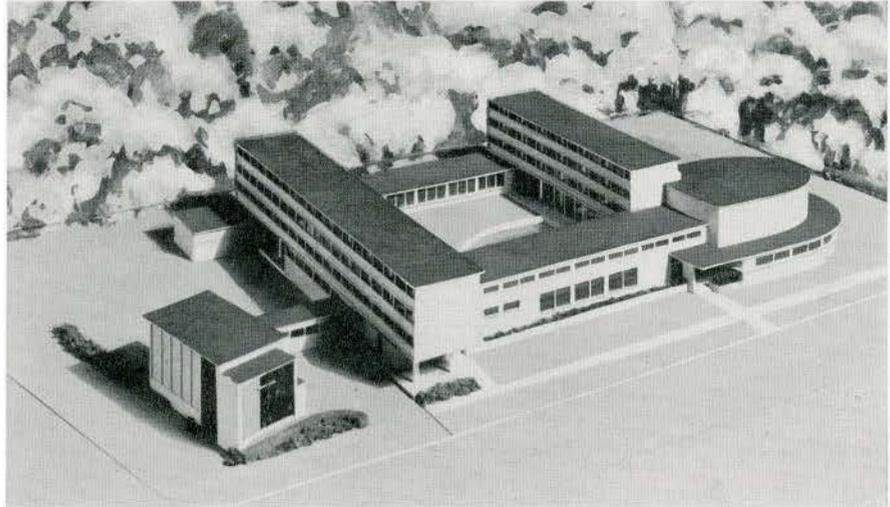
The extent to which the liberal arts subjects, or "humanities" are included in the school curriculum will depend largely on the views of the staff and the university authorities. Some American universities require a year or two in an arts course before admission is granted to a professional course, such as architecture. Their view is that they wish to turn out men who are as much scholars as technicians. There are definite advantages to this system of concentrating the more intellectual subjects in the first year or two rather than trying to mix them in with the purely technical courses. The tendency in the latter case is to let the "non-technical" subjects slide if the student is behind in the year's work. Many look upon the intrusion of these "intellectual" subjects as just a whim of the staff and can see in their pursuance no direct relation to their future earning power. This is, of course, absolutely contrary to the aims of a university which is primarily a learned institution, not a mere technical school. The range of subjects which the various schools recommend as complementary to the technical courses is most ambitious and if even half these were included in the architectural courses the profession would be the better for it.

To summarize briefly what architectural education to-day is trying to accomplish, the words of Mr. Henry Morris of England seem particularly appropriate: "The greatest need in the world to-day is for the artist, architect, philosopher, and administrator, to sit down and think out the richest and fullest kind of modern city which will provide for every aspect of our corporate and personal existence." To enable the architect to co-operate with these other specialists to the full extent of his professional heritage, education to-day must be on a broad background of technical, sociological and humanistic studies. No longer is it sufficient for the architect to be "a master of painting and sculpture", he must also know and understand his fellow man—the man whose thoughts and beliefs architecture reflects through the ages.

WYCLIFFE COLLEGE

J. W. Storey, Fourth Year

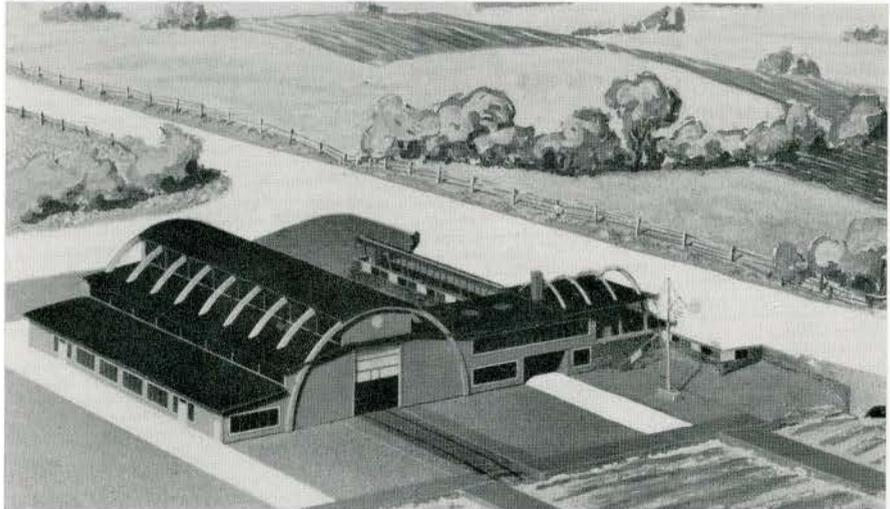
The model illustrates a solution to the problems of a new Wycliffe College at the University of Toronto keyed to an actual site and with the plan requirements worked out in close association with the College. The design of the building caused some considerable discussion in ecclesiastical circles.



BOAT FACTORY

R. G. Calvert, Third Year

A problem on the design of an industrial building to house the manufacturing of pleasure craft. Once again the precedent was an actual plant which was visited by the students.



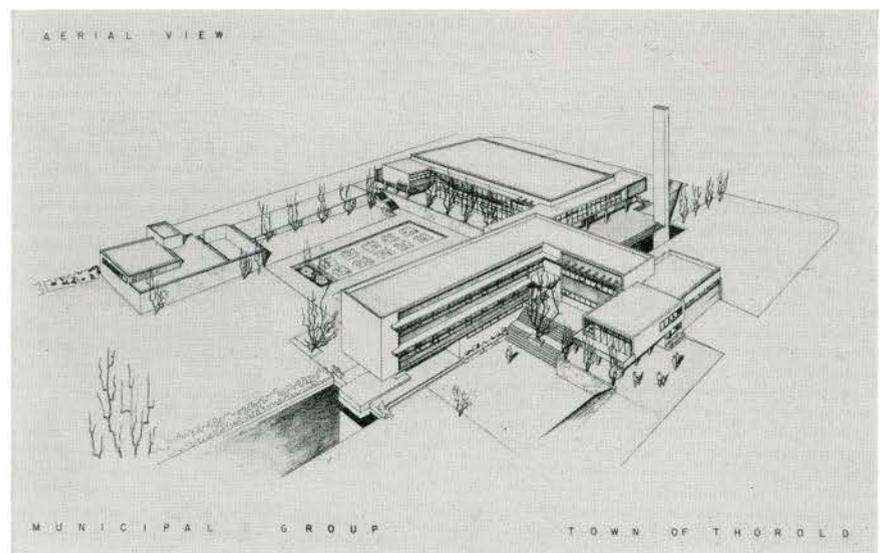
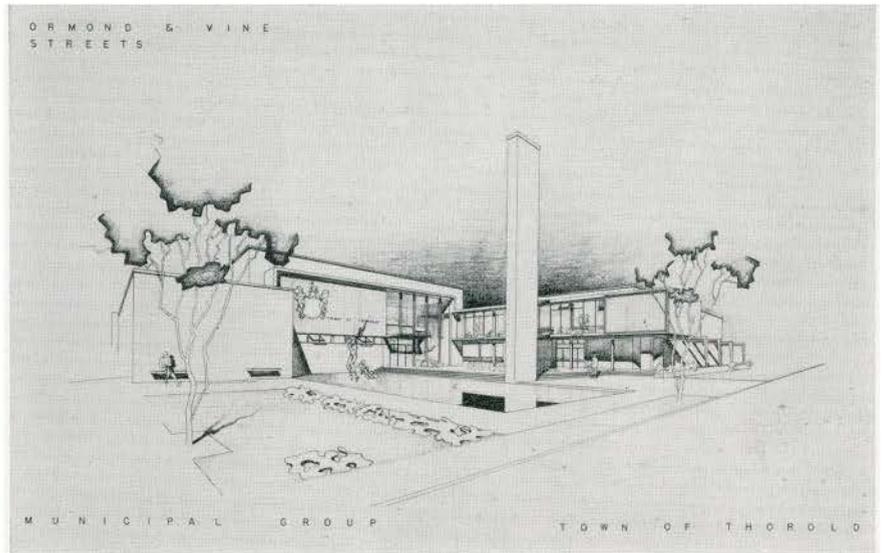
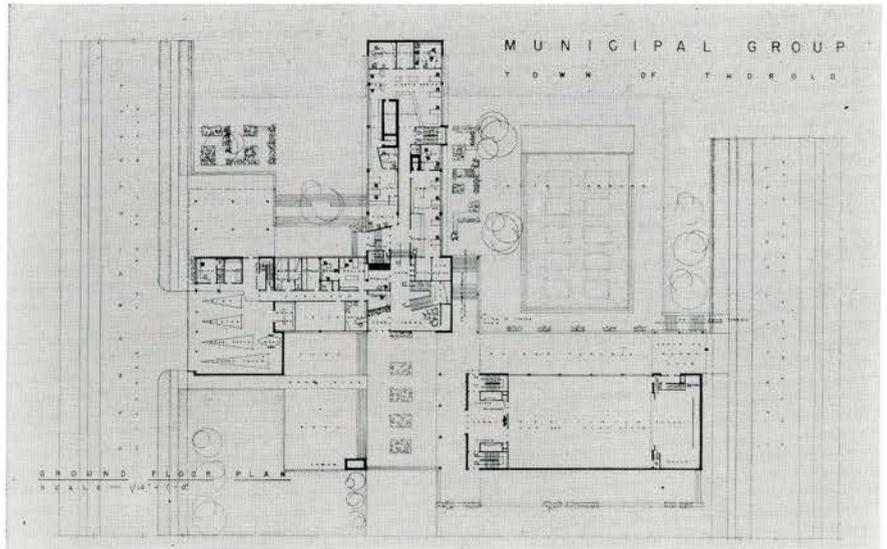
HOUSE

J. B. Craig, Second Year

The important design problem in second year is a small house which is supplemented by residential working drawings later in the year.



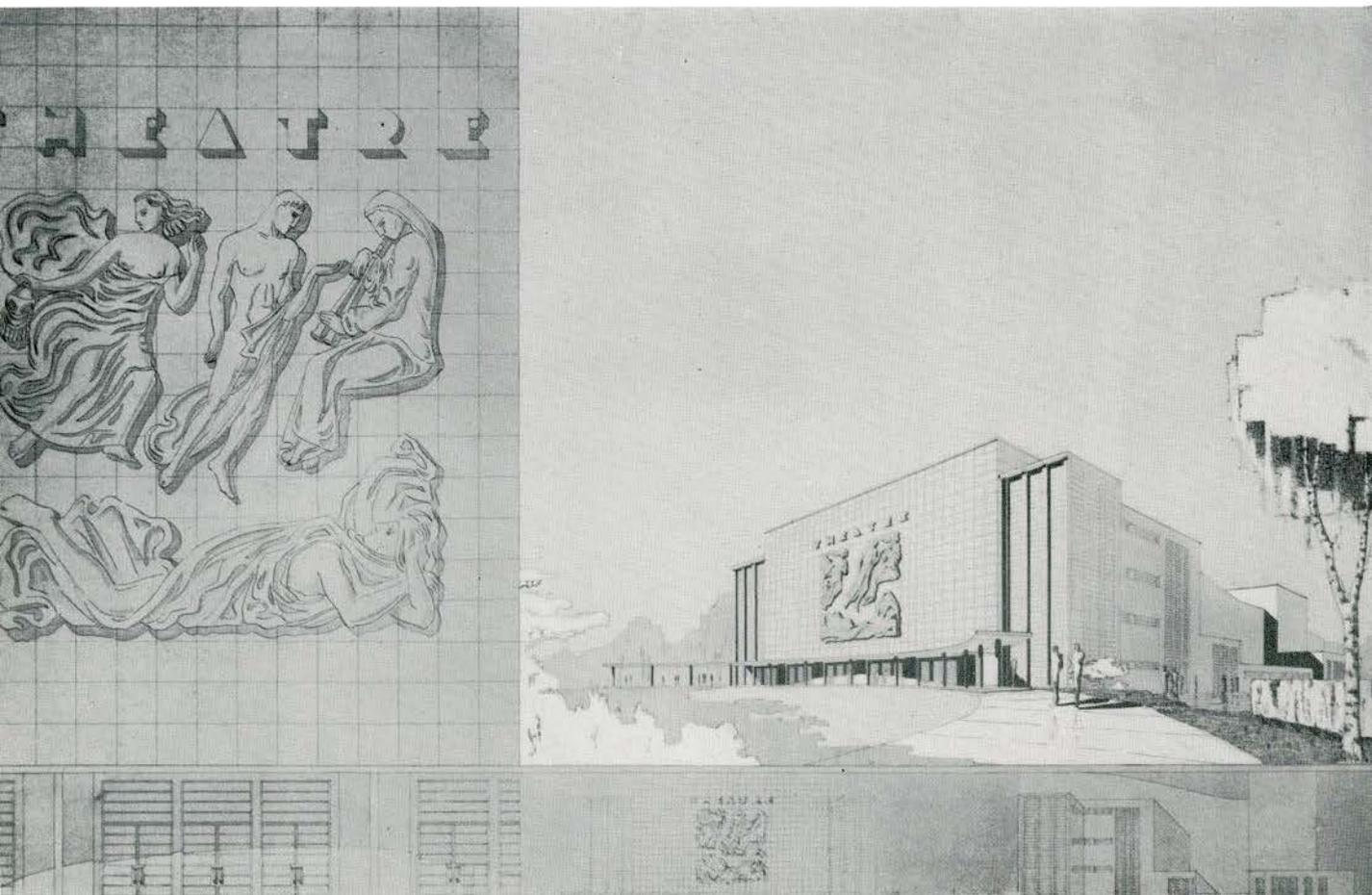
UNIVERSITY OF TORONTO



A TOWN HALL FOR
THOROLD, ONTARIO

R. H. WILLIAMS

ÉCOLE DES BEAUX-ARTS DE MONTRÉAL



UNE FACADE DE THEATRE

J. F. DE BELLEVAL

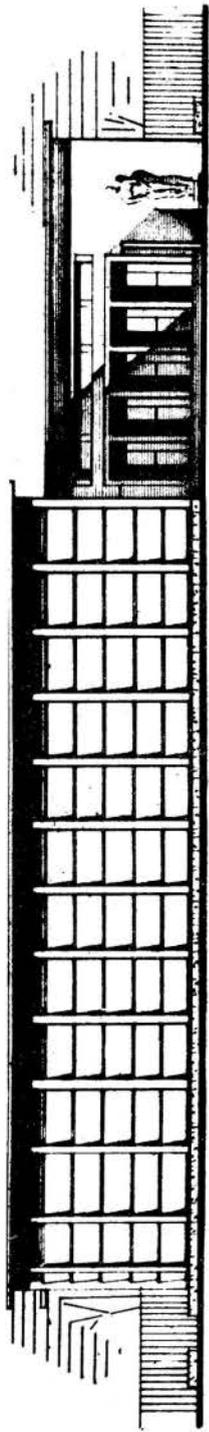
UN CENTRE DE NATION



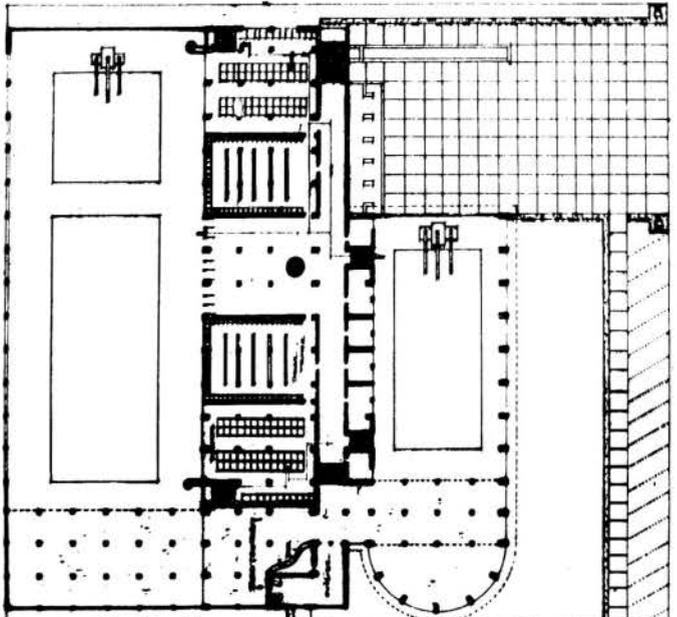
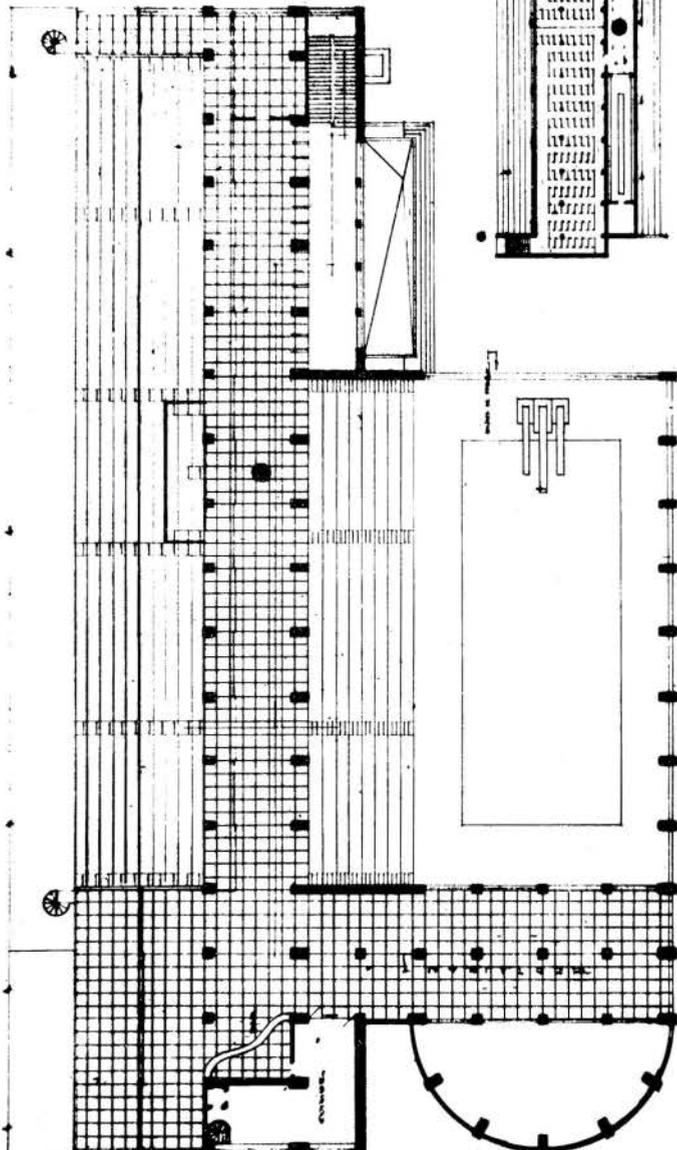
PLANS: J. F. DE BELLEVAL

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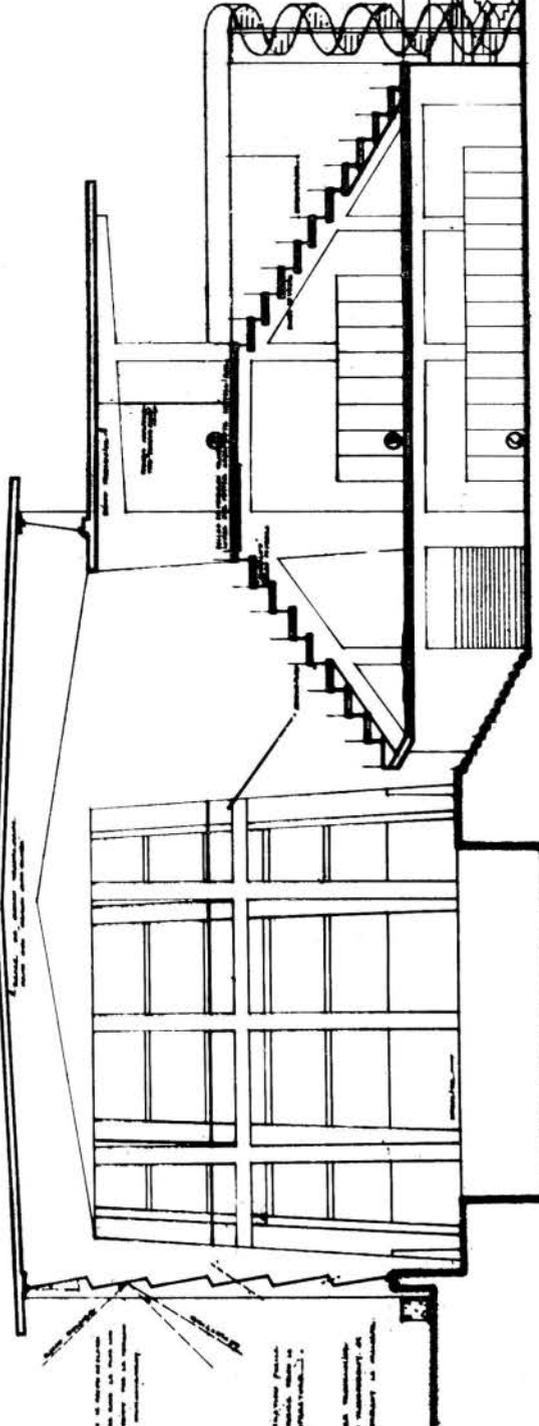
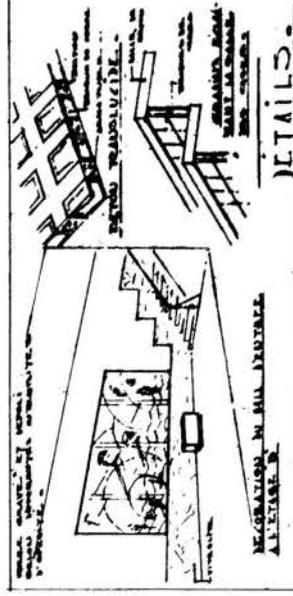
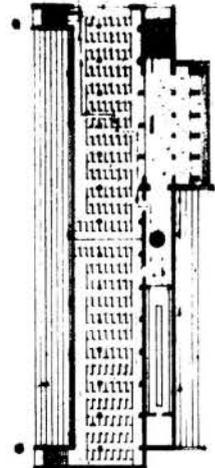
J. Y. LANGLOIS ET J. CHARBONNEAU



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McGILL UNIVERSITY

A STUDENT CENTRE ON MCGILL CAMPUS

Report on Final Design—Ala Mendelsohn

THE urgent need for a place where students may plan and enjoy their extra curricular activities is generally felt on McGill Campus.

The actual Union Building situated at 690 Sherbrooke street W., is regarded to be the centre for student activities, but it has been outgrown by the increased number of students and by their ever more numerous clubs and societies.

The McGill Union was a gift of Sir William Macdonald. It was built in 1908 as a private club for the undergraduate male students at McGill University. The house was donated ready-made to the students, that is, it was built without any preliminary inquiry into students' needs. The Union Building was then considered the finest club building in Montreal. A membership fee of \$5.00 a year was supposed to pay for its expenses.

The enrollment of men students in 1908 was about 1,200, but only those willing to pay the \$5.00 fee were considered members of the club. No coeds were allowed to use the building except on special occasions.

When the financial situation of the club grew bad, a resolution was passed to make every McGill man student a member of the Union by adding a \$3.50 fee to his University fee. The building then became the centre of student activity on the campus.

Offices were given to the Students' Executive Council, the McGill Daily the campus newspaper, to the Students' Employment Bureau, the McGill Annual, the Book Exchange and the Players Club. The recreational facilities, like ping-pong, billiards and the reading lounge, were now available to all men students. Clubs and Societies could hold their meetings in Union rooms. Students could get meals in the Union Cafeteria, and sandwiches and soft drinks in the Grillroom. The large ball room, the cafeteria and the grillroom could be rented for dances, club banquets and mass meetings. Those are still the actual conditions, except that the ballroom is used as a lunchroom during noon hours, and so takes the overflow from the grillroom.

During the last years of the prewar period McGill University had an average enrollment of about 3,000 to 3,200 students. To-day, due to returning veterans, McGill and Dawson College handle 6,800 students, 5,500 on McGill Campus'. Next year McGill will have to cope with 9,000 students. It has been estimated that after the peak load has been taken care of in the next five years, McGill will have a normal registration of from 4,000 to 5,000 students. We may conclude that a building designed to provide facilities for a few hundred members can hardly suffice the needs of a student body of 5,000. Coeds now have to be included into the number of

students making use of the Union, as they are equally active in the various clubs and societies. During the war, girls were allowed to use the eating facilities of the cafeteria and the grill room, as Strathcona Hall, where coeds could get meals before the war, was taken over by the school for teachers. Practically all rooms, except for the reading lounge, are used by all students. Asking a cross section of boys why the reading lounge is always empty, they thought it is because girls are not allowed to enter it!

¹1945-46.

Summary of students' opinions concerning the actual Union and considering a new building:

The Union does not provide for enough meeting places. The existing meeting rooms are unfriendly.

The cafeteria and grillroom are too small.

The ball room is inadequate for decorations, ugly place; too small for big dances, no overflow space, and too large for small dances.

The building should be located on the campus.

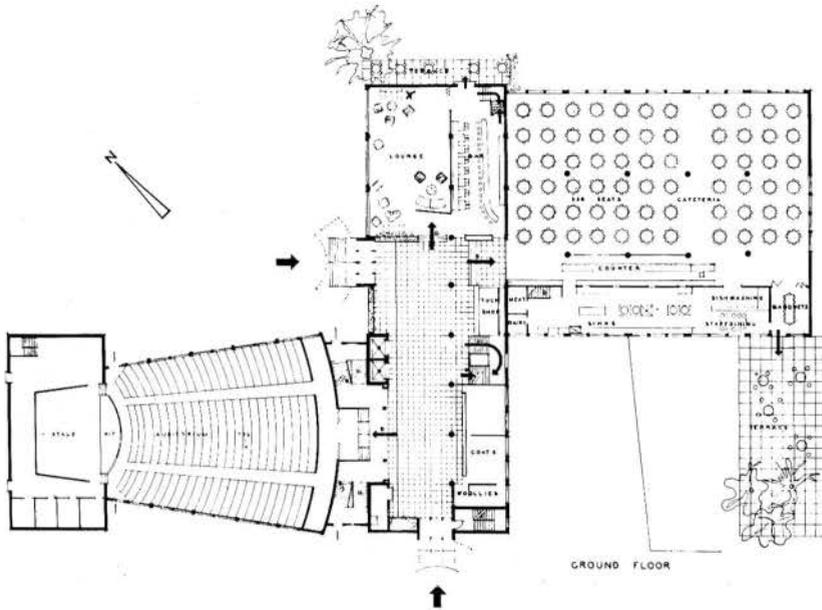
It lacks: Well lighted and quiet lounges, reading and study rooms; Music room; Bookstore; Hobby rooms; Modern Wash rooms.

Living accommodations for students occupying executive positions.

All students interviewed, except one, who happened to be the president of the student society, want the building to be co-educational.

A committee was set up to consider the possibilities of extending the actual Union or the building of a new one. At the first meeting, Dick Balfour, President of the Student Society for the year 1945-46, stated that the Union should be the community centre on the campus. Gus Richter, President of the Union for the year 1945-46, stressed the educational scope of the Union.





Short Analysis of 3 Student Centres: Hart House, University of Toronto. Built as a memorial. Dedicated in 1919. "Seeks to provide for all the activities of the undergraduates' life which lie outside the lecture rooms". The building was designed in the gothic manner, built around a quadrangle. It contains a Hall, similar to those found in Oxford and Cambridge; common rooms; a library; lecture room; music room; a small chapel, together with rooms for the use of the Student Christian Association, a special request of the donor; a studio for painting and sketching; photographic dark rooms; billiard room; senior common rooms and dining rooms for both faculty and graduate members; a few bed rooms for guests; a small, fully equipped theatre seating 500, and many athletic facilities.

Every male undergraduate is required to be a member of the Hart House, toward the upkeep of which he pays a small fee. Women may only use the Hart House on special occasions, as for plays and balls.

The warden, who is directly responsible to the president of the University, is entrusted with the supervision of the whole house, but to a large extent it is managed by the students themselves. At least 80 men, elected annually by their fellows, serve on the various committees. The object of the founders was to erect a building that should not only pay attention to the "material" comfort of the student, but should also make full provision for his spiritual development".

The activities centering around the sketch room, equipped for drawing and painting, play an important part in the life of the house. Every month an exhibition of paintings is held, sometimes the work of some Toronto artist, or it may be a collection of Japanese prints, or Cezanne drawings. The camera club, an active organization, possesses a fully equipped dark room and holds annual exhibitions in the sketch room. An interesting development in the musical activities of the house has

been the inauguration of a series of Sunday concerts where leading Toronto musicians give their services free.

Coffman Memorial Union, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis. The Union is the realization of the idea expressed by the late president of the University, Lotus D. Coffman, when he commented: "It is true that if one stripped the University to its barest essentials, its intellectual life would remain. Nevertheless, students are not in the classrooms and laboratories all of the time. It is for this reason that the University is interested in maintaining a proper social environment and also in making its buildings and campus as attractive as possible."

The Coffman Union is the centre of all student life on the campus of the University of Minnesota. It is practically a small city in itself. It is the place where the entire University body, students, faculty members and alumni meet informally.

It contains such services as a U.S. Post Office, a bookstore, barber and beauty shop, an underground garage, a radio control room where 10 separate programmes can be sent out through loudspeakers to lounges, dining rooms, etc. The basement contains 16 bowling alleys, a lunchroom for students, storage, mechanical equipment room and service quarters. On the next two floors there are large public lounges, smaller lounges to serve specialized needs, restaurants, a cafeteria and an outdoor terrace cafe, a huge ballroom and various offices and game rooms. A large number of rooms are provided for various student organizations and university fraternal groups that need permanent offices on the campus. Several large meeting rooms may be used by clubs and campus groups. In the Music and Fine Art room musical concerts are performed in person, or delivered from the main radio control room. Art exhibits are hung there.

The upper floors are occupied by the bedrooms for faculty and club members. Portions of the roof are used

as terraces. The Union is built for both sexes, but provides for separate lounges if desirable.

Proposed Campus and Student Centre, Wayne University, Detroit. In 1943 Wayne University held a competition for a new Student Centre building. The Student Centre is scheduled for immediate construction. Wayne's mostly adult student body live at distances from the campus which make it impossible for them to go home during the school day. It is in urgent need of a place for recreation. The design of the Centre is based upon exhaustive studies of faculty-student committees. It provides large and flexible facilities for study and social life.

The first floor contains a lecture hall, a cafeteria seating 500 which can double as a study hall, and a kitchen which also serves the ballroom on the second floor.

The second floor contains a large two-storey ballroom with service facilities for banquets for 570 persons. Folding, soundproof doors permit subdivision into smaller rooms, while storage space is provided for changes in furnishing.

The third floor includes a large lounge; a sound-proofed music room with apparatus for playing and storing records, and a small dining room. The top floor is devoted to a suite of 22 offices for various student organizations and activities; four conference rooms which can be subdivided by folding partitions. The roof is partly used as a sun terrace. The building will be used by men and women students. Construction will be a concrete frame, and stone veneer finish.

Student centres on university campuses in the United States are recognized as having the same importance as any other faculty building. Their educational and recreational scope makes them a necessity for modern student life.

On McGill campus an appropriate building could enable students to contribute more widely to the cultural life of the city. They would be able to invite guest speakers, produce plays, and arrange exhibitions. Students would gain experience in social and artistic affairs, and at the same time a large public would make itself familiar with young and new ideas.

In choosing a site for the McGill Student Centre, the corner now occupied by the McCord Museum, seemed the most desirable place. If erected on this spot, it would be close to the most frequented buildings, the Redpath Library, the Arts Building, and the Engineering Building. Furthermore it would be near the downtown business centre, Sherbrooke street and St. Catherine street, where students might have appointments or shopping to do during their free hours. The Centre would be centrally located for the outside public in case of concerts, plays or exhibitions.

The proposed building comprises a central block, where the lounges, offices, coat rooms, and wash facilities are planned. A wing towards Sherbrooke street

contains a cafeteria serving 530 at one time, and a kitchen. A ballroom is on the upper floor. Between the wing and McTavish street is the service court, hidden away from the campus view. A terrace along Sherbrooke street might prove a pleasant sitting-out place.

A second wing houses the auditorium, seating 1,000 people, and stage facilities. It can be used for lectures with a large attendance.

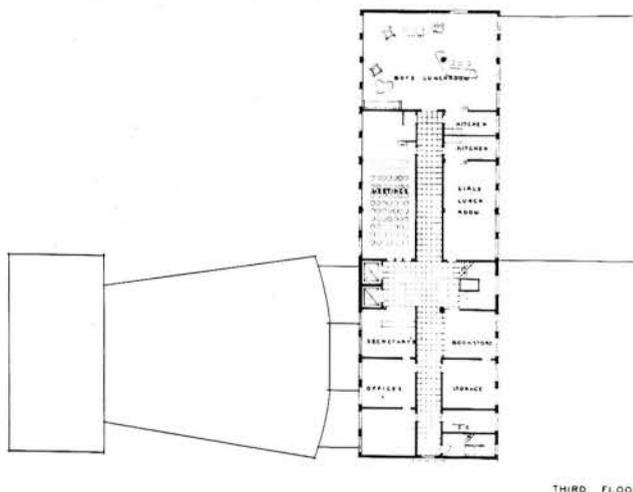
The Centre has two entrances, one from the campus, and a second from McTavish street. In planning the building, special consideration was given in providing for spare office, meeting, and hobby room space. Partitions are not bearing, and can be easily changed, if different planning should prove necessary. Floor additions can be made on the central block. The building will be flexible and adjust itself to the changing needs of the students, so it may not outlive its usefulness too soon.

The suggested construction is steel frame and concrete, with stone veneer. The exterior will reflect the construction. No attempt to copy any of the numerous styles on the campus has been made. But it is felt, that the building will fit more honestly in its surroundings than any pseudo-romanesque structure.

As Michael M. Hare, consulting architect of the association of college unions, rightly puts it:

"In the middle ages and the Renaissance nobody hesitated to place on a university campus a building in the contemporary manner adjacent to others of quite different periods, yet to-day this has been lost sight of, and a belief in uniformity has grown up which is in every way counter to the trends which existed during the period in which the architecture was developed. In our campus buildings we are still suffering from the eclecticism and academic approach of the latter half of the last century."

A contemporary architectural conception of a campus building, like the Student Centre, will not only provide students with comfortable rooms, but it might also teach them a new aesthetic approach.



THIRD FLOOR



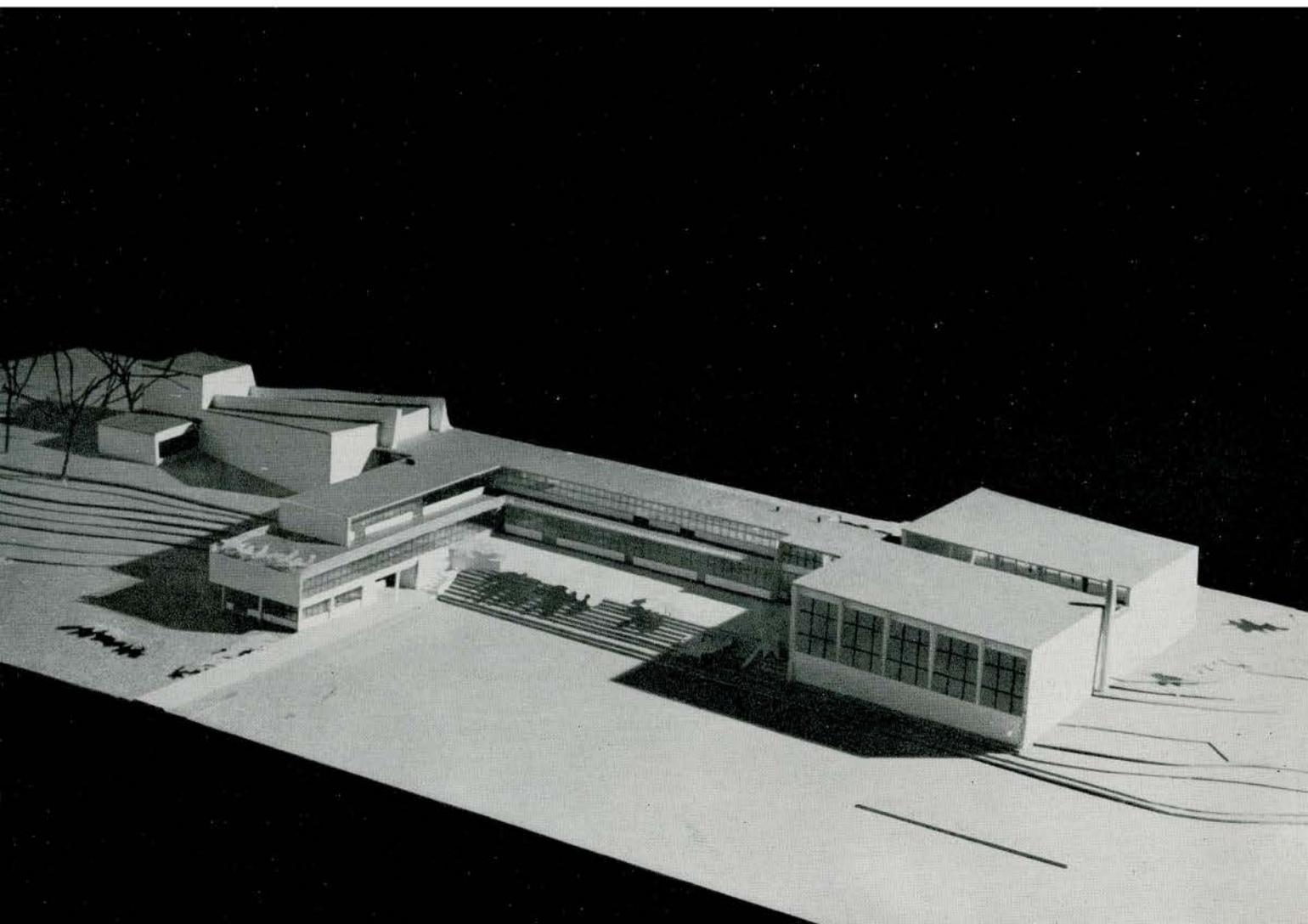
CONSERVATORIUM OF MUSIC

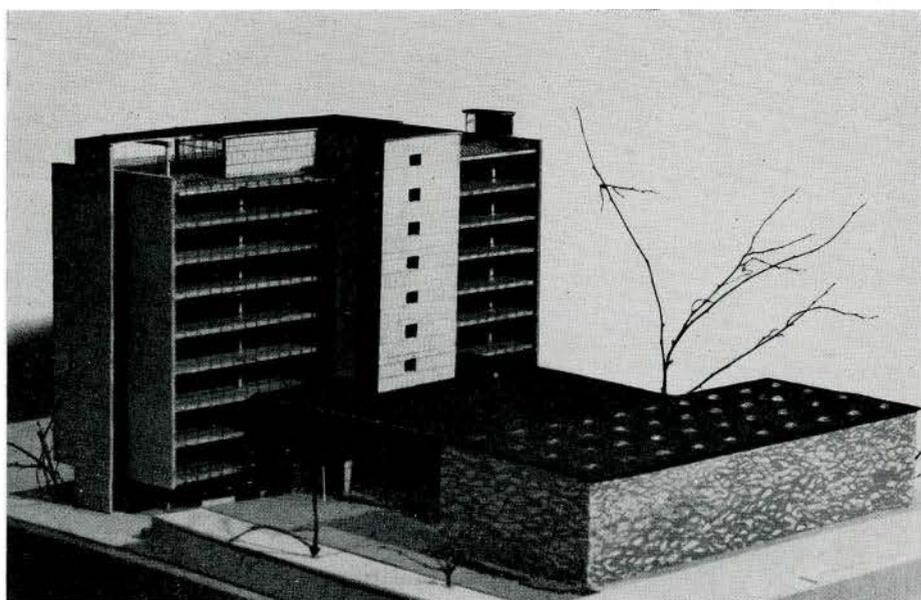
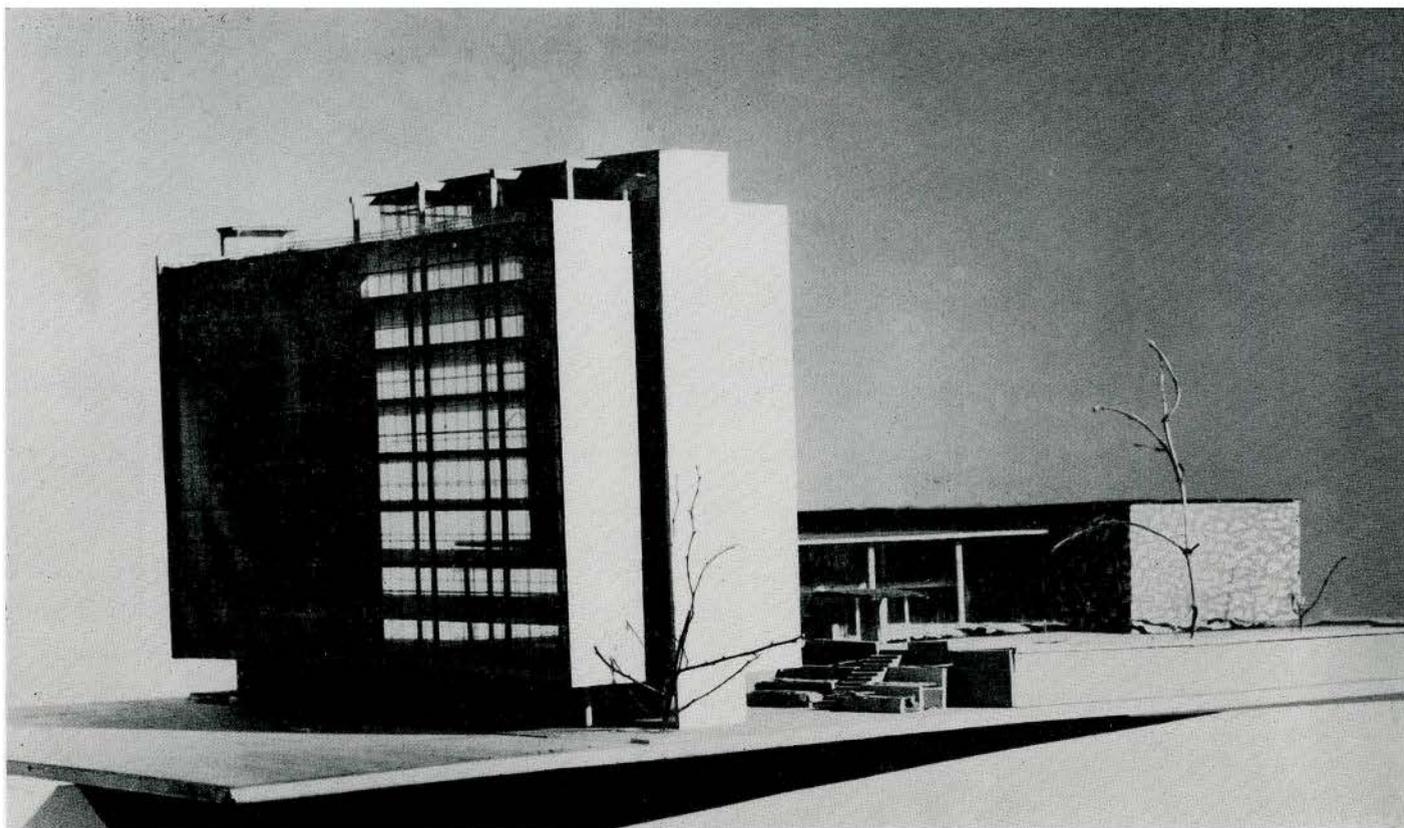
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THE SOCIAL ASPECTS OF TOWN PLANNING

By H. FLIESS

THE CITY arises out of man's social and economic needs — when it no longer satisfies these needs it ceases to be an effective physical organism. In our time the city has come very close to such a stage. The industrialization and the rapid expansion of the cities, which were governed largely by the individual pursuit of pecuniary gain, have left us with cities of tremendous size which lack some of the most elementary social needs. If proof is needed it is only necessary to point out some of the outward signs of this social integration—the juvenile delinquency, the crime and vice, and the mental disease, which have taken on such towering proportions in the city. Our cities lack the most elementary facilities for healthy living, for work, for recreation, and for association with our fellow citizens. This disorganization has gone so far that the need for proper planning in their expansion and development is becoming more and more widely recognised. Every city at least has its town-planning board, whose proposals it proudly exhibits, and which after a preliminary spurt of enthusiasm, it usually allows to drop into the wastepaper basket. While town planning is an old institution, it has now taken on a new form. The town planner is no longer concerned merely with the planning of the physical amenities of the city, the laying out of roads, sewers and subways; his preliminary concern has become the needs of the people. At last town planning has reached a stage where it recognizes that the city is nothing but a social framework in which the people pursue the varied course of life. To the modern town planner the social aspects of city life are therefore of tremendous importance, and in this discussion it is proposed to study the influence of the city on the lives of the people who live in it, and from it to draw some conclusions, not altogether new, regarding the changes that must be made in our environment to promote a more healthy social life.

The difference in the social structure between the small community and the large metropolis is especially striking. The small community is a complete social entity. Here people live together, work together, and meet for the purpose of recreation and worship. Here the relationship between members of the family, between master and servant, between neighbours, shopkeeper, minister, and teacher are of the most intimate and lasting type, and almost all-inclusive. The interactions which take place among members of such a community are on an immediate and instinctive basis. Social control arises spontaneously and in response to neighbourly scrutiny and pressure. In such a community people feel a respon-

sibility towards each other and the community. With the growth of the modern metropolis a new social structure has emerged characterized by anonymity and impersonality, by the replacement of primary or face to face relationships by secondary or indirect relationships. This fact can be accounted for in part by the great degree of mobility of the urban population, for where changes of residence and work take place frequently, as they do in the city, intimate and lasting associations are less likely to be formed. Nor can we expect the family, which changes its place of residence often, to have any interest in its neighbours and in the community in which it lives. This lack of community spirit is due to no small extent to indistinguishable pattern of the city, which consists merely of one rectangular block after another. There is nothing in the city's pattern which binds together and marks certain districts as a separate community, nor are there any spaces and buildings provided where the activities associated with community life could be carried on. The superposition of secondary over primary relationships has also other causes, mostly linked with the lack of community facilities and disappearance of the community as a social unit. Metropolitan expansion was accompanied by a permanent lag in the provision of the necessary communal institutions and recreational facilities, especially in the outlying sections. True enough the central institutions may have grown in size, but even then the facilities are far out of proportion to the need; also by increasing the size of the central institutions large mass-gatherings take the place of the more congenial meetings of the smaller centres. In the field of sports and recreation generally the sports' field is replaced by the stadium; in the field of politics, the town-meeting is replaced by the rally in the arena. The citizen has turned from an active participant in sports to a mere spectator, from an active participant in politics to a mere puppet. Impersonal crowds take the place of the more intimate relationships that were formed on the sportsfield or in the town-meeting. Not only are the urban dweller's recreational and political activities pursued through the medium of impersonally organized agencies but even the means of gaining his livelihood are almost entirely on an impersonal basis. The substitution of secondary relationships for primary relationships has its parallel in the ethical and political spheres of life. Social controls which were formerly spontaneous and which arose in direct response to personal influences and public sentiment are replaced by controls based on positive law. Also we find restrictions or governmental controls over activities which were formerly free or controlled by mores, public

opinion and customs. In the field of politics the form of government which had its origin in the town meeting is not suitable for the government of an ever-changing and heterogeneous population of a large city. This change can best be seen in the increasing power of the executive branch of government at the expense of the legislative, and in the trend towards centralization of government which has been taking place in recent years. Public opinion is no longer expressed by the citizen in the town meeting, but is exerted by pressure groups. The ordinary citizen has little chance to express his opinion in an effective way; it is only as a member of a large group, a professional organization, a trade union, a social club, or a veterans' association that his opinions can be heard, and such groups commonly tend to be dominated in their activities by a certain select number of people. For the ordinary citizen then the expression of political opinion in an effective way has become more limited and generally speaking is restricted to the infrequent times that he has an opportunity to voting. This is a natural development in the urban society characterized as it is by anonymity and impersonality.

We have seen the decline of the community as a social unit in the above discussion. There are other factors which have led in this direction. Due to the concentration of industry and commerce in certain parts of the city and the possibility of transporting a great number of people for great distances in a relatively short time, a separation of work and residence has taken place. Work which once brought together the people of the community in the course of their daily activities now takes place outside its confines. The three types of association — the communal, the recreational, and those formed during work—that once took place within one sphere, now take place in three spheres, resulting in relationships of a greater variety but of a less intimate character. In an analytical study of people's associations it will therefore be found that in the city associations take place largely outside the community. We find that people associate more according to their interest groups than their local unit. In the small town or village the common interest of the people lies in the fact that they live together; the unit is too small to unite people according to their profession or their special interests. Once the size of the community increases, community association is replaced by association according to common interests and ideas; such associations are a natural development but are perhaps less desirable from a social outlook. To achieve a balanced personality intimate association with people of a variety of outlooks is desirable. The ideal social structure is one in which people with a variety of abilities and outlooks through social intercourse form a dynamic unity. What we find instead in the city is a variety of associational groupings, which have no relation to the community and which tend to be one-sided in outlook. On the other hand, it must be pointed out that in the city we find a far more hetero-

geneous agglomeration of people than can be found elsewhere, there are greater contrasts of social stratification, there are a greater variety of occupational groupings, and a greater number of national and racial groups. This should, under favourable conditions, as at university, produce people with a broader outlook—the geniuses of our time are mostly the product of the city. True, city life has greater potentialities than that of the small community, but what is needed in the city is a revival of the community spirit which will bring its heterogeneous population into social contact, and so give it the full fruits of its social potentialities.

So far the discussion has centred on social relationships in the city in large and general terms. It remains to discuss the effect of the city on the life of the individual in terms of his home life, his work, and his recreational activities. In the city there has been a definite tendency towards the disintegration of home life. The characteristics of home life in the city can best be seen if we study the available statistics on city life. According to these statistics city life is less likely to result in marriage and child-rearing, is likely to postpone marriage, and where it has resulted in marriage there is a greater liability of it breaking down in divorce. The large number of unmarried individuals can be accounted for by a variety of reasons. Firstly the woman's economic and social status in the country forces upon her the occupation of a homemaker, in the city, however, unmarried women have greater economic opportunities and suffer less social isolation. As a matter of fact the proportionately large number of women migrants from the country stem largely from woman's dissatisfaction with her rural status. It is obvious that the number of marriages is proportionately reduced by the gainful employment of women. A point that has serious repercussions on marriage is the fact that the breadwinning activities touch the city dweller's life at all points. Economic factors in a person's life may delay and in some instances prevent marriage. The number of single persons unattached to a family is therefore great in the city. This is increased by the fact that most immigrants from the country are usually separated from their families. This fact accounts for the widespread rooming house population in the city, which has no home attachments, is more mobile than the family, and to whom all the effects of the city environment therefore apply to a greater extent. The irregular sex relations, particularly commercialized vice, which we find so often associated with the city, find their roots to a greater or lesser extent in this relative profusion of unattached women and men. We have seen that for a large portion of the city population home life does not exist at all, but where it does exist it is often broken up into irresponsible individual units. This can be accounted for to no small extent by the abnormally high proportion of overcrowded and sub-standard dwellings which are found in the city. Where several families share the same quarters, where serious room overcrowd-

ing takes place, there obviously cannot be a satisfactory home life. This is accentuated still more by conditions which are inimical to cleanliness, health, privacy, and a number of other personal social values. But even a large portion of the more standard type of dwellings lack sufficient space for carrying on the normal functions of the house, among them child-bearing and rearing, various forms of face to face relationship, young people's entertainment and courtship. It should be pointed out here that overcrowding usually increases with the size of the community. Overcrowding and sub-standard dwellings are, of course, largely the results of economical conditions rather than urbanism, but the two are closely interrelated and it is difficult to draw the line. Thus overcrowding may be due to high land values, to the unsatisfactory economical status of the people concerned, and it may to some extent be due to the increased cost of services that go with a large metropolis. The breaking up of family life may in some cases be due to the economic necessity of having its members working separately in industry. The location of the workplace, which now is usually remote from the home, makes it less possible for the family to meet as a unit, even for meals. A clue to the instability of family life may also be given by its anonymity, its lack of a solid relationship to its neighbours and the community. The primary residential unit known as the community is particularly significant to the family, for with it is associated the only fixed basis of the family's collective activity.

As we have seen, the primary social unit, the family, under whose influence the essential qualities of human personality are developed, is in a state of disintegration in the city. This development is especially noticeable in the blighted and overcrowded sections of the city. This may be an excessively gloomy picture, for there are undoubtedly a large proportion of families that are leading a wholesome home life. The conditions in the city environment that are inimical to a healthy family life are also inimical to the bearing and rearing of children, in other words they are also the causes for the inability of the city population to reproduce itself. If a study is made of the survival statistics with relation to the type of environment, size, and distribution of population, it is found that sterility is associated with metropolitanism. The birthrate in the city is not high enough for the reproduction of its own population, and no metropolis could long maintain itself without heavy and constant recruiting of country born people.

According to Mumford this population curb is due in part to the creation of an urban standard of expenditure and urban routine that is hostile to reproduction. In short urbanism is a decline in animal faith. This accusation of urbanism is rather harsh. It must be remembered that intelligence replaces animal faith with its irresponsible reproduction, it recognizes that children, to develop properly, need constant care and intimate attention,

which cannot be achieved in a large family. This is a trend which has a human basis and is quite in keeping with a "life"-centred attitude. The development of a higher civilization, however deplorable some of its aspects may be, will result in restricted and intelligent rather than haphazard reproduction, and this cannot be forcibly altered. There are, however, various aspects of city life that tend to reduce reproductive activities, the low marriage rate is one, and the economic status of a large portion of its inhabitants is another and more far-reaching one. There are a great number of families in the city who lead mean enough an existence without children at all; there are few who can provide the essentials of life for more than two children. Undoubtedly the economic picture is one of the prime causes of the city's low birth-rate. The lack of facilities for growing children in the city is undoubtedly a factor that plays an important part in the reproduction of its population. The traffic streets, the dirty and tiny backyards, the contractor's yard, and the junk heap are not desirable places for children's play activities. If playlots, nursery schools, and health centres for the use of young children were provided, many families that would otherwise be unable to have children or have a large number of children, would be in a different position. In other words our urban environment is to some extent directly responsible for sterility, while on the other hand it is partially responsible for the economic conditions and attitudes which result in a low birthrate.

We come now to the discussion of the relation of work to the city dweller's life. The more urbanized an area is the less able are its inhabitants to depend upon direct means of obtaining the necessities of life. Urbanization as it affects work means greater specialization, a greater amount of merchandising and distributing activities. This means that there is no longer a direct relation between producer and consumer; there are an endless number of intermediaries. These intermediate activities involve financing and administration, packing, shipping and transportation. A great deal of the work is clerical or involves only the lighter sorts of manual work. The city abounds with activities which are unproductive in themselves. The larger the city the more numerous these activities. Economically speaking the modern city's essential and distinctive character remains in the field of merchandising. The abundance of clerical and non-manual work means greater employment opportunities for women. The effects of the relatively high degree of gainful employment of women in the social life, and particularly family life, have already been discussed. The relative importance of the breadwinning activities in all spheres of the city dweller's life are largely due to the pecuniary structure of urban society. The non-economical interests of the city worker, his health, his recreation, his social status, are more widely affected by his breadwinning activities. The city dweller is dependent for the essentials of life on goods and services which

must be purchased with money. The variety of types of work and of work of the same nature that are available makes possible the mobility from job to job in the urban community; this is increased by the economic fluctuations which at times necessitate changes of work or periods of unemployment. This mobility partly accounts for the impersonality of urban employment relations, but even more so is this due to the immense size of urban commercial and industrial concerns. Clearly the relationship of employer to employee, of employee and customer, and between employees themselves, in a large department store are by their nature impersonal; wherever a high degree of organization takes the place of face to face relations we get this result.

Urban recreation is especially conditioned by the lack of space that is available for it. This means that the urban forms of recreation must of necessity be space-economizing. The movie theatre, the spectator sports, and the music hall, are all examples of such space saving types of recreation. This type of recreation is of necessity passive; people are entertained rather than entertaining themselves. If all the 15,000 people that go to watch a hockey match wanted to take an active part in the game, the amount of space that would be required would be far beyond anything that is provided even by the most advanced and far-sighted of city plans; the high land values just do not permit the buying up of large areas for recreational facilities. All these space-saving types of recreation take the form of mass-spectacles, the individual loses himself in these masses, we find here the lowest type of social form, the crowd. As in everything else, recreation in the city takes on a less personal form. To no small part the type of occupation of the urban dweller and the condition under which he does it affect his recreational activities; these occupations tire him out physically, mentally and emotionally, and the type of recreation that he seeks is therefore of a more passive kind. He reads, he listens to the radio, goes to the movies or the theatre, watches a game or plays cards. Recreation often tends to be of the type that compensates for the insecurities and tensions, the failure and dullness of city life; so the city dweller turns to recreations that give him emotional releases and compensation for what in his life situation he finds unpleasant. He loses himself in fiction; he seeks compensatory relief in gambling, drinking, and sexual license of all sorts; he demands drama: spectacular success. The city provides little opportunity for spontaneous activity in play or in other recreational pursuits, and this type of activity is important. The kind of person whose life is scheduled for every minute of his existence is exceedingly rare, and spontaneous and sudden desires should have the possibility of fulfillment. Most of the city's recreational activities require some special arrangement or engagement. The great number of mass recreations require the services of large full-time staffs and the provision of special facilities. This involves the

investment and handling of large sums of money. Most urban recreation is therefore provided by commercial organizations. This commercialization of entertainment is a most unfortunate development, for more often than not the commercial concerns are interested in financial gain first, and in the provision of recreation only second; they are not primarily concerned with providing a high standard of entertainment as long as they can make large enough profits without it. These commercial concerns will promote the type of recreation which they think will attract more people, irrespective of its social consequences. They are even prepared to promote anti-social forms of recreation for the sake of profits, and in some cases become frankly associated with commercialized vice. They are ready to extract large sums of money from those who are eager for emotional release and escape and are willing to spend what it takes to secure this. It is hardly an exaggeration to say that, generally speaking, the city provides unwholesome forms of recreation.

As we have seen, the city environment has in many cases acted as a disruptive influence on the life of the people. It has tended to break up family and community life, it has promoted less healthy types of work and recreation. This leaves its mark on the pathology of city life. Poverty, crime and vice, mental disease and suicide are all more or less associated with the city and especially certain sections of it. They are merely the outward signs of a disintegrated social life. While poverty is by no means a purely urban phenomenon, in the city it does take on more serious proportions, for those who are unable to pay for the minimum necessities of life are forced to be crowded together under the most abnormal and inhuman conditions. In addition all the means of life must be purchased with money; without money they are left at the mercy of the charitable institutions. Due to the impersonality of the city, where your neighbour means nothing to you, the less fortunate only in very rare circumstances have anybody who feels responsible towards them. Where poverty is linked up with the absence of family and neighbourly ties, it is of far more serious consequence to those involved. In addition to this it must be remembered that in the city poverty does not affect only a few individuals, as in the smaller community, it strikes whole districts; and when poverty occurs on a larger and more concentrated scale the social consequences are far more serious.

In the urban environment the economical insecurity and the instability of the family act as a disturbing influence and help to produce personality disintegration; if to this we add that the urban environment goes contrary to many of man's most instinctive needs, we have the clue to the high rate of mental disease and insanity that is found in the city. Mental conflict often results in criminal behaviour and in types of crime that are often quite remote from the forms of conflict that caused them.

Though crime in the city is due to a great extent to mental conflict and its resulting personality disintegration, on the whole the crime committed in the city can be more closely linked with poverty. Juvenile delinquency is similarly related to economic conditions. However, there are other important factors that give a clue to the high rate of juvenile delinquency in the city. The city provides only a restricted scope for socially approved expressions of normal play tendencies, the city youth has funds of energy that are undirected, undisciplined and uncontrolled by any socially desirable pattern, and that are therefore ready to be directed into socially unapproved channels. Juvenile delinquency is further aided by the fact that the city offers extensive opportunities for indulging with relative impunity in socially disapproved forms of conduct; the very essence of city life, its crowds, its disintegrated neighbourhoods, its anonymities, all make it relatively easy for the juvenile delinquent and the criminal to escape detection. There are usually well-marked areas in every city in which juvenile delinquency and crime flourish. These are usually the blighted and deteriorated sections in which there is a specially marked absence of community spirit or any group feeling against socially repudiated activities, and in which poverty and overcrowding abound, and proper play and community facilities are totally absent. The narrow streets, the rundown factories, the warehouses, the maze of railroad tracks, the vacant lots, the junk heaps, that together make up such deteriorated districts hardly make for any social or group feeling of the type that is required to stem crime, while on the other hand they offer fruitful opportunities for ambush, flight and concealment.

The extensiveness of organized vice in the city is due largely to the same factors that help promote crime and juvenile delinquency, while it is further promoted by the presence of a large portion of unmarried individuals or persons whose family life has been broken up, and by the presence of a relatively large number of unstable individuals. Most important of all are the commercial enterprises who are ready and eager to direct all these influences into vicious channels.

This discussion should be clear warning to those who think that our city environment is all it could be. Some of the drastic social consequences and their causes have been described. However, if this is not enough, there are obvious outward signs which clearly point in the same direction. The steady stream of people leaving the older built-up areas for the newer suburbs, the multitude who seek to escape the city at every opportunity for the week-end house, the country farm, or the summer cottage, are by their actions expressing their dissatisfaction with the city environment. The birth-rate, the mortality tables for adults, the disease rate of urban workers as compared with agricultural workers, the

infant mortality tables, all give crude results to the disadvantage of the city environment. The sterility of the city population in itself is a sign that the city dweller sees no longer a definite purpose in life, has no longer the will to live and reproduce himself, that he has in a more favourable environment. A theory has even been advanced by Spengler, and supported by other eminent sociologists, that the city being unable to maintain itself through the natural increase in population, constantly recruits its members from the rural population, who in turn come under the biological blight of urbanism, so that the long-run consequences of city life are depopulation and racial degeneration. This theory undoubtedly applies to the city of to-day and should be a clear warning to us, urging us on to rebuild our cities into an environment more favourable for the reproduction of the human race. The cities of to-day are largely the outcome of the industrialization, the economic practices, and the idealism of the past century; their blight and the resulting consequences are due more to the economic practices and the theory of *laissez-faire* than to the peculiarities of urban life. There never was any need for the congestion, the lack of communal and recreational facilities that we find in the city to-day; the city could have taken on a socially desirable structure. It was the suicidal economy which through rocketing land values forced congestion upon the city, it was the lack of recognition of any human values in the layout of the cities which resulted in the disorganization of the city of to-day. It is not the city that is fundamentally wrong, but rather the form of the city as we find it to-day, this jumbled agglomeration of shacks, houses and tenements—to this Spengler's theory of depopulation and racial degeneration applies in full. We must recognize the seriousness of this situation, we must realize that in order to rectify it we must do more than the laying out of parks, the cutting through of new highways, and the undermining of the city with subways. Only the most radical changes can transform this agglomeration of buildings into livable social units which we can truly call the city. The changes that must be made will have to be far-reaching; they will of necessity conflict with existing values and institutions, but new values will have to be created. Only those values that promote life and healthy social association concern us; all the old institutions and values that have no basis except for the fact that they exist and have existed for centuries, must be thrown overboard. If high land values prevent us from providing the necessary amenities of life then the high land values must go, and not those things that help to promote a healthy life.

In planning our cities we must ask ourselves what sort of personality we seek to foster, in what order of preference we wish to fulfill our life needs. Do we want pleasant houses, schools, parks and playgrounds, or cloverleaf-junctions and subways? Unfortunately the answer has up to now been in favour of the latter — we

must provide an environment that will provide all family and community needs, that will further the healthy development of children, and will provide for the varied recreational needs of adults.

The existing neighbourhoods do not satisfy these needs, with the result that the people seek to escape from these neighbourhoods to outlying districts, only to find that their new neighbourhoods are deteriorating just as rapidly. This process is repeated again and again, for every time new districts are built up the same obvious causes of deterioration are forgotten, and the basis for future blight is laid. The overcrowding of the land, the lack of recreational and communal facilities, which have all been definitely correlated with an anti-social environment, are permitted again and again in these new subdivisions. These new areas must be planned as self-contained communities, with adequate garden spaces around each house, with all the recreational and communal facilities that are necessary to provide for a healthy social and physical life, and to create that communal spirit which must replace the impersonality of city life. Not only must we see that the new developments follow these outlines, but we must recreate the older and deteriorated district according to a similar pattern, so that they will form self-contained, units in which primary relationships between neighbours and within the community will again take the place of secondary or impersonal relationships. On a large scale this means the development of the city as a cellular unit, composed of communities which are small enough for people to comprehend, small enough so that people within its confines will be able to take notice of each others existence.

While this pattern of transformation and development can go far in achieving a new and desirable social environment there are limits to such a process. Obviously the growth of the city to a size that is uneconomical in the provision of services, that results in congestion in the veins of its vital organisms, that makes temporary escape from it impossible, and that makes it outgrow its relationship to the region and stretch far and wide for the supply of its vital necessities, its food, its water, and its raw materials, is highly undesirable to say the least. Once the metropolis grows beyond these limits and must command supplies of distant regions and lands, it becomes of necessity more imperialistic and dominating with all its unfortunate political results. Not only that, but all the disrupting social influences are directly related to the size of the city. We must prevent the growth of cities beyond undesirable limits, and we must decentralise those cities that have outgrown themselves and cannot successfully be transformed by re-

planning of their existing structure. This decentralization must, of course, be planned and controlled and should take place in the form of satellite and garden cities, which are separated from the city and each other by agricultural belts, and clearly recognize the demarcation between country and city. From the purely human point of view of living in a healthy environment, the satellite town of 30,000, to 60,000 people is an ideal environment. Such a town has the advantages of city life without the loss of its association with a rural environment, and though it is a self-contained unit with all the facilities for living, working, and play within its limits, yet it is close enough to the large city to take advantage to some extent of its greater commercial and cultural facilities.

Although such momentous changes in our environment and in the social sphere can be directed by planning, they can be achieved only by a conscious effort in this direction in all other spheres of life. We have seen for instance that some of the most unfortunate social consequences, that are usually connected with the city, are directly linked with economical problems. Town planning is at all times closely related to economical and political problems. Without some changes in the political and economical spheres town planning cannot be effective and will remain in the theoretical realm.

In discussing the social aspects of town planning and the methods that must be used to solve these social problems through town planning, it is fully recognized that town planning is a practical field involving local political and financial problems, and existing conditions, which must be solved as circumstances permit, and perhaps far short of the ideal which the planner would set himself. Yet it is important that the aim towards which the town planner should work should be continually before him; and it is hoped that this discussion will clarify this aim.

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The above article was written as a Fifth year thesis, at the University of Toronto, by Mr. Henry Fliess. It was thought worthy of publication by the Editorial Board and held over for an appropriate issue, which this one seemed to be. Mr. Fliess graduated in 1946, and is now a registered architect.

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INSTITUTE NEWS

ARCHITECTS IN THE COMMUNITY PLANNING ASSOCIATION OF CANADA

It is almost a year since representatives of the Institute, together with members of allied professions, took the initiative in the steps that led to the formation of the Community Planning Association of Canada. The purpose of this new national body is "to foster public understanding of, and participation in, community planning in Canada". Membership in the Association is open to any individual or group having an unselfish interest in its aim.

The Association has an office in Ottawa, and has begun the publication of a bulletin called *Layout for Living* which presents, in attractive form, a wide range of information from Canada and abroad on planning aims and progress. Members of the Institute are invited to write the Secretary Treasurer of the Association for copies of *Layout for Living*.

The federal government and a number of the provincial governments have taken substantial interest in the new Association; they are particularly concerned that

the great amount of residential building now being undertaken should result in something better than long rows of houses — that it should result in the creation of many well-designed communities.

But in order not to miss the opportunity of the next few years to build balanced residential communities, local interest and action is required in every Canadian centre of population. In stimulating and sustaining this interest, the Members of the Institute have a primary role to play — and in the end we have much to gain. In being instrumental in the foundation of the Community Planning Association, Members of the Institute have made a contribution to the physical development of our towns and countryside which is a specifically professional one; for 'profession' was defined by the late Mr. Justice Brandeis as, "an occupation which is pursued largely for others" and in which "the amount of financial returns is not the accepted measure of success".

The real importance of the Community Planning Association depends on its activity in each of the communities where building is going on apace — in other words, in communities where architects can provide leadership in focussing public consideration on the

entitled to interest at the rate of five per cent. per annum from the date of advance. Each partner, in the absence of agreement, is entitled to be indemnified by the firm out of its assets, or by contribution from his co-partner, in respect of payments made, or liabilities incurred by him, in the ordinary and proper conduct of the business of the firm.

The relationship of partners between themselves, provided there is good faith on all sides, presents no great difficulties, at least while the partnership remains a profitable one. In any event, many of the perils may be avoided by the preventative measure of a definite agreement between the parties, while they are still in a congenial frame of mind. A partnership agreement may supercede any of the presumptions raised by law concerning the relationship between partners, and such agreements are, in fact, just as varied as are the persons who enter into partnerships.

But another and equally important aspect of a partnership is the relationship of the partners to third persons. The partnership agreement may limit the power of one or more of the partners to act in certain circumstances. What then, of a third person who is unaware of any such limitation? We have seen that every partner is entitled to act alone for the purpose of the business of the partnership and each partner is in fact an agent of the firm, and the acts of every partner bind the firm and his partners. This statement holds good unless the partner so acting has in fact no authority to act for the firm in the particular matter, and the person with whom he is dealing either knows that he has no authority, or does not know or believe him to be a partner. Briefly, the express or implied authority of a partner cannot be limited by a private arrangement between the partners, of which the person dealing with the partners has no knowledge.

The implied authority of a partner to do all acts incidental to the proper conduct of the business may be affected by any special course of dealing, but aside from this it will not extend to anything done otherwise than in the usual course of the partnership business, and in the usual way of doing business of that kind. No partner can, therefore, involve the other partners in another business. The implied authority extends to the borrowing of money or the securing of credit, for the purpose of the business where the business is of a kind that cannot be carried on without such power. It does not, however, permit a partner to pledge the firm's credit for a purpose apparently not connected with its ordinary business.

If a partner, acting in the ordinary course of the partnership business, or with the authority of his partners, that is to say, with express or implied authority, commits any wrongful act causing loss or injury to a third person, or if acting within the scope of his apparent authority, he

receives and misapplies money belonging to a third person, the firm is liable. But, in the absence of special circumstances, they are not liable for the fraud of one partner committed otherwise than in the ordinary course of business. Every partner is jointly liable with his co-partner and also severally liable for such wrong-doing. That is to say, each partner is liable to the full extent of his own assets, for the wrong-doing of his co-partner, as fully as he would be, with, of course, a right to contribution as between the partners.

Every partner is liable jointly with his co-partner for all debts and liabilities of the firm incurred while he is a partner, and after his death, his estate is also liable for such debts, so far as they remain unpaid, but subject to prior payment of his separate debts. The liability of a partner is, therefore, not limited to his share of the capital or profits of the partnership and his personal assets are subject to the claims of creditors as fully as they would be were he in business alone. A new partner, entering an existing firm, is liable for the firm's debts incurred after he becomes a partner, but not, in the absence of contrary agreement, for previous debts. A partner who retires does not thereby cease to be liable for the firm's liabilities incurred before his retirement and he remains liable until the partnership affairs are wound up, unless he is discharged by agreement between himself, the continuing partners and creditors. Such an agreement may be expressed or implied by the course of dealing between the creditors and the newly constituted firm. A retiring partner may also render himself liable for subsequent debts, if proper notice is not given to persons dealing with the firm, and he permits his name to remain in the firm. The estate of a deceased partner is not, however, liable for partnership debts contracted after the date of death, whether his name remains in the firm or not.

Subject to agreement, a partnership for an indefinite period, may be dissolved by any partner at any moment by giving notice to the other partners of his intention to dissolve the partnership, and by the death or insolvency of any partner. On the application of any partner, the court may order a dissolution of a partnership on the grounds of insanity, permanent incapacity, conduct prejudicial to the carrying on of the partnership business, wilful or persistent breach of the partnership agreement, where business can only be carried on at a loss, or where the court is of the opinion that it is just and equitable that the partnership be dissolved.

W. L. Somerville, Jr.



The Editorial Board is greatly obliged to Professor John Bland who has been responsible for the collection of material, the design of the cover and the arrangement of pages for this issue.

QUEBEC

Des plans d'ensemble de plusieurs villes importantes du Canada sont apparus à diverses reprises dans le "Journal". Tous intéressants, pour ne pas dire plus, ils mettaient surtout en valeur le rôle impressionnant destiné à l'urbaniste de notre époque.

Aménagement d'espaces libres, réglementation de zonage, études de circulation, projets d'habitation, ce rôle est tellement chargé qu'il est depuis longtemps admis qu'il ne peut être rempli que par une équipe. L'architecte de même que l'ingénieur et le sociologue semblent être parmi les premiers qui doivent faire partie de cette équipe. Mais qu'on ne s'illusionne pas, car même s'ils ont leur mot à dire dans l'aménagement des villes et des régions, ce sera rarement le dernier mot. Les problèmes à résoudre dépassent souvent le champ d'action des professions reconnues et il arrive que le spécialiste parle plus souvent qu'à son tour. Presque toujours la formation première de l'individu influe son jugement et l'homme de profession qui fait de l'urbanisme doit constamment combattre son penchant naturel s'il veut juger et agir impartialement, ce qui est loin d'être facile.

Est-ce à dire qu'il faut les bannir de cette sphère? Assurément non, et on peut en citer plusieurs qui y évoluent avec succès. Il est évident cependant que pour l'avenir et à cause des besoins grandissants, une formation adéquate s'impose.

A la suite d'une conférence de fin de semaine tenue à l'université McGill au début de l'année, et à laquelle prenaient part différentes personnalités du monde de l'urbanisme, une conversation intime s'engagea. Il s'agissait de la nécessité d'établir un cours d'urbanisme qui exigerait tout d'abord la formation classique et comprendrait des notions fondamentales sur les diverses professions susceptibles d'être rattachées à l'urbanisme, tels que l'architecture, le génie civil, la sociologie, le droit, etc., avec, en plus, un cours très poussé sur les sciences sociales, économiques et politiques. Il semblait que l'urbaniste ainsi formé serait bien armé pour affronter les problèmes variés qui lui seraient posés. Il pourrait assurer sans difficulté la coordination des différentes professions appelées à se prononcer sur les multiples aspects d'un problème, car il faudrait toujours, quand même, avoir recours aux spécialistes. Cette formation ne l'empêcherait pas de se spécialiser lui-même, s'il en avait la vocation, dans la pratique de l'une ou l'autre des professions qui lui aurait été enseignées.

C'est là un sujet délicat, et il est préférable de ne pas trop insister sur les possibilités d'une telle éducation. Laissons plutôt à ceux que la question intéresse directement le soin de fixer leur ligne de conduite.

Ce qui est certain cependant, c'est qu'il faut faire quelque chose et le faire vite. Déjà dans la province de Québec des comités d'urbanisme se forment. La Chambre de Commerce de Montréal signale le nom de vingt-deux endroits dans la Province où on s'occupe d'urban-

isme. Ce sont: Arvida, Chicoutimi, Drummondville, East Angus, Farnham, Granby, Grand'Mère, Hull, Iberville, Lévis, Mont-Joli, Montréal, Québec, Rouyn, Sainte-Foy, Saint-Hyacinthe, Saint-Jean, Shawinigan Falls, Sherbrooke, Trois-Rivières, Thetford Mines et Valleyfield. Et il y en a sûrement d'autres qu'on ignore.

De nouvelles municipalités vont certainement emboîter le pas. Bientôt, les demandes pour des urbanistes de profession vont se faire pressantes. Serons-nous préparés? Pourrons-nous satisfaire ces besoins? Ou suivrons-nous plutôt la politique du laisser-faire!

J'admets que les quatre cinquièmes au moins de la superficie de la province de Québec possède un plan d'ensemble incomparable, puisque celle-ci a été, laissée à son état naturel. A l'approche de la belle saison, je pourrais chanter les beautés du paysage québécois, vanter la splendeur de ses riches forêts, la limpidité de ses lacs ombragés, le charme de sa campagne fertile et la majesté de son grand fleuve, si je n'avais la crainte de saboter le rendu. Mais je songe à la triste petite partie qui a été humanisée et je trouve qu'il serait dommage de laisser au hasard le soin de faire ressortir les valeurs qui pourraient y être dissimulées. C'est assurément une tâche passionnante, qui est à la hauteur de l'âme canadienne et pour laquelle il importe de se préparer soigneusement.

Roland Gariépy

SASKATCHEWAN

Scanning the editorials of some pre-war architectural magazines, before removal to provide elbow space in the Drafting Room, brought home, as effectively as a blow between wind and water, that the current insatiable demand for our services was not ever thus.

As human beings we are hard to please. Consequently we take a "dim view" of our (silent?) partner, the Minister of Finance, whom many of us ignored with impunity in former years. We cherish the partnership with this gentleman but would much prefer that he act in a more junior capacity.

The perusal of lamentations in the aforementioned publications induced a line of thought that had not to do with the proportions of our income tax but rather "How long will we continue to have such fruitful harvests?" Reflection on such choice extracts which follow brought on a pall of gloom that compared in magnitude and rapidity of formation, with the Cloud over Bikini.

"When the certified architects of a community plan only 3 per cent. of the buildings upon which a great building and loan corporation loans money, it is certainly high time for the architects to start doing some fast thinking."

"People through ignorance are loath to pay a fair price to a capable architect, yet these same people will spend money freely for material things that go into their buildings."

As an illustration of the prevalent misconception of the profession, "You don't have to go to the expense of an architect" was the reply given by the loan department manager of the local branch of an insurance company to an inquiry concerning architectural services, made by a prospective home builder under the N.H.A.

The practice of architecture is inherently more sensitive to fluctuations in economic conditions than that of Medicine, Dentistry, and other professions. Nevertheless it is conceivable that our position in that regard would be improved by a growing public enlightenment of the service we have to render and the realization that such service has decided economic advantages along with competent planning and good architecture.

Certain manufacturers of building products and one of the makers of a popular beverage kindly put in a word for us in their national advertising, but the candlepower of this enlightenment must be stepped up considerably before the general public becomes aware of our presence. Otherwise, are we not, as private practitioners, in danger of submersion by commercial competition, when the present wave of activity inevitably recedes? Does not this situation demand that we, through the Institute, put into action a carefully conceived, effective and sustained programme of public education? If such is the case, now is the time to hasten the development of such a programme, despite the fact that the pressure of present work leaves us time for little else.

F. J. Martin

PARTNERSHIPS

IN recent years many new firm names have appeared in the architectural profession. Changes brought about by the war, and changed conditions in the profession itself have undoubtedly caused the formation of these new associations. It has been suggested that a brief outline of the nature of partnerships from a legal standpoint might, therefore, be of some interest to architects.

To begin with a definition, "Partnership is the relation which subsists between persons carrying on a business in common with a view of profit". In accordance with general understanding, the definition excludes relations formed between persons without the motive of profit and without the characteristics of a common enterprise. It is not clear enough, however, to take care of some sorts of relationships for profit which have some of the characteristics of a common venture of two or more persons, but which are not partnerships. Two architects, for example, associate for the purpose of carrying out a project. They do not regard themselves as partners and are not so regarded in law. An architect employs a junior, his remuneration to be determined in whole or in part by a percentage of gross or net profits. Such an arrangement does not of itself make the junior a partner in the business of his senior. Joint or common ownership of property does not of itself create a partnership.

The question of whether a partnership exists in any particular circumstances is a question of fact, which must be determined by examining the arrangement between the parties as a whole. The receipt by a person of a share of profits of a business is conclusive evidence that he is a partner in the business, in the absence of other evidence to the contrary, as to the intention of the parties. A good test is whether the business is conducted on behalf of the person sought to be charged as a partner. Evidence of the course of conduct of the parties and written or oral agreements will determine the question in each case.

A partnership may be formed in a very informal manner. It is not necessary for the parties to reduce their agreement to a written document, unless it is a partnership by its terms for a period of more than one year, and even in that case, it may be proved by the partial performance of the agreement. In the absence of a written agreement, the mode of dealing of the partners is sufficient evidence of the formation and the original terms of a partnership. Likewise, the original terms of a partnership, even if in writing, may be varied with the mutual consent of the partners and a mode of dealing which shows a different intention.

Partnerships are presumed to be based on the mutual trust and confidence of each partner, not only in each other's skill and knowledge, but also in the integrity of every other partner, and it is obvious that the utmost good faith is requisite in the relations between partners. In the absence of evidence of the terms of a partnership to the contrary, the law presumes certain rights and duties as between the partners. There is a general duty to account for profit received from all transactions concerning the partnership and from the use of the partnership property, the firm name and business connection. The management of partnership affairs is in the hands of all the partners and each partner is entitled to act alone, in the absence of any provision to the contrary. No change affecting the nature of the partnership itself, such as the admission of a new partner, may be made without the consent of all the partners, although differences arising over ordinary matters concerning partnership business may be decided by a majority of the partners. Partnership property includes all property originally brought into the partnership, or subsequently acquired on account of the firm, or for the purpose, and in the course, of the partnership business. Property bought with partnership money is partnership property, unless a contrary intention appears. Subject to any agreement to the contrary, the rule is that partners share equally in capital and profits, and contribute equally to losses, whether of capital or otherwise. A partner, in the absence of such an agreement, is not entitled to interest on the capital subscribed by him before ascertaining partnership profits, but a partner who makes an advance beyond the capital he agreed to subscribe, is