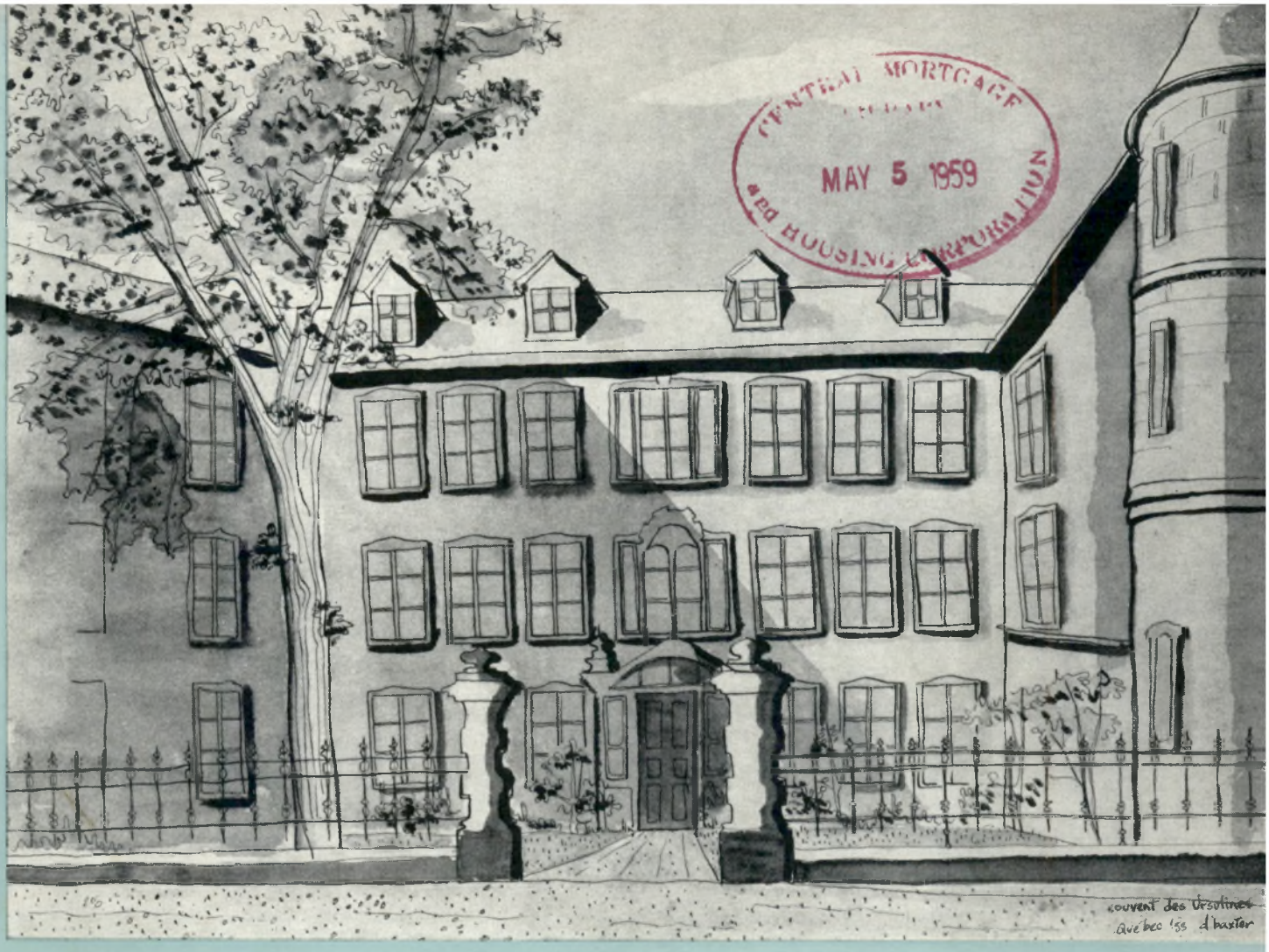

Habitat

JANUARY—FEBRUARY 1959

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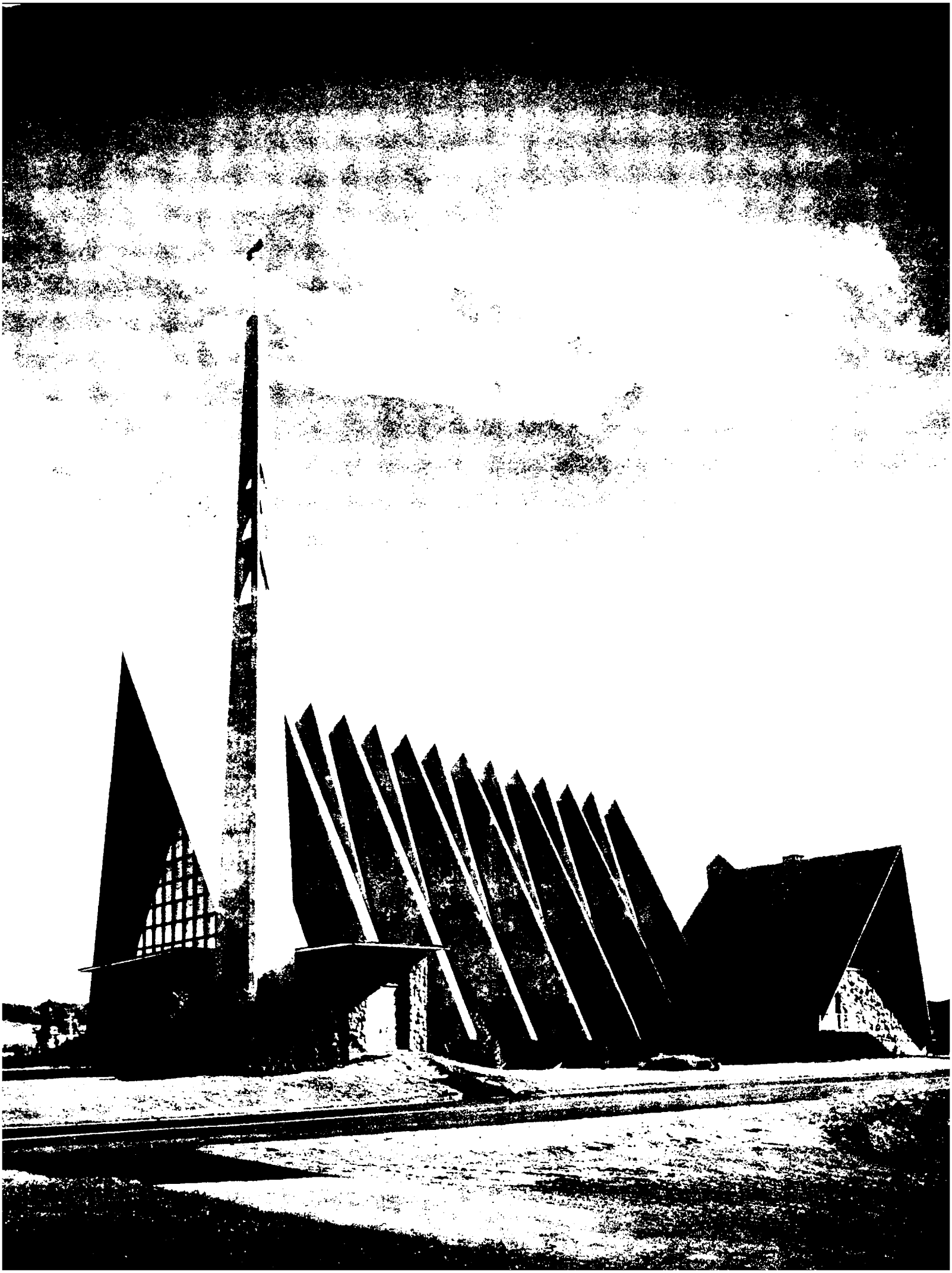

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Habitat

JANUARY - FEBRUARY ISSUE

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The photograph opposite is of Saint Mark's Church, Bagotville, Quebec, showing a general view of the entrances and Sacristy.

The Architect of this Church was Paul-Marie Cote and the Consulting Architects, Desgagne & Boileau.

Photo—Ellefsen, Chicoutimi

Cover Sketch – This sketch was drawn by Dorothy Baxter (McGill), '53 and shows a wing of the Ursuline Convent, Quebec, nineteenth century. This is traditional in its external severity. The central windows show an English manner, the projecting porch accommodates bad weather; the best buildings in Quebec have an easy capacity to be Canadian.

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THE DEVELOPMENT OF CANADIAN ARCHITECTURE

By John Bland

Province House and Mathers Church, Halifax, early nineteenth century. This shows British and American architectural ideas which are so often concerned with façades and form the chief sources of our English architectural taste.

Photo—Nova Scotia Film Bureau

People say there is no Canadian architecture; architecture here merely consists of fragments of foreign manners. They say Canada is too young, too spread out and culturally diverse, to have developed a native architecture. Yet at times, in various regions of the country, circumstances of climate and the ways of people have combined to produce building manners as distinctive as the landscapes of which they are a part. Over the years however, these manners have tended to melt under changed conditions. While one can never be sure what technique or peculiar combinations of forms will be found to have the significance and uniqueness to be a basis for a definite architecture, in the parts of the country where there have been two or three centuries of building experiments, by men whose attitudes are components of the national character, some architectural custom is taking shape. At any rate these experiments or adaptations form the greater part of the architecture of Canada so far, and from them a Canadian architecture can be expected to evolve.

In Eastern Canada there have been the buildings of two Colonial systems; both involved complete manners of design, whose scope embraced cottages, mansions, churches and forts.

A good deal is known about the buildings of New France both from reports and actual surviving examples. Even Louis XV's jesting remark that if Louisburg cost him any more to build he would expect to be able to see it from Versailles is made apt by the amazing remains revealed by aerial photography. Louisburg and Quebec were extensive places that involved many building skills. Richard Short's drawings of what was left after the Siege of Quebec, show a variety of structures of imposing dimensions, stylish in composition.

All of the notable French buildings were built of stone, a building material that continues to enjoy the greatest prestige in Eastern Canada. In contrast with a fairly severe exterior treatment, the interiors of French buildings were handsomely and warmly lined in wood. The Canadian climate still requires the rooms of houses to have warmth and sparkle, rather similar to the saloons of ships at sea.

Not so much is known of the British Colonial buildings of the maritime regions of Canada, but in Newfoundland, Nova Scotia, Prince Edward Island and New Brunswick buildings belonged to the general manner of British Atlantic architecture. Because so many more prominent examples occurred farther south architecture of this sort has come to be considered as belonging exclusively to the United States. British Colonial architecture in Eastern Canada although a little later, seems to have been as versatile and inclusive as the French. Within its scope many different kinds of building were realized with dignity, charm and even splendour in a local and relative sense, which after all is the only context for architecture. The light painted, clear cut wood buildings of the Atlantic coast, having accents of the finest traditions in order, proportion and scale, formed a language of building that continued in use for generations. It spread far inland from the coast and, through the fur trading companies, was carried even into the arctic.

Upon the basis of the separate colonial experiments, there followed a very pleasant architecture in the district of Quebec and Montreal when French and British traditions mingled, and craftsmen of one system were often called upon to build after the general outline of another. All big early and mid-nineteenth century houses in Quebec have a Georgian conception in plan and general outline, but the details, use of materials and so on are

always local in character. Monklands, the center building of the Villa Maria Convent, is a charming example in Montreal of mixed manners.

After the War of Independence there commenced a most consequential period of development throughout Eastern Canada, in which two circumstances left indelible marks; first the coming of the Loyalists and later the activities of the Royal Engineers in building a defence of British America from the Atlantic to the Great Lakes.

The Loyalists built houses and churches in the manners of the districts from which they had come. In Nova Scotia and New Brunswick settlers were mostly New Englanders. They reinforced the pre-Loyalist British manners and submerged completely any traces of the earlier French ways. The French settlers had been scattered, their forts rebuilt or destroyed, and even their place names were changed.

In the Richelieu, Ottawa and Upper St. Lawrence Valleys the settlers came either from New York and Pennsylvania, or they were imperialists of disbanded British regiments. For the most part they settled pioneer country where few opportunities for elaborate building occurred except along the rivers, where trade supplemented or took the place of farming.

In the Glengarry area the settlers were Highlanders without any American traditions; they built squared log buildings, whitewashed like military timber structures. At any rate a good many such cottages and barns still stand in the Upper St. Lawrence and Ottawa Valleys that appear to be more related to the block house and barrack block in form than to anything in Europe or America. However, after 1783, a variety of American and soldiers' manners were added to the building expression of the country.

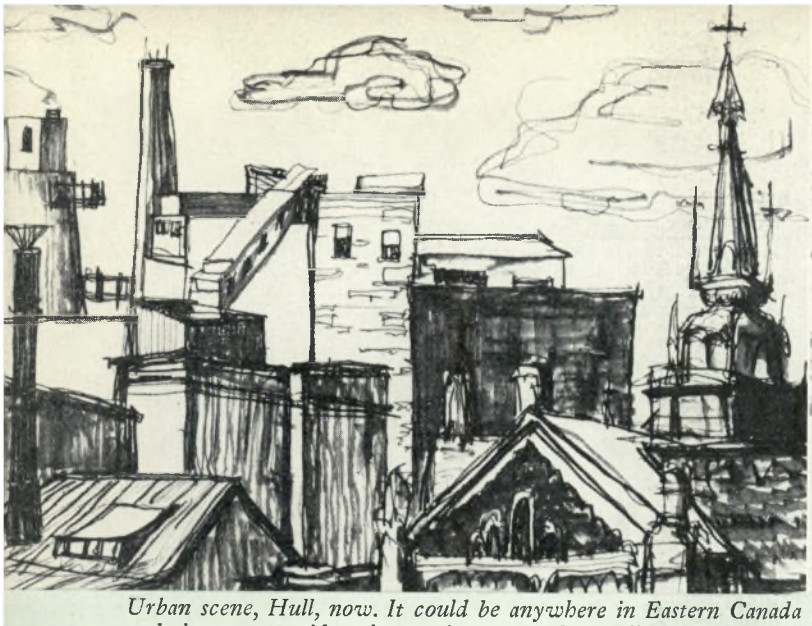
Later, after the war of 1812, the great citadels of Quebec and Halifax, the forts of St. Helens, Ile aux Noix, Kingston, Erie and others, as well as miles of canals were undertaken as parts of an immense program of military construction directed by the Royal Engineers. The millions of pounds and thousands of days of labour spent on them resulted not only in ranges of exemplary buildings, but the men employed upon their construction learned expert ways of using stone and wood; and the quarries and mills that were developed to supply the vast quantities of materials later provided for local needs.

I suggest that the buildings of the Loyalists and the Royal Engineers constitute a distinct post-colonial period of architectural development in Canada that could be called British American, to imply the two external influences and in a sense the time between the American Revolution and the union of Upper and Lower Canada into one country.

The period corresponds roughly to the Regency in England and the Federal in the United States. Important buildings were more or less in accordance with the old traditions, generally more reserved than inventive or playful. They were invariably designed by men who used architectural copy books to achieve good manners rather than their own creative abilities. The legislative buildings were exceptions, as some of them were professionally handled. Province House in Halifax is distinguished architecture, and about the same time three stylish schemes were prepared for a new legislative building at Quebec, two by Jeffrey Wyatt and one by J. M. W. Gandy, which indicated entirely new developments. The Wyatt schemes, one slightly Greek and one Gothic, showed the equivocal temper of the day abroad. War in 1812 forced the abandonment of the Quebec project altogether, but the drawings remained and were probably scanned for ideas over and over again by later commissions charged with the task of designing state buildings here. The spirit of Wyatt's Gothic Revival proposal still haunts official Ottawa.

The real manners of the period are best expressed in the merchants' houses in the towns; although many are now abandoned to other uses or demolished, a few in Quebec City and Kingston remain. These buildings also demonstrate the mingling of the long established crafts of Quebec in masonry and woodwork, and British and American concepts of composition. Kent House, Monklands, Spencer Wood, Duldraggan, and the Manoir Beaujeu, although altered still stand, but some are crumbling into ruins, such as Hamilton Hall at Hawkesbury, Burnside at Maitland, and Stone House which Mrs. Simcoe watched in building. Many have vanished altogether, particularly those that stood in the path of the development of the cities. Alwington, in Kingston, suffered severe fire damage in the winter of 1958 and only the façade remains. A good many convent and college buildings have survived and they show a combination of the old tradition and current military manners.

In 1825, the Gothic Revival appeared in the pseudo Gothic details of Notre Dame in Montreal. In early Canadian Gothic there is little or no resemblance to the buildings of the middle ages, and as a result the early examples are more charming than the earnest copy book Gothic of a century later. The early Gothic Revival buildings here are Georgian in concept with pointed rather than flat or round-headed windows, turrets in place of pilasters and battlements in the place of flat parapet walls.



Urban scene, Hull, now. It could be anywhere in Eastern Canada and shows an accidental grouping of careless utilitarian buildings, crude, convenient, practical and in fairly picturesque conflict with absurd traditional forms.

Sketch, Oscar Newman, (McGill) '58

A villa, Kingston, late nineteenth century. An amusing attempt to be impressive and above all, original, showing French, English and American manners. Much of our present day architecture shows similar taste for the unusual and the obscurely parented.

Sketch, George Grayston, (McGill) '55

About 1840 the Greek Revival brought a stern dignity to the growing commercial and administrative centres. Like the Gothic, the Greek was seldom pure in any academic sense, but it was undoubtedly full of meaning and satisfaction to people consolidating a vast territory, and in need of architectural props. In Canada the late Georgian and early Gothic and Greek Revival manners constitute different phases of the same British American period of development.

About the middle of the nineteenth century pleasant towns were growing along the roads and waterways connecting the older centres; some quite British, such as Brockville, Port Hope and Perth, some American like the Annapolis towns, and those along the Saint John River; in Quebec straggling settlements continued the long accepted patterns of French Canada. In all, the various manners produced scenes of uncommon charm.

Civil War in the United States caused an expansion of Canadian trade, industry and especially transportation. It also marked a time of rapid growth in the population, and for the next thirty years many new buildings were needed for commerce and administration throughout the country. At this time the age-old precepts of design were everywhere being abandoned in the wake of the general confusion of changing customs that had followed upon the industrial revolution. Romanticism, frank picturesqueness, the expression of literary ideas in building, and pure fantasy were coming into favour. Feeble episodes like the Egyptian Revival and the Baroque Revival were aesthetically disturbing in Canada as they fostered an undiscriminating architectural attitude, in which anything that had some embellishment, no matter how inappropriate or unskilful, passed as being as good as the incomprehensibly exotic, often bad, revival buildings designed by qualified people. It is amusing to imagine how bewildering a Montreal Egyptian façade must have appeared to an untravelled and perhaps illiterate Canadian in the latter part of the nineteenth century. Today we can regard such things with amusement, but think of the artistic havoc they have caused. Such was the mood of the architecture of the period of our great expansion, from the sixties to the financial crisis twenty-eight years ago. I suggest the period could be called Dominion Expansionist, as it is the first architecture of the new Dominion, ambitious, adventurous, but often not very thoughtful.

Industrial growth and the railways provided the opportunities and techniques that overcame the old architectural limitations of local materials; buildings no longer needed to be built of pieces that could be lifted or moved by men and horses. Colored bricks and stones came by rail and ship from distant places to adorn Canadian cities. Sometimes craftsmen were imported and sent home again when their jobs were done. Most existing important buildings in Canada belong to this optimistic period which includes practically all of the state buildings, the extraordinary hotels, opulent banks, monumental railway stations, spacious clubs, houses of the well-to-do, and churches of every variety.

For the most part these buildings are worn out and in their shabby condition it is more usual to hear them ridiculed, or threatened with destruction than referred to as examples of an important period of our national development, or as works of art. Many are bad and must be replaced, but some have aesthetic and historic significance. When one sees pictures of the vast parliamentary buildings rising in a pioneer town one senses the grandeur of the idea of a united self-governing coun-

try which is now taken for granted. At the time of their construction, the Parliament Buildings in Ottawa were intended to be symbols of the immense achievement of political union.

The West Block, the most shapely of the group has endured fires, and additions; now it is threatened with a total reconstruction, which can be the most complete form of a building's destruction, when even its memory is mocked by an entirely new appearance.

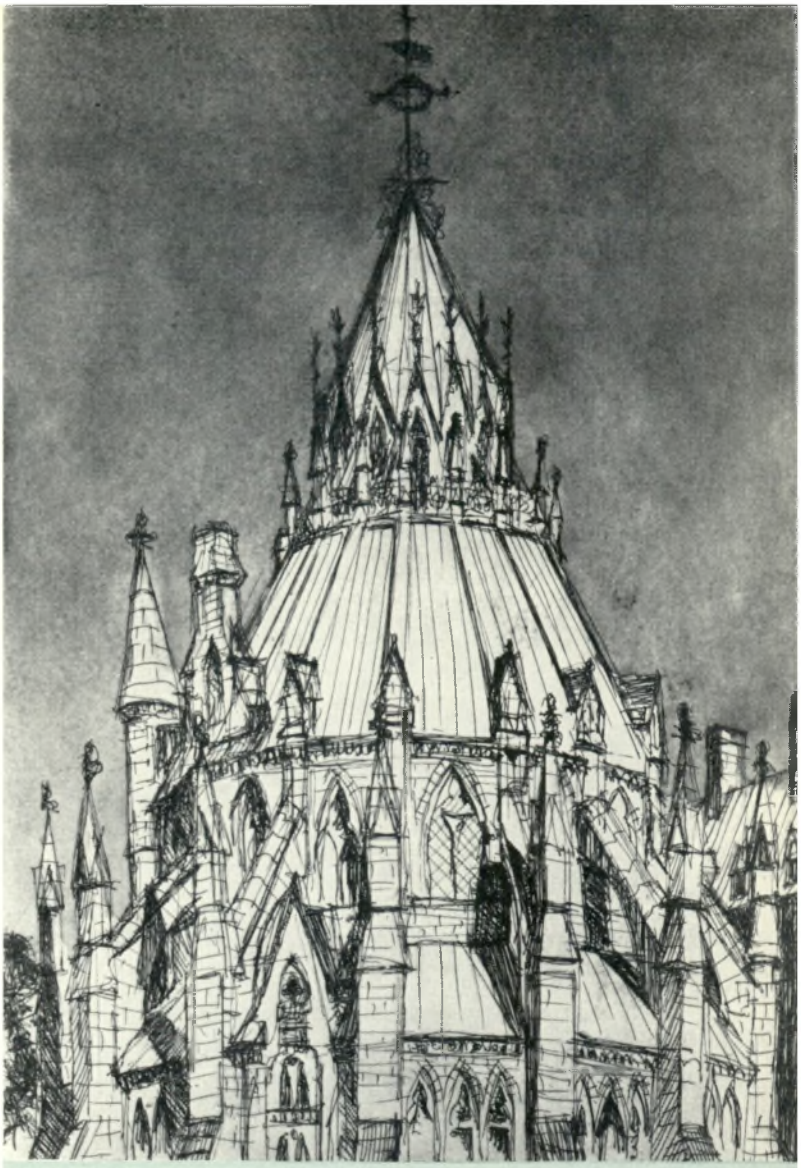
Rebuilding carries nothing of the original conception as has been demonstrated by the reconstruction of the centre Parliament Building in the twenties; as it is now it is more a building showing the sentiment of the period after the first Great War than that of the eighteen-fifties when it was originally conceived.

During the time of expansion, a full blown Victorianism faded into a pale Edwardianism, as demonstrated by many of the more expansive university buildings in Canada. Sometimes Expansionist architecture showed an unexpected resource of fantasy, as in the Chateau Frontenac, which is breathtaking and aesthetically incredible from almost all points of view.

A few bank and insurance company buildings in Montreal and Toronto demonstrated close relationships with the manners of the United States, and in their size, elaborate detail and immense cost brought Expansionist architecture to its zenith after the First World War. The general financial collapse of 1929 absolutely terminated the period of extravagant architecture.

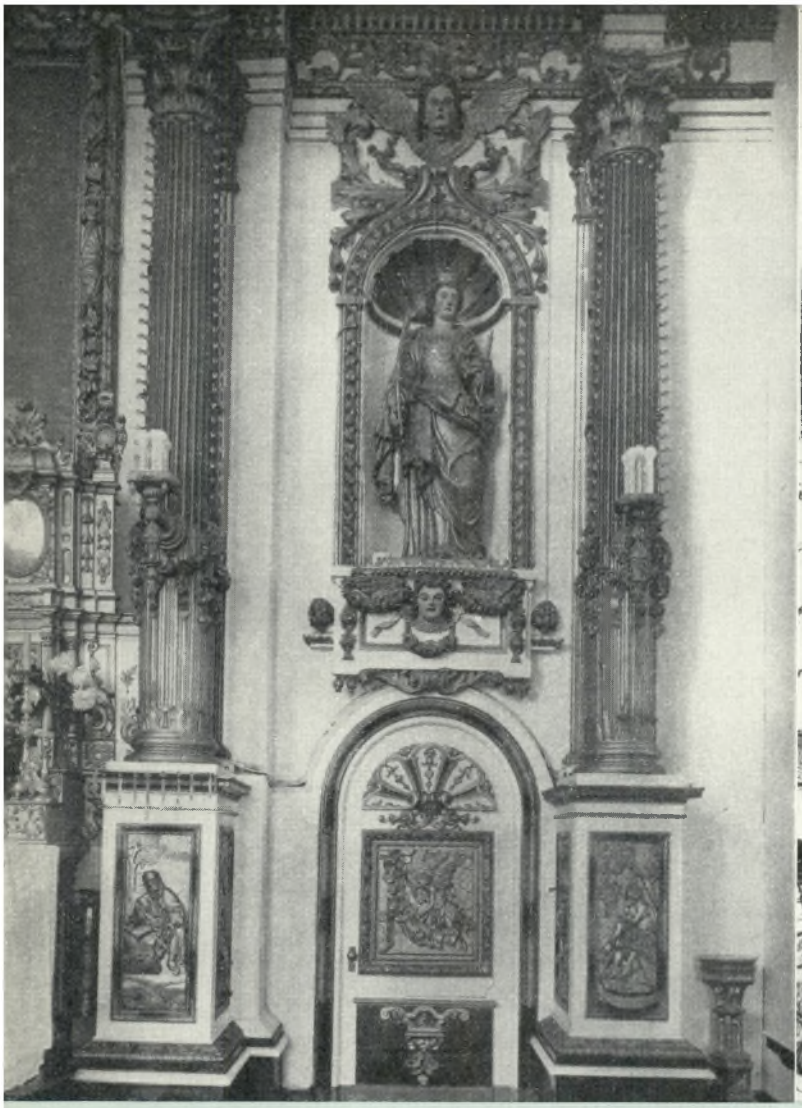
For a time no buildings of any kind were erected, certainly no hotels to equal the Royal York or the Chateaux of a few years earlier. On the contrary the buildings of the thirties and forties were often mean and economical. The objectives were space-saving, operational efficiency, functionalism. Ornament was reduced to flat marks or breaks and sometimes eliminated entirely. Order and proportion had not been as important as applied representational ornament in the Expansionist period and played no part in the architecture which followed. I suggest this period be called Economy, to distinguish it from the more elaborate former manner. Economy buildings are generally straightforward, and often bleak in appearance. They are always intended to be cheaper and trimmer than Expansionist buildings would have been. One architect of the period advocated designing buildings as richly as had been the custom and then carefully rubbing out the ornament. Could a more dreary or joyless way of designing be conceived?

The aesthetic importance of the Economy period lay in its opportunities for a re-evaluation of architecture, and experiments in a direction quite opposite to the



The Parliamentary Library, Ottawa, mid to late nineteenth century. An epochal building of the time of great prosperity and expansion of Canadian life. It is symbolic, gloriously un-republican, and quite un-American. *Sketch, Stig Harvor, (McGill) '55*

A sketch of Parliament Hill and the Interprovincial Bridge, drawn by Oscar Newman, (McGill) '58.



Part of Noel Levasseur's great Retable of the Ursulines Chapel, Quebec, mid-eighteenth century. This shows the early Quebec interest in the sumptuous interior which remains characteristic of our French architectural taste.

L'Inventaire des Oeuvres d'Art, Quebec

Urban scene, Ottawa, showing a steel frame building simply sheathed by windows. A direct expression of accepted methods of construction and mechanical techniques. Refinement of detail and proportion are all important in simple compositions.

Sketch, Hyman Krakow, (McGill) '55

fantasies of the Expansionist period. Some of these experiments have been along independent lines but others have followed a course of development which can be traced to a manner of design that had grown from the industrial revolution and was based upon new needs and new aesthetic drives. Formal architectural values such as a conscious unity, sense of order and style, are taking precedence over happy accident and informal functionalism.

The first stage of the economy period produced an omnibus architecture directed toward efficiency and structural adequacy as ends rather than points of departure. The second stage appears to aim at a greater ordering of architecture and greater recognition of the pleasures that can be aroused by the patterns and shapes of construction with no dependence upon representational ornament or the use of elements of other buildings and times to arouse desirable feelings.

In its most characteristic manner the new form of design is firm, complete, continuous around the sides, inside and out; the elaborate façades of the Expansionist period, forced or distorted in order to represent something, are completely eliminated in the best of the new work.

So once again there appears to be a manner of architecture in Canada, as inclusive and versatile as the architecture of the early days, in which both designers and critics are aware of basic similarities; in which standards of excellence can be set and developed by progressive experiments and competition among designers. At a time when every building sets its own standard in terms of convenience or function, there is no common basis for the kind of comparison and appraisal that causes building manners to proceed through stages of refinement to perfection.

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LA PROTECTION DE NOS QUARTIERS D'HABITATION

par C.-E. Campeau

HABITATION ET URBANISME

L'habitation est l'un des trois éléments que les sociologues tiennent pour essentiels à la vie de l'homme, avec la nourriture et le vêtement. Or l'urbanisme s'impose maintenant à nous, au Canada, par l'ampleur même des besoins de logements et par la mise en oeuvre des moyens de les satisfaire. Le dessin des villes, le visage des régions ne dépend plus aujourd'hui des soucis de décoration, d'efficacité militaire, ou plus simplement d'égoïsmes. Pour la première fois au Canada, l'urbaniste, dont la pensée entre nécessairement en conflit avec la somme des analyses des désirs particuliers, trouve l'audience de ceux mêmes dont il modèle les consciences.

Il n'est pas inutile de dire que le devoir de notre pays, est de loger, dans des maisons heureuses, des millions de familles. *Or, il appartient aux urbanistes canadiens de dire comment il faut loger ces familles, en tenant compte de leurs aspirations sociales et des exigences locales, sans négliger les évolutions sans retour des idées et des techniques.*

Devant l'immensité de la tâche, on ne peut se permettre aucun gaspillage, ni de nos efforts, ni de nos richesses. Notre population canadienne, à la recherche d'une dignité vécue dans les faits, ne peut se permettre de bâtir, au nom de la spéculation à même les sentiments humains ou encore au nom de la facilité, des antres résidentiels indignes.

C'est la famille canadienne qui s'épanouira ou s'étiolera dans le territoire bâti tracé par les urbanistes. *Victime de l'ignorance ou parfois des conséquences rigoureuses de conceptions trop étroites, notre population est trop souvent tentée de refuser l'effort qu'exige l'urbanisme.*

Les villes que nous rêvons pour le Canada, et nos espoirs tracent peu à peu l'empreinte dans les formes sensibles, ne comportent pas ces cloisons que dresse un automatisme facile ou l'esprit de système. Ces villes sont des organes intègres du pays et non pas le seul amas de commodités précaires. Ces villes seront, au contraire, des organes complets, bien greffés dans leur milieu psychologique propre.

LES TISSUS RURAUX ET URBAINS

Vues du ciel, les grandes activités productrices, agricoles et industrielles, s'inscrivent distinctement sur la terre par une texture caractéristique: la juxtaposition géométrique des champs cultivés et des pâturages encloisonnés fait un tapis de rectangles cousus bord à bord, rassemblés par le réseau des chemins d'eau, de terre et de fer. C'est le tissu rural.

De place en place, ce tissu des champs est piqué de fermes isolées ou groupées en villages, embryons minuscules de cet autre tissu non plus simplement tracé en surface, mais construit en épaisseur. C'est le tissu urbain.

A l'approche des villes, le réseau des circulations se resserre, les champs disparaissent pour laisser place à l'usine, aux noyaux et rubans industriels. La terre s'efface sous la concentration des hommes et des bâtisses. C'est la ville: quartiers de commerce, quartiers de résidence. Le tissu résidentiel c'est la matière dominante, la chair même des villes, faite du rapprochement plus ou moins dense de milliers de cellules d'habitations.

MALADIES DU TISSU RÉSIDENTIEL

Le tissu résidentiel c'est la véritable chair de la ville. Cette chair peut être saine ou malade. Elle peut être le résultat de jeux au hasard ou de jeux de l'esprit. Elle peut se comparer aux rayons de la ruche ou aux moisissures. Parfois, elle cesse d'être matière vivante pour n'être plus qu'un décor de tapisserie.

La naissance du village, spontanée ou préméditée, comporte les signes d'un équilibre naturel ou d'une volonté intelligente. Tout à coup, il y a croissance démesurée, inexplicable, inquiétante, d'un agglomérat urbain dans l'espace resté libre. Le village, s'accroissant le long de ses chemins, devient petite ville. Le tissu en est encore souple, jeune, aéré de verdure. Puis la petite ville devient grande ville: le tissu s'encrasse, vieillit, se sclérose. Le sentier devient rue, fossé sombre, canal de dangers entre des rives de tristesse. Les tissus à géométrie sont menacés des mêmes maladies que les tissus naturels ou spontanés: les rigoureux et monotones tracés en plan, renforcés des non moins rigoureux règlements de voirie, de saillies et de hauteur, ne suffisent pas à sauver une ville de l'encrassement.

Puis, il y a hémorragie caractérisée: les cellules d'habitation se répandent en désordre à travers la campagne, le plus souvent suivant une texture inorganisée, d'un tissage indéfiniment monotone, morne et sans vie. On connaît tous les troubles que comporte l'allongement indéfini des conurbations urbaines, à commencer par celui des services publics déficients.

LE TISSU RÉSIDENTIEL ET LA RÉPÉTITION DES MOTIFS

De même que l'artisan façonne le tapis point par point, motif par motif, l'urbaniste compose le résidu résidentiel logement par logement, immeuble par immeuble, en ensembles de complexité croissante. Le logis reste, comme la simple maille de laine, l'immuable élément cellulaire, la seule constante humaine, dont la juxtaposition permet l'infinie variété du milieu de résidence, image de la société, tissu de familles.

Or il est une loi qui commande toute production: l'économie impose la répétition. Pour être accessible au grand nombre, la construction des logements doit se faire par ensembles nombreux, par multiplication de types identiques. Ainsi par les nécessités économiques de l'exécution en série et par l'adaptation de plus en plus exacte des dispositions fonctionnelles aux nécessités humaines, les logements cellules se normalisent de plus en plus.

L'existence ou non d'un terrain, en liaison directe avec chaque logement, partage les tissus résidentiels en deux grands groupes. Dans le premier, le découpage foncier correspond à la répartition des logements: à chaque logement son jardin. Dans le second groupe, les logis n'ont plus de correspondance directe avec la terre. Les cellules sont agglomérées en grandes masses, en hauteur sur un sol à disposition collective. La juxtaposition des logements peut se faire sur le plan horizontal—avec cours intérieures—ou sur le plan vertical.

Ainsi les cellules et les motifs du tissu résidentiel sont-ils d'une grande variété, depuis la cellule isolée qui peut se jumeler, se souder en bandes, en rubans, en nappes, jusqu'aux agglomérations gigantesques, amoncellements immenses de milliers de logements.

LOIS FONDAMENTALES

Cependant les mêmes lois fondamentales s'appliquent toujours. Il faut des cadres de vie orientés totalement vers l'obtention de ce qui est désirable: soleil, espace libre et planté, calme, intimité, et l'élimination de ce qui est défavorable: bruit, vents froids, poussières, etc. Il faut également des milieux de vie facilitant les relations naturelles entre les hommes—ces relations basées sur la proximité et l'affinité et constituant la condition essentielle de la vie organique des hommes vivant en groupes.

L'UNITÉ DE VOISINAGE

L'unité de voisinage, c'est-à-dire le groupement fondamental des habitations, sera donc telle que son cadre physique, ses rues, ses espaces libres, son centre communautaire, ses centres de commerce, seront disposés de façon à engendrer et à maintenir une vie de groupe distincte et réelle. Ce milieu sera conçu à l'échelle humaine. Il aura son église et son école, à une distance de marche d'au plus un demi-mille de la demeure la plus éloignée. Environ 10 p. 100 de la superficie sera affectée aux parcs et terrains de jeux. Des commerces locaux, pour les besoins de tous les jours, seront groupés ensemble en des points faciles d'accès. Les rues internes seront débarrassées de la grande circulation, desservie par des artères appropriées à la périphérie. Les habitations présenteront un aspect agréable grâce à une architecture soignée et à une végétation adéquate.

Ces quartiers d'habitation nouveaux protégeront les citoyens contre les dangers d'accidents, contre la propagation des maladies contagieuses, contre le bruit excessif, contre la pollution de l'atmosphère, contre la fatigue inutile et contre les dangers moraux. Ils fourniront en plein la lumière du jour, le soleil et l'aération nécessaire. Ils auront les facilités et les utilités qu'exige le confort moderne. Ils fourniront cette intimité et ce calme désirables. Ils comporteront des opportunités pour le développement normal de la vie familiale et civique. Enfin, ils donneront aux citoyens qui les habitent cette appréciation profonde du beau.

En plus des dimensions optima à donner aux lots résidentiels, il faut prévoir pour chaque citoyen les surfaces complémentaires de jardin et de cour, de voirie, d'espace vert public, d'école, de commerce, de centre civique. L'habitation se rattache donc directement à la densité de population. Or ce dernier facteur conditionne le plan directeur même d'une ville. En effet, la densité de population choisie détermine le nombre d'habitations, la superficie requise pour les bâtir, et par suite l'espace requis pour les activités commerciales et industrielles répondant aux besoins de cette population, et ainsi le territoire même de la ville à développer.

LA PRÉSERVATION DES QUARTIERS RÉSIDENTIELS

Il ne suffit pas de créer de beaux quartiers d'habitation, il faut également les protéger contre la détérioration à travers les années. Il faut une vigilance continuelle de la part des propriétaires et des agences officielles. Les propriétaires doivent voir à faire les réparations requises à leurs maisons et voir à la propreté des alentours. Ils doivent surveiller de près la qualité de leur quartier et exiger des Autorités gouvernementales les mesures qui s'imposent. Tous les services municipaux doivent voir à l'exécution fidèle de leurs travaux surtout en ce qui concerne l'entretien des rues et l'enlèvement des ordures ménagères. La meilleure

protection reste toujours l'application appropriée des règlements d'hygiène, de construction et surtout de zonage, avec l'aide d'une cour municipale clairvoyante.

Ce qu'il faut surtout éviter c'est l'introduction graduelle de commerces et d'industries dans la zone domiciliaire, sous prétexte de protéger un ami, de régler un cas unique ou d'aider une spéculation payante. Il faut définitivement arrêter cet envahissement de nos bons quartiers résidentiels par les grandes maisons d'appartements et les centres de commerce sous l'excuse du progrès. Le foyer d'une honnête famille vaut plus, pour la nation, que la fortune d'un spéculateur.

Il faut aussi éviter que nos belles rues résidentielles soient envahies par la grande circulation qui en fait "des pistes de courses", au détriment de la valeur de la propriété ou de la vie des enfants. Les mêmes effets peuvent être causés par l'installation imprévue d'une voie ferrée, par exemple.

Il faut préserver le caractère de nos zones résidentielles par tous les moyens à notre disposition. La vétusté se corrige, quand il n'y a que cela à combattre, car il y a moyen de limiter les transformations, rendues nécessaires par les besoins normaux, à celles qui ne détruisent pas le cachet d'un site domiciliaire.

N'oublions pas que ces "bons" quartiers d'habitation constituent encore proportionnellement la meilleure source de revenus dans la plupart de nos villes, et ces quartiers, plus ils ont vieilli, plus ils ont fait leur part pour défrayer les dépenses entraînées par l'expansion urbaine. Cette richesse est à préserver et vaut plus collectivement que la liberté de mouvement de quelques automobilistes en mal de vitesse ou que la bonne fortune d'un spéculateur opportuniste.

LA RÉNOVATION DES QUARTIERS VÉTUSTES

Un aspect important du problème des tissus résidentiels c'est celui de l'assainissement et de l'aménagement des quartiers vétustes.

Il s'agit d'une sorte de maladie des villes qui se traduit toujours par des moins-values et par l'insalubrité. La thérapeutique varie selon les cas.

Bien souvent un quartier insalubre peut être rendu très habitable et agréable par un simple curetage, c'est-à-dire en les restituant simplement dans son état primitif.

Tantôt il s'agit d'anciens quartiers de résidence de haute classe qui se sont peu à peu encrassés par l'abandon et l'amoncellement de constructions parasites dans les espaces libres intérieurs.

Il faut dans ces cas supprimer les causes d'encombrement en éloignant la circulation à long cours, procurer des parcs et des terrains de jeux, faciliter la rénovation des bâtiments vétustes et éliminer les bâtiments détériorés. Il faut appliquer sévèrement les règlements d'hygiène, de construction et de zonage et faire disparaître les intrusions commerciales et industrielles. Il faut parfois réorganiser la subdivision cadastrale.

Parfois il s'agit d'anciens îlots pauvres dont les constructions usées et médiocres ne justifient plus aucun effort de conservation. Il faut alors procéder à l'élimination des taudis et recréer un quartier neuf à la place des logis malsains par une vaste opération de rénovation. Les terrains sont exigus et imbriqués les uns dans les autres dans des îlots bordés de rues. Les constructions sont fréquemment vétustes et enchevêtrées dans un désordre indescriptible. Les hommes, qu'ils soient propriétaires ou locataires, commerçants, ouvriers ou employés, vivent sans confort. A tous il faut donner la joie de vivre. Le soleil doit pénétrer dans les logis. La verdure doit envahir de nouveau le quartier.

EN ATTENDANT . . .

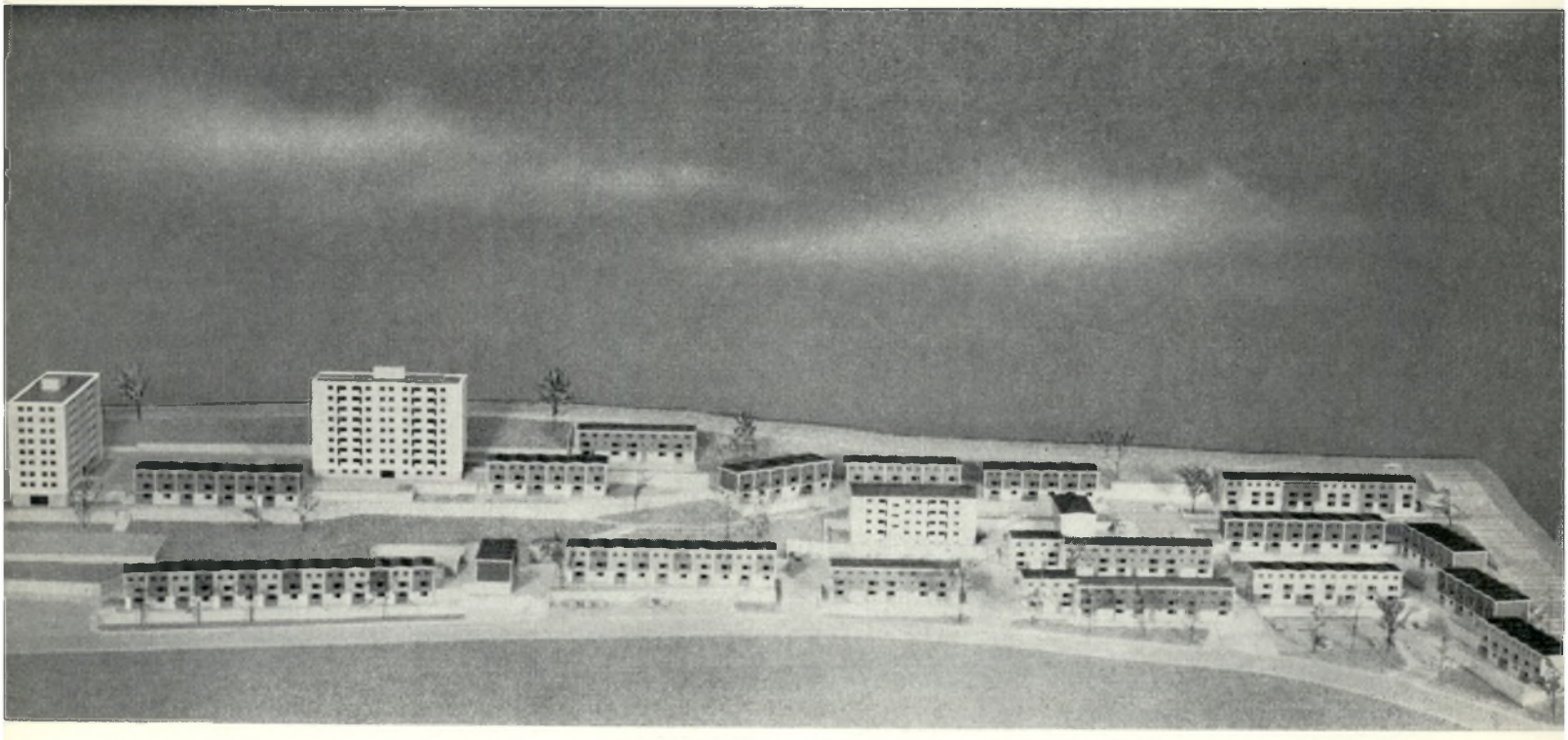
Les citoyens du Canada réussiront sans doute à trouver cet équilibre où les tissus résidentiels deviendront comme la chair bien saine de véritables organismes vivants sans cesser d'être aussi, pour la richesse de l'esprit et la joie des yeux, un "*beau jeu de volumes sous la lumière*".

En attendant, les urbanistes s'efforceront patiemment de rendre possible ce qui ne l'est pas, de construire sur des terrains dont les formes sont incompatibles avec une construction saine, de faire circuler des automobiles au milieu des piétons, de faire pousser des jardins à l'ombre des murs, de faire vivre 1,000 familles là où il n'y a de place que pour 500, et à des milles du lieu où elles devraient habiter. Jusqu'à quand poursuivra-t-on par petits fragments ce jeu géométrique et ornemental qui ne connaît d'autre règle que la sensibilité plastique, à la manière des créateurs d'un immense tapis, insouciants du dessin d'ensemble et ignorant même l'utilité finale de leur travail?

Il est grand temps que nous cessions de croire au tapis magique pour protéger de toutes nos forces notre plus grande richesse nationale: nos habitations rurales et urbaines.

Monsieur Charles-Edouard Campeau est député de Montréal St-Jacques. Il est également président de l'Association canadienne d'urbanisme, présentement à son second terme. Il était antérieurement directeur de l'Aménagement à Montréal.

Il est membre de Engineering Institute of Canada, de Town Planning Institute of Canada, de American Society of Planning Officials, de Institute of Traffic Engineers, et de National Association of Housing and Redevelopment Officials.



MULGRAVE PARK AND URBAN REDEVELOPMENT IN HALIFAX

By Earl A. Levin

The housing project at Mulgrave Park, in Halifax, is part of a redevelopment programme which may be the most important experiment in urban redevelopment so far undertaken by any Canadian city. The full programme involves not only housing, but redevelopment of a part of the city's business district with financial assistance from the Federal Government under the National Housing Act. Halifax is the first city to make use of the Act to achieve redevelopment for commercial purposes, and in this respect is conducting an experiment of great interest. Its success could have an important influence on all subsequent redevelopment of the central areas of Canadian cities.

Like other Canadian cities, Halifax's blighted central areas contain a mixture of run-down commercial and residential buildings. Prior to 1956 it was a prohibitive task for municipalities to undertake the redevelopment of these areas because Federal assistance was not available for redevelopment for commercial use. In 1956 the National Housing Act was amended to permit the re-use of land for its "highest and best use", whether residential, commercial, or industrial, provided that the area selected be substantially residential either before or after redevelopment, and provided that displaced families are offered decent alternative accommodation. Halifax's present redevelopment programme is proceeding under this amendment.

Unlike Toronto's Regent Park schemes, and Montreal's Jeanne Mance, Halifax Mulgrave Park project is not centrally located, nor will it replace congested slums existing on the site. The dwellings which are built on it will re-house families who will be displaced by the redevelopment of about 10 blocks of the business section of the city, in the vicinity of the Jacob Street-Barrington Street intersection. These families at present live in dwellings interspersed throughout the commercial district in what is one of the worst residential environments in the city.

This "decanting" process is the only way to free the commercial properties from their present admixture of residential uses and get the redevelopment of the business district started. It will achieve two important results for Halifax. On the one hand it will add about 350 new low-rental dwellings to the city's housing stock, and on the other hand it will permit the revitalization of about thirteen acres of the downtown area. Both of these achievements are badly needed in Halifax, as they are in most Canadian cities.

The present proposals are the result of a series of studies and reports which go back to 1955. In that year an advisory committee under the chairmanship of Mr. G. S. Black was appointed by City Council to survey an area of fifty-six blocks containing mainly residential development. The committee at the end of that year submitted a report of its findings to the Slum Clearance and Housing Committee of the City Council. The report provoked considerable public interest, and following on its recommendations, and discussion in Council, the decision was made to extend the nature and scope of the survey.

In 1956, City Council, with the financial assistance of the Federal Government under Part V of the National Housing Act, engaged Professor Gordon Stephenson to prepare an Urban Renewal Study for the City of Halifax. The present project for Mulgrave Park, and the related redevelopment of the Jacob Street site, are part of the recommendations contained in Professor Stephenson's report, which was published in 1957.

The Mulgrave Park housing project was designed by the Architectural and Planning Division of Central Mortgage and Housing Corporation in collaboration with Leslie R. Fairn and Associates, and J. Philip Dumaresq and Associates, associated architects for this project.

The site comprises about 11½ acres of land situated approximately three miles north of the business district redevelopment area along Barrington Street. Physically it presents a number of difficult problems. The land falls steeply toward the waterfront; there is a total drop of about eighty feet from the high side to the low side of the site. The explosion of 1917 of a munitions ship in Halifax harbour devastated the area around Mulgrave Park, and much of the rubble and spoil from the surrounding ruins was dumped on the site. There are still large areas of loose fill covering the land, making deep footings and piling necessary in some buildings. The steep slope and the loose fill reduce the buildable area from about 11½ acres to only 8 acres. On the other hand, the rising ground provides a magnificent panoramic view of the harbour, the new Angus L. Macdonald suspension bridge across to Dartmouth, and the naval dockyards. The designers have attempted to turn the site difficulties to advantage, and use the slope, topographical features and the view to create a scheme of interest and variety.

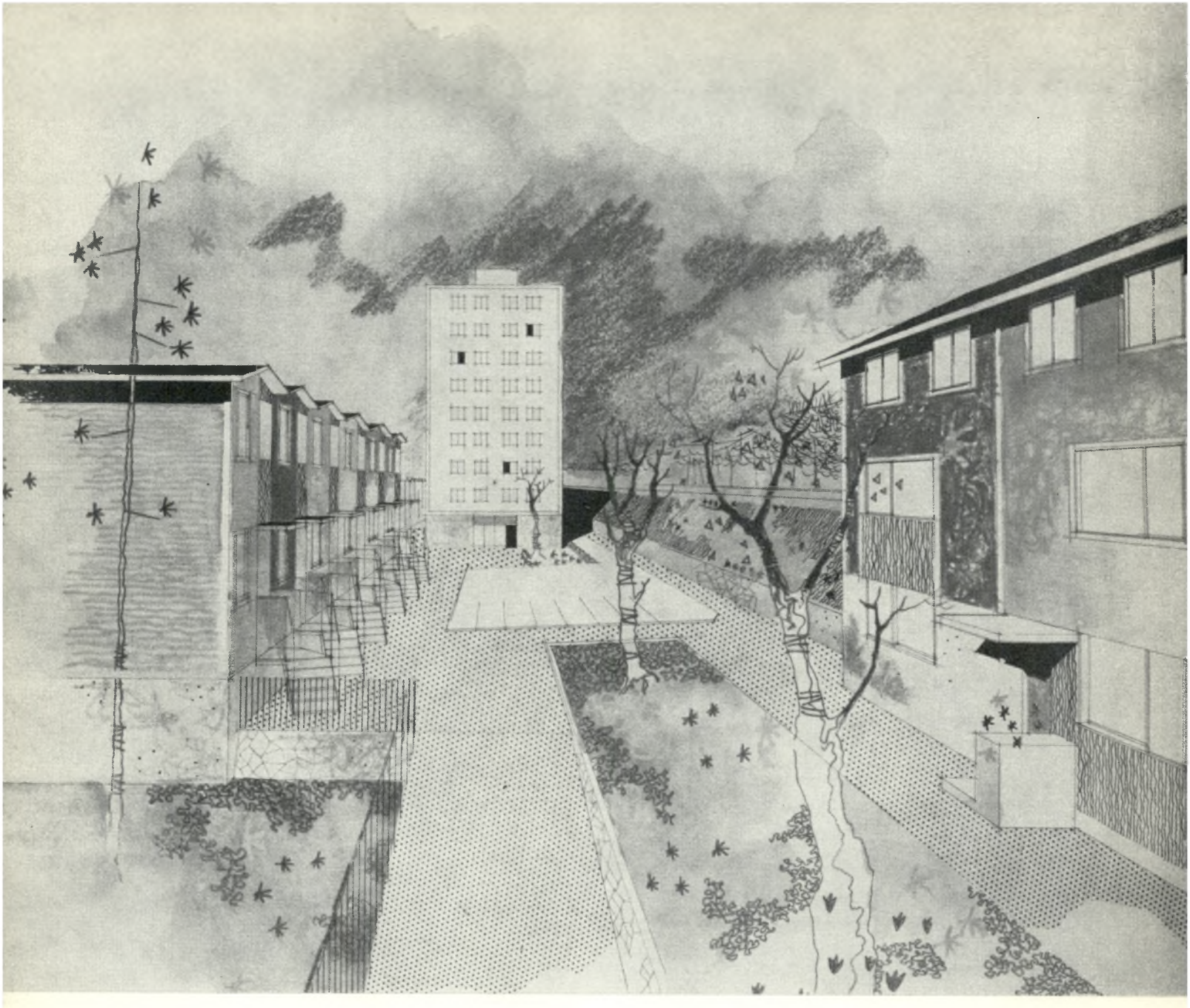
There will be 351 dwelling units in the project, producing a density of about 35 dwellings per acre. These will be contained in two eight-storey apartment blocks, one four-storey walk-up, and the balance in three-storey buildings containing apartments and maisonettes.

Halifax is one of the oldest cities in Canada, and over the years has developed an architectural vernacular of its own. There are many houses in the older part of the city which have low pitched gables turned towards the street, are three or even four storeys high, and are finished in gaily painted shingles or clapboard siding. The designers have tried to preserve some of this traditional look and flavor, particularly in their designs for the three-storey apartment buildings.

The two eight-storey apartment blocks will be of reinforced concrete construction. One of these blocks will contain 62 dwelling units and the other will contain 64. Both blocks will provide one bedroom, two-bedroom, and three-bedroom accommodation.

The four-storey walk-up uses the slope of the land to provide four full storeys on the down slope side of the building and three full storeys on the up slope side. The building will be of load bearing masonry construction, with concrete floors, and will contain seven two-bedroom units and fourteen three-bedroom units to provide a total of twenty-one dwellings.

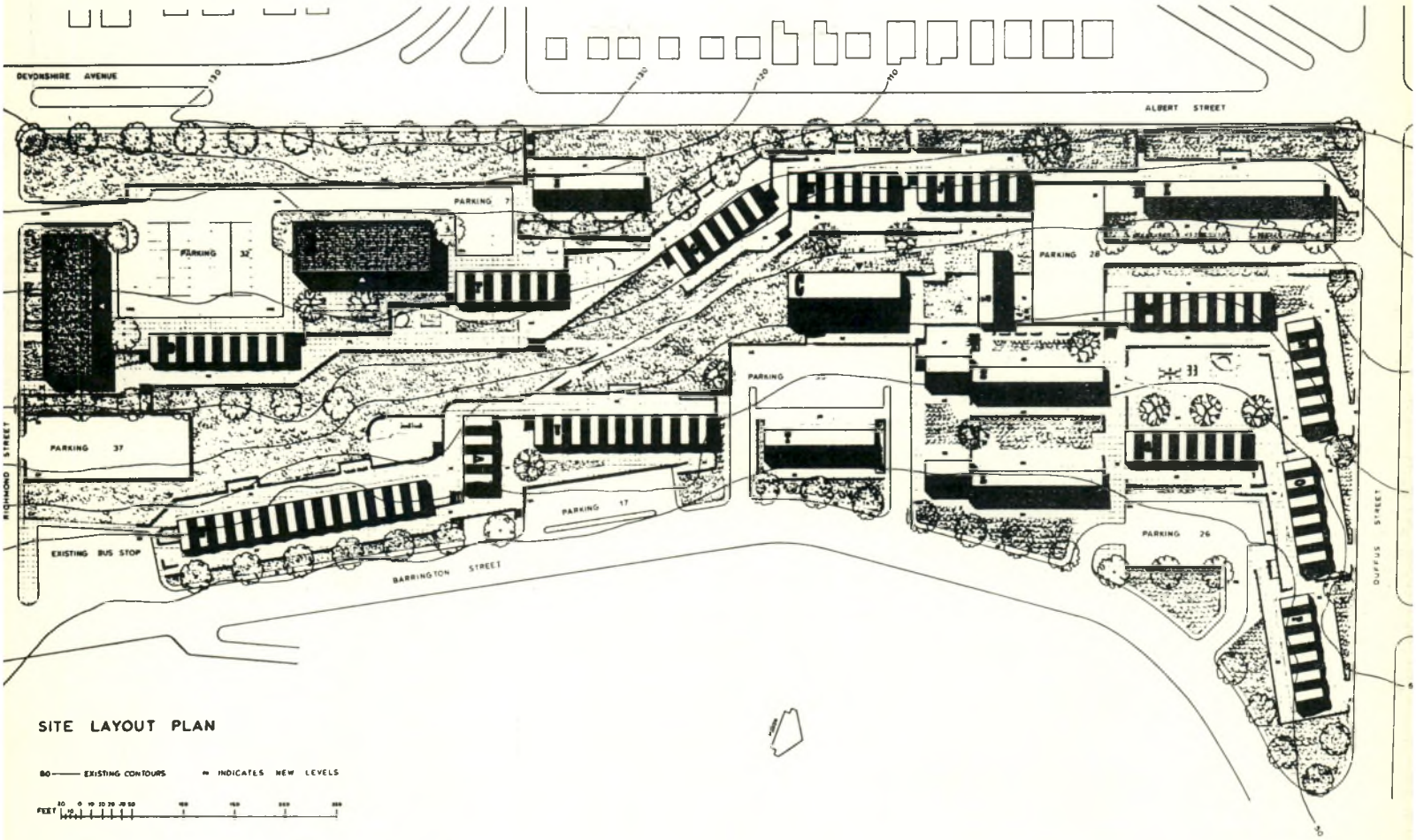
There are two types of apartments proposed – a three-bedroom type and a four-bedroom type. Both of these types are three storeys high, and both consist of a ground floor of single storey apartments with two-storey maisonettes over. The three-bedroom type contains a mixture of bachelor apartments and three-bedroom apartments on the ground floor, with three-bedroom maisonettes occupying the upper floors, while the four-bedroom type contains a mixture of two-bedroom and four-bedroom apartments on the ground floor, and four-bedroom maisonettes on the upper floors. The slope of the ground has been used to provide separate entrances so that the ground floor dwellings are entered from the down-hill side and the maisonettes are entered from the up-hill side. The three-storey apartments will be constructed in poured concrete for the ground floor, with timber framing for the upper floors. Party walls will be masonry, and the end walls of each block will be brick veneer.



A central heating plant will heat the entire project. The heating system will use low pressure steam which will be converted into hot water radiation. Parking space has been provided for 182 cars which allows approximately one space for every two units.

Because of the steep slope of the ground the project will have an unusually high requirement for earthworks and retaining walls. This has given the designers an opportunity to create an interesting interplay of levels and terraces and introduce a variety of surfaces and textures in the floorscape. Play areas, parking areas, footpaths and planting will all be carefully considered and related to one another to give richness and coherence to the whole project.

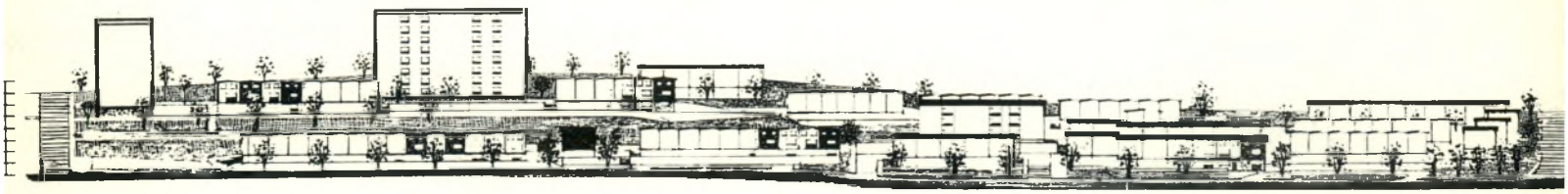
The Mulgrave Park housing project is of course only half of the current redevelopment programme in Halifax. The other, and equally important half, is the related redevelopment of the thirteen acres in the business district. The final form which this commercial redevelopment will take has not yet been determined, but is receiving careful study at this time. The cost of acquisition and clearance of the land will be shared jointly by the City of Halifax and the Federal Government. The land will then be re-sold to private enterprise for development, and the success or failure of the whole venture will in large measure hinge upon the techniques which are now being evolved to achieve a high standard of civic planning and architectural design for the new development which is placed upon it.



SITE LAYOUT PLAN

80 —— EXISTING CONTOURS ∞ INDICATES NEW LEVELS

FEET



SITE ELEVATION TO BARRINGTON STREET

SCHEDULE OF ACCOMMODATION																							
NO OF STOREYS	8	8	4	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	
BLOCK NO	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	J	K	L	M	N	O	P	Q	R	S	T	U	V	W	TOTALS
BACHELOR										2						3							5
1 BEDROOM	18	16																					34
2 BEDROOM	14	16	7		5						2						2		5				51
3 BEDROOM	32	32	14	12		9	9	8	9	14		12	8	8	9	9				15	9	21	226
4 BEDROOM					5						3						11	11	5				35
TOTAL NUMBER OF UNITS																							351

Mulgrave Park Housing Project

Central Mortgage and Housing Corporation — Architectural and Planning Division

Ian MacLennan — Chief Architect and Planner

Maurice Clayton — Architect/Planner in charge of project.

Assisted by A. M. Henderson, Atlantic Regional Architect and Erwin C. Cleve.

Leslie R. Fairn and Associates
J. Philip Dunnaresq & Associates } *—Associate Architects*

THE CHANGING FORM OF MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT

By C. A. Curtis

I should like to make some contrasts between the present and sixty years ago in fields which have relevance for local government. The first one is the impact of the motor car. In 1900 there were no hard-surfaced highways in Ontario; there were some paved streets in the larger cities. Today, in the Province of Ontario, there are 13,000 miles of paved highways and 52,000 miles of gravel secondary roads. In 1900 there was but a handful of motor vehicles in Ontario — there were only 220 registered in 1903, the first year of registration — and the motor vehicle industry was just beginning. In 1958 there are nearly two million vehicles operating in this province. This gives you some idea of the change in this field within sixty years, a change which many of us have seen taking place.

Turning directly to municipal services it is true that fire and police services have existed for centuries and were established municipal services in Ontario by 1899. But the contrast between fire departments or police departments of that time and those of the present is pretty substantial. Fire and police equipment and techniques have changed and expanded. It is also true that health services existed at that time, but the total amount of expenditures on health services in the whole Province of Ontario did not amount to many dollars. Today we have municipal and provincial government expenditures on public health amounting to around ninety million dollars. We now consider as a very backward place one which does not insist on the pasteurization of milk, the provision of school nurses, and the endless amount of services which go with a public health establishment. And there is the expansion in water and sewage systems, in recreation and parks; the list seems almost endless and need not be pursued further.

Now what has been responsible for the change which has gone on in this period? The approximate cause can be stated simply as technology. Now by technology I mean the application of scientific knowledge and techniques to the arts of production and government. During these past sixty years we have seen more inventions in the field of production and distribution than in any other sixty years of the human race. We have seen these inventions come at an astonishing rate and we have become so accustomed to them that we regard change and invention as the normal course of existence. But I would like to point out that this is a unique situation, and one which has not been true for any previous period.

Now there is a difference in economic terminology between invention and innovation. Invention is the discovery of a method or machine or service and it may be large or small; innovation is the large-scale introduction of new industries and the process of making them feasible. Edison invented the incandescent light but it was the entrepreneurs who made General Electric, Westinghouse, etc., and the electrical manufacturing industry. The gasoline engine was an invention but the automobile is an innovation. The airplane is also an innovation and the possibility of a mass helicopter or small plane industry is another, all of which have grave implications for local government. We have a housing industry but the mass production of houses is another innovation waiting for a great innovator and it will have direct consequences for government.

It has been the development of the internal combustion engine most specifically in the motor car, and to some extent in the airplane, which has changed the character of our communities. The motor car has made it possible for people to spread out over the countryside, to work miles away from home and to go and come each day; the effect has been the urban spread with its impact urbanizing the whole countryside. All this results in a demand for streets, highways, parking services — all the things which go with this form of transportation, and the costs of these services have come to rest, in the main, on the local governments.

There is another change of importance and this is in tastes which has accompanied the great changes in the field of communications. The application of electrical energy is basic to every means of mass communication. Nowadays, a telephone for local use is a "must". Radios or televisions based on local stations or networks are everywhere and have brought everyone within the range of common broadcasts. What is televised, said, or advertised in the metropolitan centre tonight is heard or seen all over the country instantaneously; or at latest reproduced the next day. Thus everyone sees or hears the same thing at practically the same time. Never in the history of the human race has there been such means of communication, and never before has there been so little time for a cultural lag between town and country. And so the tastes of country, town and city become more and more alike and the distinctions between town and country become blurred.

This means that the urban and rural areas make about the same types of demands on the local governments – inside plumbing, new up-to-date schools, plowed roads, fire protection, and so on. Thus we get the full impact of all these social changes in taste and living, coming back to affect the demand for municipal services. What other government has this problem in the same degree?

Now the changes which have come because of the great advance in the body of knowledge concerning physical and other sciences has had all sorts of effects. But for the moment we are concerned with its impact on the function and structure of government. And here I want to emphasize that the main technological impact has not been on the federal government – its costs and functions outside of the field of defense and social services have not been seriously affected. The impact has been primarily in the fields covered by municipal and provincial governments. And it has come with heavier force on municipal government.

The great developments of this century have been particularly in the form of energy – such as electricity – and the sources of it, water, coal and now the atom. Electricity has revolutionized our life and manner of living, and we expect it to be available everywhere and at all times. Just think of our daily routine without electrical power available! The chemical and petrochemical industries have contributed sources of energy which have made possible the automobile.

It is because of all this that I emphasize that the continuing demands which local governments are making on the provincial authorities are not simply the importunings of a poor relation who is continually living beyond his means. The demands of the municipalities are based on the changes which are taking place in the form of our society. So I hope that all levels of government will realize that these demands are based on fundamental social changes, that they are serious, and that they will continue as long as the present pattern of technological innovation continues.

We assume that in the western world innovation will continue, that Canada will continue to grow, and with it the province of Ontario. And, if this province grows, the growth must occur over the geographical range of the province – that is, specifically, in country, villages, towns and cities.

It is improbable that the rate of economic growth will be the same in or for all classes of municipalities. It has been suggested that suburban communities may expand somewhat more, central cities somewhat less. It has been inferred that the economic functions of the central cities will change and their financial needs will increase as their financial resources diminish – that is, in proportion to their needs. There will be social changes in the composition of the population in our municipalities; central cities may tend to contain more service industries and lower income residents. Suburban areas and smaller cities may get industrial development and higher income groups. We do not know what innovations may be waiting for us – e.g. helicopters – and so no one knows just how communities will develop and grow and change, but change they will.

We must assume the continuance of economic growth even if no one can know precisely how the economic growth of our country will affect local government; but certainly we do know that it will affect it somewhere. We know that national growth does not take place in a vacuum; it must be someplace. Thus it should be a part of the daily thinking of those responsible for local government that change is a part of our life and must be allowed for. That we like it or dislike it is immaterial; that we must be aware of it is vital.

Now that I have established the respectability of municipal demands, the urgency of their need and the dynamic character of our world, what then is to be done and how are these problems to be met? It must be recognized at the start that the solution of most of these problems is at the provincial and not at the municipal level. We can inform the provincial authorities of the difficulties, and of the problems that arise, but whether or not we will be able to meet them will depend upon the resulting provincial legislation. After all, the municipalities do have to work within a framework of law – of legal powers delegated to them by the province. This means that the provincial government will have to give careful and, in my opinion, more extensive attention to the problems of the social changes of our times and their impact on local government than has been done. It is all very well to say that more money has been given in grants, but this does not meet the problem; in many ways it is like giving the children a dime – or maybe in these days of inflation it should be a quarter – to be quiet. The real point is that the provincial government must realize that the primary responsibility for the solution of municipal problems rests on it, and that this requires intelligent thinking and a massive attack.

It seems to me that there is no one solution to these problems and we must look in many places. It is appropriate that the first suggestion I have is particularly within the influence of municipal leaders. I refer to local attitudes on the subject of municipal boundaries –

the size of the area to be covered by a single local government. I believe that the area of administrative control for a local government should be as large as the urban area involved – maybe larger – and that municipal boundaries should be easily and quickly adjusted to meet this test. In this way urban areas will be larger and stronger. Rural municipalities should be rural and be organized as such.

Many municipal officials may question this because they feel that such an attitude may worsen the position of the municipality. Let me say this: No municipality has any claim to perpetuity. A municipality exists to serve its people and the function of the local government is to serve the communities of its area in the best possible way. It has no "right" to exist, and its officials – elected and appointed – should not try to make one for the municipality or to develop a vested office for themselves. And I repeat that the problem is not confined to the urban sections, for it also exists in the rural areas. These rural municipalities should be as large as efficient administration will permit and should not be based on the historical accident of a 19th century land survey and the limits of horse and buggy travel.

I realize that this may sound like a counsel of perfection, but I believe that this situation must be recognized by those who are the leaders in the local government and that they must take the broader viewpoint on these matters. There is little point to indicting the provincial authorities for their deficiencies if the municipal leaders themselves do not display these desirable qualities of leadership.

Allow me to digress at this point, to say that I doubt if suburban governments lose as much in the amalgamation as appears on the surface. This is not an easy matter to assess but in any case it should not be the basis of decision. Unfortunately, however, it may carry considerable weight in the political field.

Furthermore, I have grave doubts about the federal form of government in the municipal field – that is as a permanent form. If there is one thing that has been shouted from the housetops for decades, it is that Canada is over-governed – that the overhead cost of three forms of government is much too much. If this is correct why add a fourth form – federated municipalities? There may be occasional situations in which a federated municipality – or a service or utility organization – is really necessary, but such situations are not common. Too often this form is used simply to avoid the fuss and furore of amalgamation or annexation, and having been through this experience I do not deny the force of this argument. However, I think there is little logic for the federated form unless one believes that this form is but a transition to a unitary government.

Now there is one way in which the province can help here and that is financially. If there is any good argument against boundary adjustments it comes within the general situation that a loss of territory – and tax revenue – makes the remainder of the municipality unworkable. And this can happen. In these cases I believe the province has a clear financial responsibility to see that there is no burden on the remainder of the municipality. We in North America are so slow to learn that buying out a vested interest is often the cheapest. The British learned this decades ago.

My next suggestion is that substantial changes should be made in the financial aspects – and maybe structure – of local government. This is one of the things which has to be given serious thought and attention by provincial, federal and local governments, more than ever before. If my argument is sound this is not just a municipal problem. For example, the time is approaching – possibly it is here – when the larger cities will no longer provide street and parking facilities for individual passenger cars. As a matter of simple economy we are rapidly getting to the point where money and real thought will have to be directed towards providing mass transit facilities. As population density rises there is no other solution to the transportation difficulty.

In the past, it has been the general view that the costs of such facilities should be paid by the users but it may well be that it will be cheaper for governments to provide subsidized transit facilities and save on streets and parking facilities. A public street is about the most expensive parking facility one can get. We are spending money on super-streets and throughways but at best we stand still.

Turning to the revenue side, we know that the basis of local government taxation is real property and that real property is not a very flexible tax base. The difficulty of real property as a base of taxation is, of course, that it does not reflect the varying amounts of income which individuals and corporations have, and which, after all, are the source of all tax payments. We should not be misled by the nominal basis or object on which a tax is assessed. We can levy a tax on a particular object – such as, the real or personal property of a man – or on some characteristic, weight, or height, or even the colour of his eyes. Irrespective of how the tax is levied, it must be paid out of the man's income. Thus it can be stated categorically that all taxation must be paid out of income, and thus the important question –

does the income exist in the area and do the available objects of assessment permit it to be tapped equitably? The income tax, which is based on the assessment of a man's income, would appear to be the ideal taxation in this respect, and within a framework of human institutions it probably is. However, because of the widening range of our economy, and the diverse sources from which income is derived, we have generally concluded that the income tax – personal and corporate – should be reserved for the central taxing authority where the jurisdiction is more likely to coincide with the sources of income.

This may be a very sound conclusion on administrative and other grounds, but it could be that other governments should participate in the income tax more directly. This can be done, not by setting up a new income tax administration at the local or provincial level, but by having the requirements of these governments tacked on to the federal return. This will give rise to certain difficulties and problems, but what does not? And here I merely suggest that it may be worth looking at. It is inevitable that with any form of taxation there will be problems and, therefore, the practical solution is simply to get the one with the least or fewest difficulties.

Let me take, for example, the Toronto area; it contains a quarter of the population of the province, has a property assessment equal to over one-third of that of the whole province, and has an annual budget surpassed by only three provinces. Can anyone doubt that there is enough wealth in the Toronto area to allow it to pay for its own services and operation? Can anyone plead financial inability for such an area? Clearly, it is a matter of having the legislative ability to make the tax collecting machine capable of tapping this income.

This argument rests on the size of the municipality. Our one real metropolitan area has all the wealth and income within its boundaries that are needed for its purpose. It is large enough to develop an efficient administrative machinery; all it needs are the legal powers to do these things – why does it not have them? And there may be intermediate or smaller cities to which this point also applies. This question requires examination and a rational answer.

I am suggesting that the financial position and sources of income of local governments should be looked at critically and with a new approach. Traditionally we have all gone along on the general assumption that the real property tax was a suitable tax for local government – the only tax suitable for local administration – and that supplementary sources of income should be by grants from the province. But size and technology are changing all this and it may well be that the time has come to examine carefully this presumption and to see if there are not other sources of revenue which might be allocated to local government.

In addition to the usual taxes, there is no doubt that many of the minor taxes – sometimes called nuisance taxes – may be quite suitable for local use. An amusement tax, which may be a minor revenue producer for a province, may be quite important to a city and may be a fit object of taxation. If we have a sales tax on many articles of common use – which we have – what is the logic of exempting entertainment?

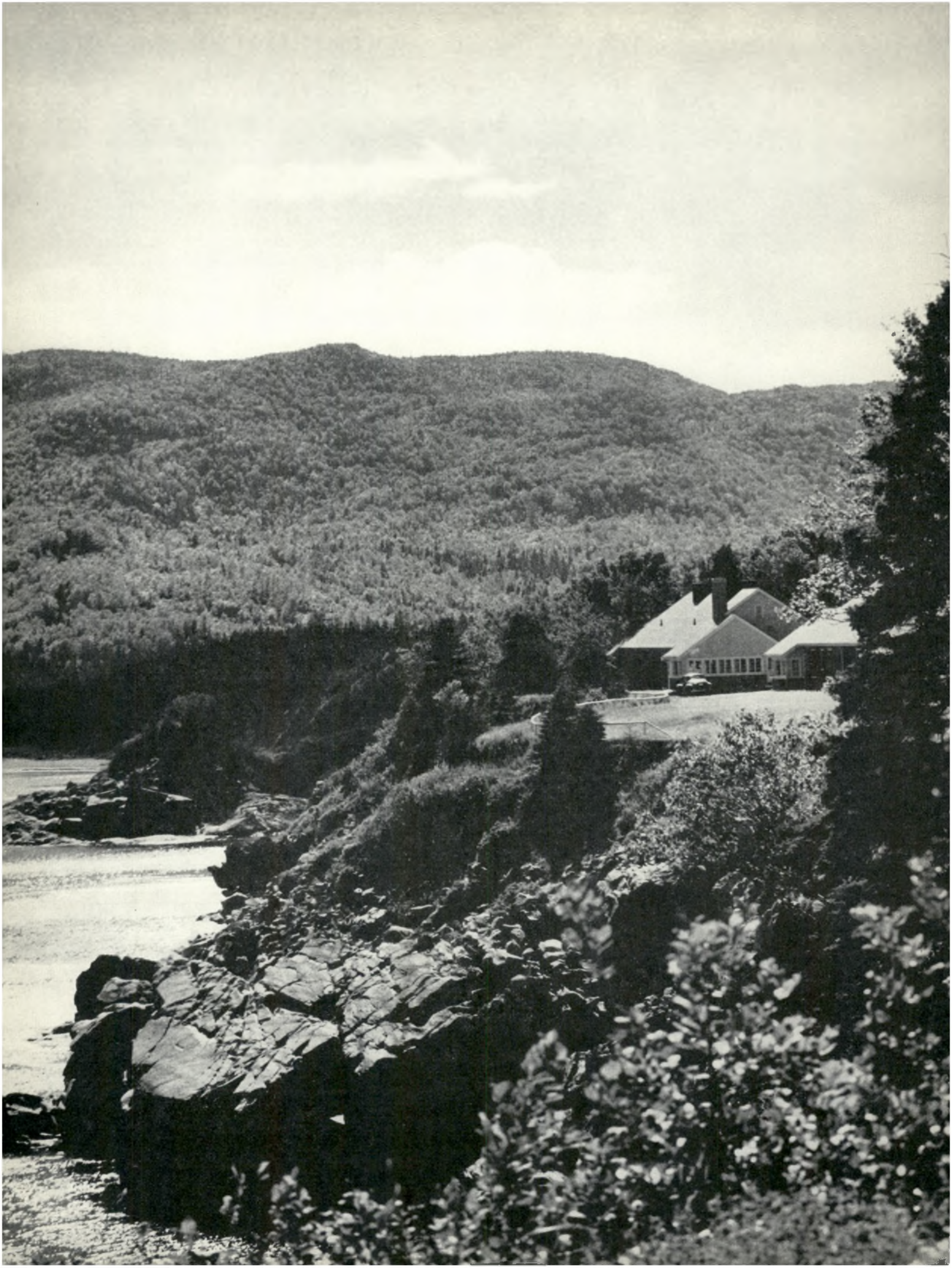
Furthermore, I suggest that we should consider a more extensive use of user charges. When you come to think of it, many of the services provided by the municipalities can be charged to the users – water and sewers are the most common cases. Why not a local user charge on cars? Certainly they are the cause of substantial municipal costs today, and is there any real reason why they should be exempt? If the argument against this is administrative, then let the province be the agent for the municipality – and take only a modest agent's fee. It may well be that this sort of arrangement can be of great help to the municipalities and can be applied in a number of places.

I have made a number of concrete suggestions here, but these are of lesser significance; the essence of what I am doing is to insist that we are in the midst of changes in the techniques and nature of production which have determined our rate of economic development, which in turn has had impacts on our human and social institutions, particularly the one of immediate concern here – local government. And that, as a result of all this, we must be prepared to reappraise our position and see what changes and remedies are available to meet our circumstances. I urge no hasty discarding of our experience, but merely suggest that we look at these things with an open and inquiring mind – prepared to use what is logically sound and practically feasible.

Dr. Curtis is head of the Department of Political and Economic Science, Queen's University and is a member of the Institute of Local Government at the University.

He has served on a number of Royal Commissions, including the Royal Commission on Currency and Banking, 1933; Price Spreads 1934-1935 and on Prices 1948-1949. The Report of the Sub-committee on Housing and Community Planning, 1944, was prepared under his chairmanship and is widely known as the Curtis Report.

An authority on municipal affairs, Dr. Curtis served on the Kingston City Council and later as Mayor of that City for the period 1948-1952. He was the first Chairman of Kingston's Municipal Town Planning Committee.



LE RETOUR À LA TERRE

Par Jean Lupien

Depuis cinquante ans, nous avons assisté à l'exode de nos campagnes en faveur des villes. En 1951, la population rurale de la Province de Québec se chiffrait à moins de 15 p. 100 du total. D'autre part, près de 35 p. 100 de la population vit sur l'île de Montréal et l'Ile Jésus, qui constituent la majeure partie du Montréal Métropolitain. En chiffre, cela équivaut à 1,400,000 âmes sur quatre millions. Cependant, la population de la ville de Montréal proprement dite, a de la difficulté à se maintenir. De 1941 à 1951, il y a eu une augmentation de 15,000 âmes seulement sur un total de 900,000. L'accroissement s'est fait sentir par le développement de la banlieue, ces nombreuses petites villes d'avant ou d'après guerre qui ont passé de quelques centaines de personnes à 15,000 âmes, en dix ans. Le chapelet de ces villes-dortoirs se complète rapidement et utilise plus ou moins avantageusement tous les rivages de nos deux îles et une bande peu profonde de la terre ferme qui les entoure. Notons, également, qu'il reste plus de 20,000 acres non construites, au centre de l'île de Montréal seulement, et 85,000 acres dans le Montréal Métropolitain.

Tout de même, depuis deux ans, une nouvelle tendance s'est dessinée et se prononce, soit le désir de s'éloigner encore plus du coeur de la ville et des îles, en faveur de la terre ferme. Certains ont voulu voir, dans cet éloignement, la recherche d'une sécurité pour leur famille, en cas de désastre, de bombardement ou d'attaque nucléaire. Dans nos deux îles, nous sommes prisonniers. Chacun en fait l'expérience en fin de semaine et l'on doit avouer, en effet, que des sentiments d'inquiétude s'offrent à notre réflexion de temps à autre. D'autres ont vu, dans cette nouvelle émigration, l'expression d'un désenchantement dans le climat de "suburbia", créé jusqu'ici, et le rêve d'une agglomération qui conserverait encore plus le caractère champêtre. Plusieurs peuvent prétendre qu'il s'agit simplement d'un perpétuel recommencement. Les avantages économiques des projets entrepris il y a quelques années disparaissent éventuellement devant les succès de la vente de maisons, l'installation de centres d'achats, la construction des premières maisons de rapport et la spéculation immobilière qui suit si rapidement en période de prospérité.

Quelle que soit la raison fondamentale, certains ont déjà prévu le désenchantement, pour un bon nombre, de ce qu'offrent ou offriront nos villes de banlieue et on suggère maintenant la vie dans "l'exurbia". Très peu utilisent encore cette nouvelle expression, mais voici ce que comportent certaines annonces dans nos grands quotidiens: vivre dans le décor enchanteur des Laurentides, sur les rives des lacs sauvages, au sommet des rochers offrant une vue sur la cime des sapins et de nos merveilleuses chaînes de montagnes! Chaque terrain boisé a l'aire minimum d'une acre. Votre vie sociale ne souffrira pas des inconvénients des milieux cosmopolitains de la ville en raison du choix sévère des membres du club qui sera constitué par les résidants. Tous ces avantages du ski, de l'équitation, de la natation pour vous et vos enfants à l'année longue! Chalets d'été et d'hiver réunis en une résidence confortable et le tout d'accès facile pour le mari qui devra quand même continuer à travailler dans la grande ville à cinquante milles de là. Tous ces avantages attachés à "quelques arpents de neige" sont offerts aux privilégiés pour un montant variant entre $2,000 et $12,000 par terrain.

Présentement, il y a à peine une demi-douzaine d'entrepreneurs offrant ce qui constitue, apparemment, pour certains, la réalisation de leurs rêves. Cependant, les possibilités financières reliées à cette nouvelle tendance furent déjà prévues par quelques spéculateurs. Ces derniers retiennent à l'écart des milliers et des milliers d'arpents de terre qui seront mis sur le marché lorsque les pionniers auront fait la battue.

Nous avons cru qu'il serait intéressant d'analyser ce que comporte ce phénomène qui semble assez particulier pour mériter d'être signalé, et d'examiner ses caractéristiques et les significations que cela comporte. J'ai lu avec un intérêt mêlé d'inquiétude le livre de A. C. Spectorsky, The Exurbanites qui décrit avec force détails, souvent bizarres, l'attrait, pour une certaine classe de la Ville de New York, de régions qui peuvent se comparer à nos Laurentides vis-à-vis de Montréal. Selon l'auteur, il s'agit principalement des officiers et employés de la radio et de la télévision, des agences de publicité, d'information ou de relations extérieures qui vivent plus loin que la banlieue, tout en se servant du vieux chemin de fer ou autres moyens de transport pour

s'y rendre. Ils sont au delà de "suburbia" donc "ex" ou en dehors de la ville bien qu'il les juge comme des citadins au fond du coeur. A son avis, leur présence au coeur de la campagne n'en fait pas des campagnards ou des villageois, mais simplement des exilés. Ils ne peuvent pas être absorbés, parce que foncièrement ils demeurent attachés à la ville. De plus, ils sont passablement à l'aise, ou plus justement, ils vivent tous comme s'ils l'étaient quel que soit leur revenu. Etant des gens "d'idées" ou de "théâtre" dans un sens large, l'auteur leur donne comme titre générique celui de "marchands de rêves" et identifie leur capital comme étant Exurbia. Il a étudié leurs habitudes, leurs dépenses, leurs loisirs, leurs moyens de communication, en un mot, leurs problèmes et les effets de tout ce mode de vie sur les épouses et les enfants. Il conclut en suggérant que ce rêve est bien limité et constamment mêlé d'insécurité et d'une préoccupation sans cesse grandissante des obligations financières et de la disparition rapide du facteur "temps", essentiel pour faire face à ces mêmes obligations et jouir de ce que ce nouveau milieu devait offrir.

Mon intention n'est pas de faire la revue d'un livre, déjà publié depuis 1955 et porté à mon attention il y a quelques semaines. Depuis des mois, plusieurs officiers de la Société, entre autres, méditent sur les problèmes reliés à l'utilisation des Laurentides pour fins de construction résidentielle. J'ai cru qu'une référence à ce volume avait l'avantage non seulement de nous suggérer un nom pour ce nouveau genre de développement domiciliaire mais de nous indiquer qu'une telle expérience avait été vécue et n'était pas impossible au Canada.

A mon avis, Montréal, comme métropole canadienne, peut se comparer à New York. De plus, nous avons déjà constaté que les phénomènes sociaux américains se répètent assez souvent au Canada après un décalage de quelques mois ou années, selon le cas. Faudrait-il prévoir pour cela qu'une vogue pour l'exurbia se poursuivra dans nos Laurentides et de plus qu'elle entichera principalement les mêmes groupes sociaux qu'à New York? J'ai déjà suggéré que ce mode de vie est offert à la population de Montréal. Deux cas furent étudiés de près. Ils rencontrent tous deux un succès très encourageant pour les promoteurs. La vie qu'ils offrent et décrivent se rapproche passablement de la vie d'exurbia que l'on retrouve sur le North Shore de Long Island. Pour nous, il est certainement trop tôt pour prétendre que cette vie intéressera presque exclusivement les gens de la radio, du théâtre ou nos écrivains. Mais il est logique de croire qu'à Montréal comme à New York, ces gens cherchent à se grouper tout en se mettant à l'écart de la masse. De toute façon, je suis convaincu qu'il se dessine un mouvement, un attrait sans cesse grandissant, d'aller vivre à l'année longue dans nos Laurentides.

Pous nos fins, les Laurentides peuvent se définir comme étant la région entre St-Jérôme et St-Jovite. Toute cette étendue de montagnes, de lacs, de bois et de verdure est déjà un centre de villégiature l'été et de ski l'hiver. Mais la population permanente est très restreinte et vit du tourisme. J'étais même surpris de constater que la population d'une dizaine de centres bien connus, tels que St-Sauveur, Ste-Adèle, Ste-Marguerite-du-Lac-Masson, Piedmont, St-Hyppolite n'atteignait pas au total 8,000 âmes. Seule, Ste-Agathe mérite le titre de ville avec une population de 4,800 âmes en 1956.

Les problèmes très concrets que ce nouveau phénomène pose sont entre autres de déterminer quels principes d'urbanisme gouverneront l'utilisation de cette vaste nature. Comment peut-on préserver cette nature et répondre aux exigences habituelles d'un centre domiciliaire? Comment doit-on utiliser les abords des lacs? Faut-il relier cette construction aux centres existants ou en créer de nouveaux? De quelle façon doivent se distribuer les dépenses inévitables des services publics, aqueduc, égouts, routes et quel genre de service doit-on installer? Enfin, il y a à prévoir les écoles, les églises, les centres d'achats.

Si l'urbaniste peut s'inquiéter de certains problèmes, le prêteur doit se préoccuper également de ce nouveau genre de placement hypothécaire. Quelle sécurité hypothécaire doit-il exiger? Il y aura sans doute des expériences sans lendemain. Peut-on apprendre à découvrir les indices de ce qui est voué à la faillite ou au succès? Au début, n'y a-t-il pas le danger que ces maisons soient au fait une deuxième résidence ou un chalet d'été et d'hiver et quelles sont les complications de cette possibilité? N'y a-t-il pas le danger de vouloir y construire ce que l'on appelle une maison minimum ou faut-il l'encourager?

Enfin, les nouvelles municipalités ainsi créées doivent être viables mais ne doivent pas pour cela le faire au détriment de celles qui existent déjà.

Exurbia se présente, sommes-nous prêts?

Monsieur Jean Lupien s'est joint au Département de l'information de la Société centrale d'hypothèques et de logement en 1947. En 1954, il fut nommé gérant de succursale à Chicoutimi. Plus tard au cours de cette même année, il devint gérant de la succursale de Dorval. En 1958, il fut nommé administrateur des succursales au bureau régional de Québec. Natif de Montréal, monsieur Jean Lupien fit ses études à l'Université d'Ottawa où il obtint ses B.A., B.Ph., L.Ph.

THE WEAKNESS IN OUR HOUSING FORECASTS FOR 1955-1980

by R. T. Adamson

Early in 1956 the Corporation prepared a brief entitled "*Housing and Urban Growth in Canada*". This brief was prepared for presentation to The Royal Commission on Canada's Economic Prospects. The brief contained, among other things, an estimate of the number of new dwellings that would be built in Canada from 1955-1980. This estimate of 3.4 million was supplemented by a higher estimate of 3.7 million in the Royal Commission staff report "*Housing and Social Capital*" which appeared in January, 1957. The higher estimate appearing in the later report had the general support of the authors of the earlier Corporation brief. After two years, the authors of the Corporation brief are even more ready to plead acquiescence in the higher estimate because that figure itself now appears too low.

The estimate of 3.7 million new houses to be built in the period 1955-1980 was distributed into five intervals of five years each, with the estimate for 1955-1960 being placed at 559,000. During the first three of this five years about 410,000 new dwellings were started, whereas 335,000 starts were implied by the projection. This difference immediately raises the question whether the forecast itself is not merely inadequate for the early years but suspect, as well, for the whole period. It probably is.

The method adopted for making the projection inherently required arbitrary judgments, and the kind of judgments apt to err on the low rather than the high side. This is not to discredit the capable authors of the Gordon Commission study. While their forecast represents the object of criticism in this article, it does so because it is more recent and better than the one presented in the Corporation's earlier brief. And while their method is criticised, the method itself is similar to that used in the Corporation's brief to the Gordon Commission. Whatever is said in criticism of "*Housing and Social Capital*" applies with greater force to "*Housing and Urban Growth in Canada*".

The forecast of 3.7 million new houses for Canada in the 25-year period 1955-1980 was obtained as the sum of six components.

(1)	Net family formation	2,550,000
(2)	Non-family household formation	370,000
(3)	Replacements	330,000
(4)	Reduction of crowding	250,000
(5)	Extra housing for the growth in non-farm population resulting from decline in farm population	50,000
(6)	Increase in vacancies	144,000
	Total	3,694,000

House building must equal the sum of these items. Prediction of these individual components will therefore yield a prediction of new house building. If all these factors were largely independent of new house building, and could be predicted with reference to other factors, there would be little to object to in the method. Only two of these five items are independent of house building itself, however, and two of them depend on it. The third is in between.

Net family formation. Net family formation means the change in the number of families in the country, measured over a particular period of time, usually a year. It depends primarily on marriages, deaths and immigration. These things in themselves are largely independent of the rate of new house building. It is difficult to believe that changes in the rate of new house building, unless very large and protracted, have a significant effect on the loves and fears and hopes, the calculations and miscalculations that lead people to marry. It is difficult to believe also that the rate of new house building has a significant influence on mortality. Nor has it a significant, if any, effect on immigration into the country. Moreover, the impact of net family formation on new house building is obvious and straightforward. There is no quarrel with the selection of net family formation as one of the main determinants of new house building over the long term. Its origin is independent and its impact unquestioned.

The decline in farm population. The farm labour force of Canada is declining and has been for some time. The number of persons with jobs in the agricultural

labour force has been declining by an average of more than 25,000 per year since 1951. This decline tends to be interrupted in times of recession and to be renewed when job opportunities in the city increase.

This shift of population tends to increase the total demand for housing, as the movement is generally from areas where there is little new house building to areas where added population adds to the already considerable need for more housing. This force, like net family formation, is largely independent of new house building itself, and has a direct and simple effect on the total demand for new housing.

Quantitatively it will probably turn out to be more important than suggested by the Gordon Commission monograph, in which an allowance of 50,000 dwelling units was made for the period 1955 to 1970. The shift of population is assumed to end altogether by 1970, presumably on the grounds that farm population will not decline by these large amounts indefinitely. Possibly not, but it will almost certainly shift, even if it does not abandon agricultural pursuits, and in terms of new housing demand, any net shift of agricultural population toward areas of housing shortage will have the same effect as the movement off farms altogether. An allowance three or four times as large as the 50,000 in the Commission's estimate might well have been made for this item.

Non-family household formation. Non-family households comprise individuals or groups of individuals who do not conform to the definition of a family but who nevertheless maintain their own dwelling. In 1956 there were 521,000 non-family households, an increase of 62,000 from 1951, or more than 12,000 per year.

As the population grows, so will the number of non-family households. It is doubtful, however, that their increase will be independent of the rate of house building itself. There is probably a wide variation in the number of non-family households that a given population will produce. If housing is cheap and abundant, the great bulk of the non-family population will no doubt establish themselves as individuals or small groups in self-contained dwellings. Moreover, their ranks will probably be augmented by a greater flow of people who would otherwise remain in family groups. If housing, on the other hand, is scarce and expensive, there will be less disposition to leave the family fold and those outside family groups will remain, no doubt, more willingly subject to that last fine stronghold of Victorian propriety found in the management of rooming and boarding houses.

Far from serving as an important determinant of house building over the next 25 years, the number of non-family households is more likely to be mainly determined by house building. For non-family households, there is not, as there is for families, a reasonable method of arriving at an estimate of their increase that is independent of an estimate of house building itself. Estimates of non-family household formation, therefore, when developed as one of the determinants of house building, are necessarily arbitrary and suspect.

Replacements. From year to year urban dwellings are lost through fire and others are demolished to make way for other buildings or land uses. A number of dwellings are condemned and thereby removed from the effective stock of housing. To the degree that the people formerly occupying such dwellings have means, their demand is added to the other demands on the remaining available stock, and additional demand for new housing is created. In a sense, then, the loss of dwellings through accident and through deliberate demolition or condemnation, adds to the effective demand for new housing. There is considerable room for doubt, of course, that this demand for housing in terms of new units comes even close to matching the number of units represented by the dwellings destroyed or demolished. Fire, demolition, and condemnation are not indiscriminate in their selection of dwellings and are apt to strike at the dwelling stock occupied by low income groups. Thus, even if these losses of dwellings from the stock were independent of new house building, it would be inappropriate to consider them, unit for unit, as one of the determinants of new housing demand.

Insofar as fire is concerned, the loss of dwellings from the standing stock is probably quite independent of the rate of new house building. But the number of existing dwellings condemned, and the number removed to make way for other buildings and land uses will be affected materially by the number of new houses actually built.

Much of the demolition of existing dwellings that is done to make way for other uses of the land is initiated by people who expect to make money out of the new use. They expect to make enough to justify the acquisition of the present property and the destruction of the present building. If the price of existing buildings is low enough, such investors are more likely to choose these sites than alternatives on the edge of the city. This is true for a wide range of investments for which a variety of locational choices are open. The number of existing dwellings demolished will depend in part on their price, and the lower their price the more likely their demolition. The price of much existing housing is going to depend in large part on how much new housing is built. The more new housing we get,

the more the poorer dwellings in the present stock will decline in value, and the more likely they are to be replaced.

Vacancies. As the housing stock grows, there will be an increase also in the minimum number of vacancies necessary to accommodate mobility of families within the available housing stock. But only the growth in this minimum rate can constitute an addition to new housing demand. Vacancies may run well beyond this minimum rate and the extent to which they do will depend on the rate of new house building, not the other way around. As long as vacancies are concentrated largely among the poorer dwellings in the stock, they can run well beyond the minimum required to accommodate mobility of population, and need not inhibit the demand for new housing. Thus, it may well be that vacancies in the future will have little effect on new house building, but will rather be determined by it. A persistently high rate of vacancies, of course, would lead to a lowering of values of the poorer parts of the housing stock, which in turn would tend toward the higher rate of demolition and redevelopment that was indicated as possible above.

Reduction of doubling up. Large numbers of Canadian families live two or more to a dwelling or share accommodation with non-family households. These people are often regarded as a factor of strength in new housing demand. They represent instead a commentary on the weakness of new housing demand in the past and in themselves offer no assurance of market strength in the future. Doubling up of families is concentrated among the lower income groups, and within the lower income groups is concentrated among those families with the least propensity to spend on housing. The desire of these families to obtain separate accommodation is among the weakest forces in the demand for housing in general and new housing in particular. It is true that if there is a high rate of new house building many of these families will obtain separate accommodation by virtue of a decline in rents or prices of present existing dwellings. New house building is apt to result in a reduction of crowding. But only to a very limited extent will the crowding represented by doubling up bring about new house building.

There is no rate of new house building sufficient to eliminate the sharing of accommodation by families. This is not because part of the crowding is voluntary in the sense of being suffered for reasons other than economic constraint. Virtually none of it is. Sharing accommodation is almost non-existent among families with incomes over the median. Sharing of accommodation is almost entirely attributable to economic constraint but there is no rate of house building large enough to remove the economic constraint. There is a rate of new house building which would render such accommodation free, but it would still cost money to operate, heat and pay taxes on a dwelling. There will presumably always be families unable to afford even these outlays, and who will be forced to share the expenses of household operation with someone else.

It is perfectly feasible to have new house building rates sufficiently high to reach this minimum degree of doubling up. It is indeed feasible to have much higher rates of new house building. The reduction of shared accommodation down to this point does not necessarily mean the saturation of new housing demand. New housing demand originates mainly from sectors of the population who are already reasonably well housed and it will not be exhausted merely because the worst housed people enjoy some improvement in their circumstances. And conversely, the reduction of the number of families sharing accommodation in the country does not constitute an important determinant of new housing demand. New house building, indeed, will largely determine how many of them can obtain separate and less crowded accommodation.

Any attempt to estimate what new house building may take place by forecasting things that in themselves depend on new house building must be arbitrary. And it should occasion no surprise if such forecasts turn out to be far off the mark. Population growth and shifts will be important in determining the rate of new house building in the next two decades, but the changes in crowding and in vacancies, and the number of dwellings demolished and condemned will represent measures of new house building and not causes. There is general confidence that new house building will be sufficient to do more than meet the needs arising out of physical growth. This confidence is based on the belief that per capita incomes will continue to rise, that the real cost of building will decline, that the building industry will be able to offer a product attractive to the customer who can pay, that mortgage lending terms will continue to permit a large number of customers to pay, and that mortgage money supplies will be sufficient to articulate the demand that exists. These things, not the decongestion, or the demolitions or the vacancies will determine the amount of new housing we get.

In an automobile, the fuel provides the motive power, not the odometer. An accurate prediction of the behaviour of the odometer, however, will give an accurate prediction of the distance to be travelled by an automobile. Such a prediction would have to be arbitrary, however, and lucky.

SHOPS AND THE SUBURBS

By Michael Sullivan

In Ancient times the citizens of Greece and Rome did their shopping at the public market place. In the Middle Ages, feudal serfs and villeins bartered goods in the Mediaeval market square. And in 20th Century Canada, an appreciable amount of the consumer's dollar is spent at the suburban shopping centre.

There is a marked resemblance in the shopping centres of all ages. The shopping colossus of today differs little in idea from the markets of the time of Aristotle, of Caesar, and of Edward I. In all eras the customer has been able to roam on foot in the one place to buy all his needs. The main difference in the 20th Century market is its location.

Before the middle of the 18th Century the market square was the heart of the community. The citizens of most villages and towns lived within walking distance of it. But as the Industrial Revolution spread throughout Europe, towns and cities doubled in size as people flocked to them. New residential areas had to be built to accommodate the newcomers. And new stores, away from the centre of the community, went into operation to serve them.

The automobile in Canada has created a revolution – with similar effects – in the 20th Century. It has sparked the growth of Canada's towns and cities in the last 30 years, a growth which has reached explosive proportions since the end of the war. Before the 1920's more than half the population lived on the land. But the automobile has enabled hundreds of thousands of people to live in the suburbs and work in the city with the result that today two out of every three Canadians live in a town or city of more than 5,000 population.

The effect has been that the suburbs have mushroomed. They have eaten away at the surrounding countryside, leaving downtown farther and farther behind. The suburbanites have to be fed and clothed and provided with their other needs, however, in many suburbs you can drive for literally miles without seeing a store. The answer to this problem has been – within the last 10 years – the suburban shopping centre.

The first people to spot the ready-made market in the suburbs were the big grocery chain stores. They moved to the outskirts and built the supermarket with ample parking space – the forerunner of the shopping centre – which was an immediate success. The supermarkets thrived in the suburbs, and their success was not unnoticed.

Real estate developers moved into the market. Soon, small centres of up to a dozen stores began to spring up on cheap land in the suburbs. The first centres were aimed at the people living in the immediate area, but the idea caught on and today we have large centres serving up to 300,000 people.

Every large community in Canada has at least one shopping centre. The big cities are sprinkled with them. By next year there will probably be more than 100 stretched across the country. They range from the small centre with a supermarket and few other stores, and very little else, to the big regional centres like the one in Greater Hamilton, which has more than 70 shops and parking for 25,000 cars daily.

Whatever their size, they have one thing in common. They go out of their way to please the customer.

They provide all the goods on one spot. A man can take his family to a shopping centre, cash his pay cheque and buy anything from a can of beans to a piece of power machinery.

He will have no difficulty parking his car. In most centres, up to four or five times as much space is provided for parking as for shopping. Some lots are even landscaped.

There are places for the children to play in safety while the parents go off shopping. There are restaurants. At night some shopping centres become the social centre of the community, with theatres and dance halls. Motels and churches can be found there.

Many remain open at least one night a week.

The attractions of the shopping centres have had their impact on downtown districts. More and more, the shopping centres are culling the cream of the business from the centre of the city. Many a customer prefers to drive anywhere up to 20 miles to a shopping centre, than to drive a shorter distance and battle the pile-up of traffic downtown.

The real estate developers are well aware of the traffic problem. Their watchword is accessibility. New shopping centres are built just off major highways where they will reach the largest possible trade area. The new shopping centre at Oshawa, for example, draws its customers from towns and villages within a 20-mile radius.

There is the occasional pessimistic forecast that the days of downtown are numbered. This is not necessarily so. Of course, some stores have bowed to the competition, packed up and joined the move to the suburbs. Big department stores are playing it safe by

entering the shopping centres and at the same time continuing to operate downtown. Other stores are fighting with every means they have.

By creating an atmosphere of quality, some downtown stores are soaring above the competition. When these stores band themselves together and publicize their location as a quality shopping area, they draw more crowds than ever before. Every main street in every major city in Canada has at least one such area. St. Catherine Street in Montreal, Main and Portage in Winnipeg, Jasper in Edmonton, Granville in Vancouver, Barrington in Halifax all trade on quality. A good example is the Bloor-Bay-Yonge area in Toronto, which houses some of the city's most prosperous stores. These traders formed themselves into an association which advertises the area as a quality shopping parade, holding forth exclusiveness and novelty as an inducement to the customer.

In cities throughout the world, downtown traders are matching their wits against the shopping centre. In the United States some central districts have obtained the city's permission to close off downtown streets one or two days a week. In this way the area becomes a closed pedestrian's mall, and the increase in business has been tremendous.

A six-storey parking building has been erected just one block from central Sparks Street in Ottawa. In other cities downtown stores are getting together to provide a common parking lot. Store owners in other cities have co-operated in facelifting their businesses.

These are just some of the things that downtown can do to survive the competition of the suburban shopping centre. And downtown will survive – there can be no room for pessimism.

The real support of the heart of the city is the crowd and while downtown areas are the centre of government and cultural pursuits there will always be crowds, and there is no question of the older shopping districts disappearing.

The competition between suburbia and downtown may be intense, but the prospects for both are good. The Gordon Commission estimated that Canada's towns and cities will double in size by 1980. Already the growth in shopping centres is phenomenal. Hardly a month goes by without the announcement of a new suburban centre in one city or another. It is up to the older district to renovate itself and place itself on an equal footing with the shopping centre, so that they complement each other. This will be good for everyone concerned: the shopping centre, downtown, and the customer, the man who will ultimately benefit from the greater variety of choice.

Calgary Shopping Centre—built by Principal Investments Limited. This is the largest shopping centre in Western Canada. Excluding Simpsons-Sears department store, the shopping centre has a total shop window frontage equivalent to the window parade of five city blocks. The project also contains 30,000 sq. ft. of office space.

Photo by Jack de Lorme, Calgary Herald

The Val Martin Shopping Centre—Montreal. This shopping centre, erected by Steinbergs Limited, was opened in June 1957, serving a population of nearly 300,000 people.

Photo by Hayward Studios, Montreal

CENTRAL MORTGAGE AND HOUSING CORPORATION
SOCIÉTÉ CENTRALE D'HYPOTHÈQUES ET DE LOGEMENT
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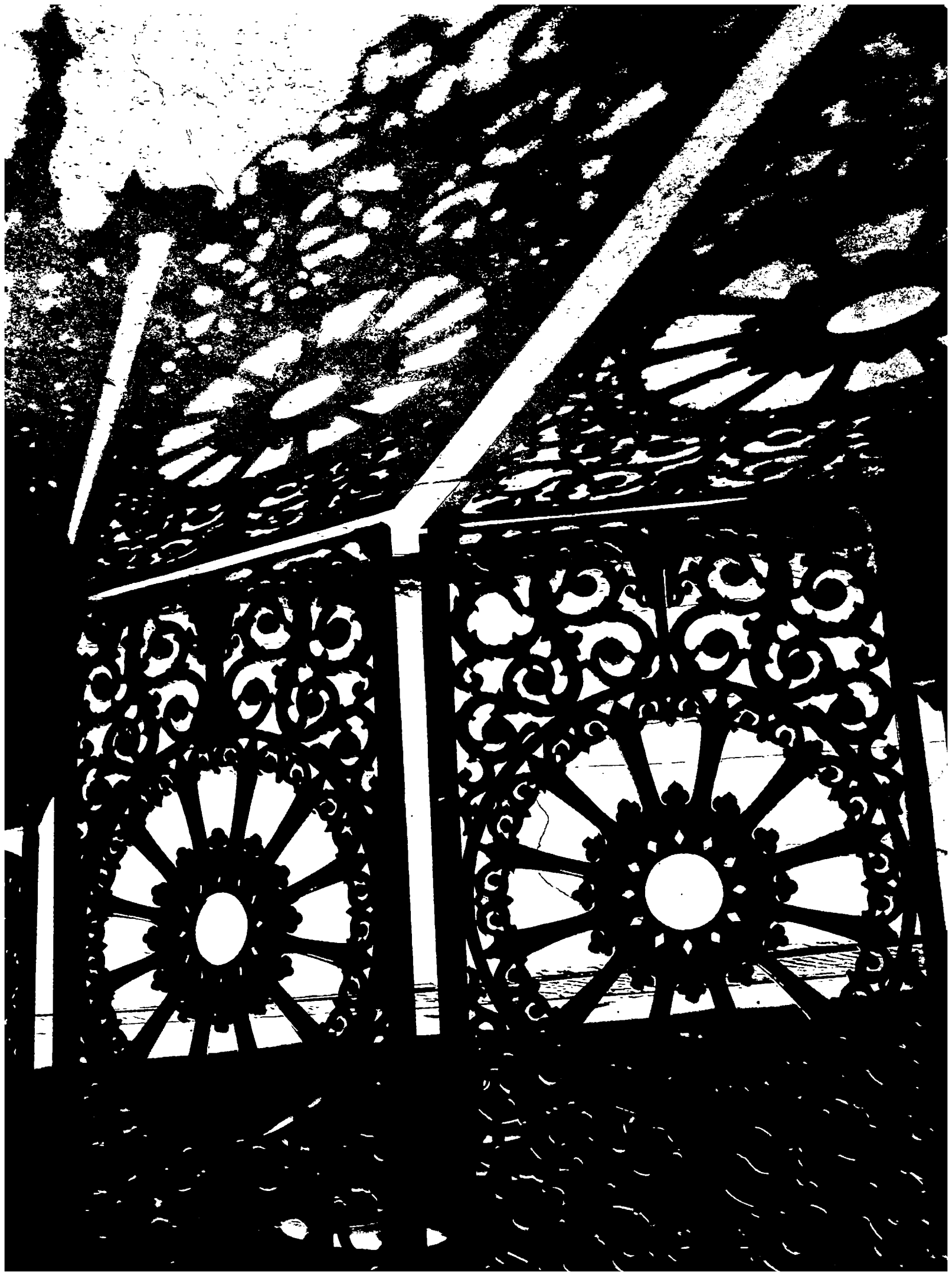

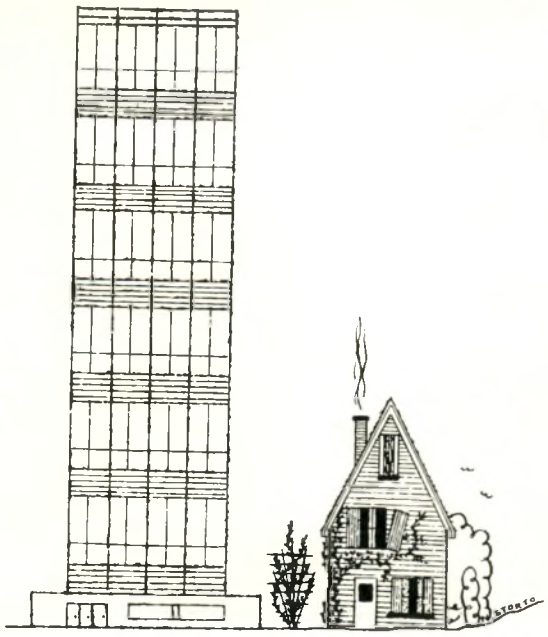

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"Love of place and love of beauty are at the root of good city design," says Professor Gordon Stephenson in his article in this issue. The photograph opposite, of the gate in the forecourt of Notre Dame Basilica, Quebec, illustrates the things dramatic and beautiful to be found in that city.

Photo—National Film Board

The cover was drawn by Miss Phyllis Lee.

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THE DESIGN OF CITIES

By Gordon Stephenson

The sharp contrast between the statues on top of St. James Cathedral and the Queen Elizabeth Hotel emphasizes the mixture of the old and the new in Montreal.

Photo—National Film Board

The Greeks designed and built magnificent cities with the public and private sectors clearly defined and well arranged in relation to each other. They discussed and decided many matters which are as relevant today as they were before the birth of Christ. They were interested in the perfection of standards rather than fashion, and had an eye for beauty, in siting as well as in building.

When Christ was born, the Romans ruled Western Europe and the lands bordering the Mediterranean. They had occupied many cities founded by the Greeks and further developed them. Rome, the centre of a huge empire, became as large as present day metropolitan Montreal or Toronto, and a congested, inefficient city. When Nero fiddled and Rome burned, a vast slum clearance was enacted.

With the decline and break up of the Roman Empire the light of learning was to shine dimly. In Western Europe it was the universal Christian Church which was to keep it alight. In the middle ages the Church became a powerful force. There are many medieval cities which still remain, at least in part, as witness to societies which occupied them more than 500 years ago. Their crowning glory, symbolic of the time, was a great church or cathedral which soared above all else. The Church was the centre of life even though the city would be ruled by a prince or merchant princes. In the medieval city there arose magnificent buildings, always subordinate to the Church in the general composition, but forming streets and squares of picturesque beauty.

It is a reflection of the time that in nearly all the centres of modern city-regions the dominant elements are great business buildings. In Montreal, the cathedral on Dominion Square has assumed a toy-like character in relation to a new hotel and a large insurance building. In Toronto the cathedrals are off-centre and completely subordinate to the pile-up of buildings on and near Bay Street, with a bank as the peak of the pile. In Vancouver, a finely designed skyscraper tower has recently risen to dominate the sky-line. Appropriately, it shines as an enormous beacon of light at night, for it symbolises electric power.

Whereas the Greek and medieval peoples gave pride of civic place to spiritual symbols we have been inclined to forget that a city is more than a place in which to make money after an annoying journey from one of the ever-proliferating suburbs. It is typical that the city centre, which should excite pride and pleasure, is referred to as the central business district, or in planning jargon, the CBD.

There are signs that a different attitude is developing. In Toronto, for example, a planning idea, first expressed over forty years ago, will be carried into effect in the immediate future. A great square and new City Hall will become the dominant elements in the heart of the central area. There are plans and projects in several Canadian cities for similar ventures. It is, perhaps, right

in a modern democracy that secularism should be symbolized.

In late medieval and renaissance times public buildings in special, and generally separate, settings were sharing pride of place with the churches, as may be seen in Quebec City, now 350 years old. Within the walls encircling the bluff on which it was established, Quebec City is dramatic and beautiful. It is a city born of the Renaissance and, very evidently, has been loved and well designed over a long period of time.

Love of place and of beauty are at the root of good city design. In these days of unprecedented productivity, calculating machines, and talk of functional efficiency, unloved and unlovable cities are being built. It is almost certainly true that the good life can only be achieved if there is a primary affection for people and beauty. It is sad to see the flight from the city every weekend, when great columns of vehicles, like mechanical ants, transport people toward the receding wilderness and a longed-for tranquility. Families seek beauty in escaping from the place in which they live and work.

The hard-working pioneers of yesteryear developed a love of place, and their leaders incorporated many good ideas of the time in town plans. That the ideas were whittled down by "practical man" is sad. It was perhaps inevitable in the act of creation, in civilizing a wilderness. But it was often carried too far.

No good excuse can be found for the miserly and endless grid of Toronto, in which only rarely is a street to be found which is wider than the 100 links of a surveyor's chain. It would appear that the original plan for Toronto was a total concept for city development with a heart, a main street system, public spaces, and a transitional belt (or "greenbelt") between town and country.

In some other towns of Upper Canada, which have not been overlaid by hasty and large developments through industrialization, there is striking evidence of sensible early planning. London, Ontario, now rapidly sprawling over the surrounding countryside, is delightful in its older parts because the majority of the streets are 200 links (or 132 feet) wide and park-like in character. About mid-nineteenth century, "practical men" must have decided that 66-foot streets were ample for all purposes, and extensions of the last 100 years are miserable by contrast.

A large part of nineteenth-century Kingston shows

The Van Eyck Plaats in Bruges — "There are many medieval cities which still remain . . . as witnesses to societies which occupied them more than 500 years ago."

Photo—A. H. Armstrong

how a city may grow in a seemly way along a lakefront. It is true that there are unseemly intrusions, but the whole effect is an attractive combination of pleasant streets, buildings and parks. London and Kingston are medium-sized towns. In both many people who are important in the community choose to live near the centre rather than leave for the suburbs.

Region, site, climate, time, activity and people help to mould urban environment. No two towns can be alike. Some may have a good character, others a bad one. Most are fairly mediocre, generally through the inability of leading citizens to look far enough ahead. History is ever present in those that are distinguished.

Quebec City, fortress and base for the colonization of French North America, is a permanent and very fine record of Canadian history, virtually from its beginning. The French had covered vast distances as far as Winnipeg, St. Louis, and New Orleans before Halifax came into being. It was also founded as a fortress, but this time by the British Government at the insistence of the colony of Massachusetts. In 1749 thirteen ships, with soldiers, settlers and equipment, arrived and a new town was born. In the first year it had a fine new church, partially "pre-fabricated" in Boston, which still stands as the oldest Protestant church on the mainland of Canada. Through two centuries it has continued to be a fortress city. Combined with its wonderful harbour and site, the role has given the city great character and a series of most valuable open spaces including Point Pleasant Park, the Commons, and Citadel Hill which dominates the peninsula. In the present day when bold moves and innovation are required we should mount many "new town" operations on a scale beyond that which established Halifax.

The "toy-like" character of St. James Cathedral is seen in this context with the new hotel. The cathedral, a replica of St. Peter's, Rome, was begun in 1870. Its architects were J. Michaud and V. Bourgeau.

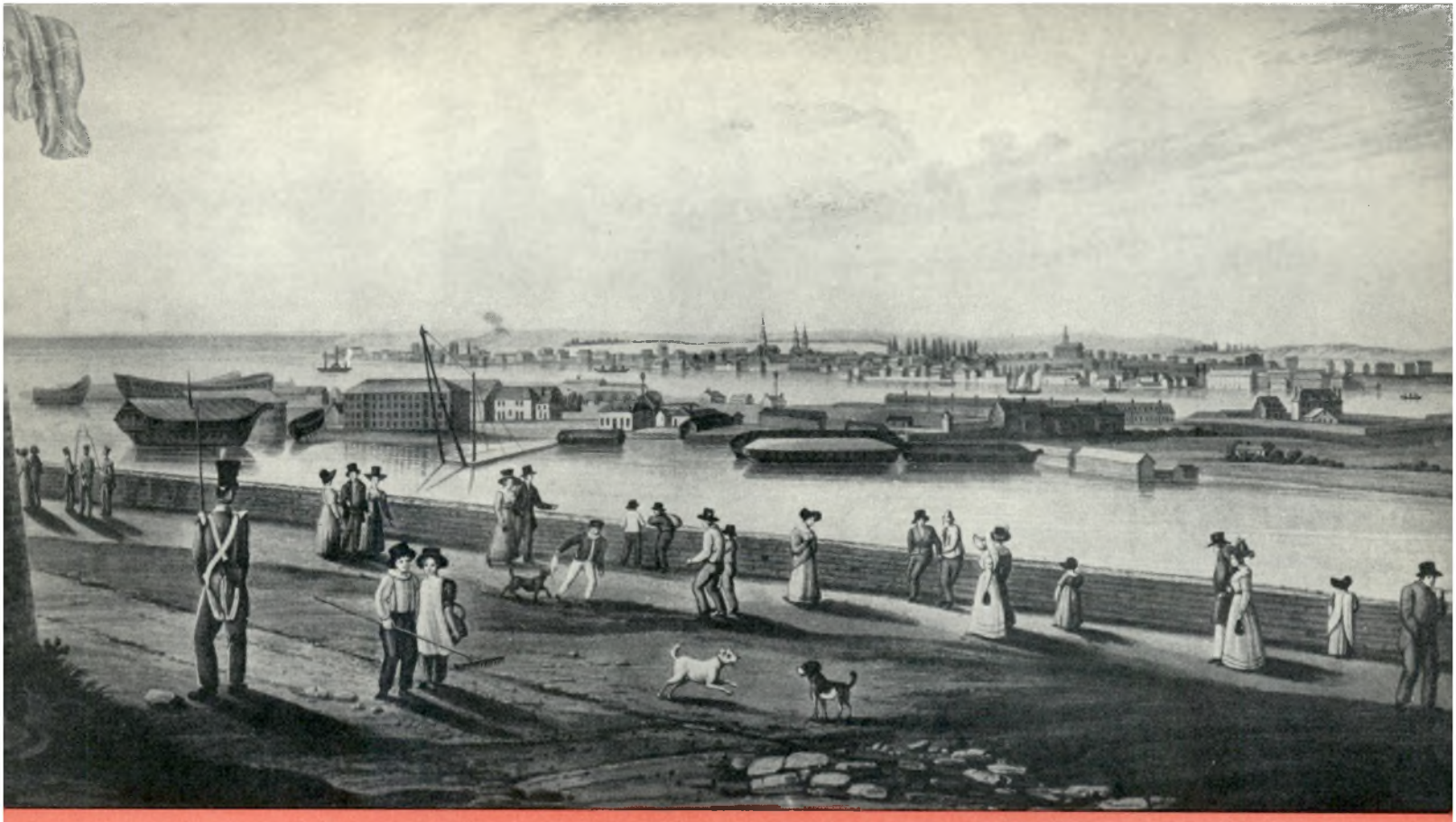
Photo—National Film Board

When the Dominion of Canada was formed in 1867, the planning decisions had already been made that Ottawa, on the boundary between Upper and Lower Canada, should be the capital. The planning of the capital was given a fine start by the erection of the parliament buildings, in splendid Victorian gothic style. They are on a commanding and ample site, and they must be one of the finest groups of buildings in the Americas. Moreover they are unique and thoroughly Canadian. There is now a bold plan for the whole federal district. Already there are broad, landscaped parkways forming a lacework through the city and surrounding municipalities. They should serve as an example of what might be done: for, most important for the future in any city-region is the designation of land which should not be built on.

The greatest planning problem of the present is concerned with the design of city-regions. What might be done is the question which should constantly be posed. Skills are being developed to help discover what is happening; but there is a paucity of imagination amongst planners and politicians, at a time when public response to the bold and imaginative should be warm and strong. Without ideas and ideals there can be no advance, and no adequate solutions to the manifold problems of rapid expansion.

If the provision of housing is a measure of urbanization, striking evidence was presented in 1958 to the Senate Finance Committee. In 350 years the number of houses in Canada has reached a total of 4,000,000 of which 3,000,000 have been built in the last 50 years. Of the million houses which are more than 50 years old, 500,000 are in need of major repair.

Mr. Stewart Bates, who gave these figures, went on to say that 3,000,000 houses will have to be built in the next twenty years for children already in the country, *without considering immigration and replacement.* In other words in the next twenty or twenty-five years, the number of houses in Canada will have to be doubled.



Kingston, a seemly city along a lakefront. The dedication on this nineteenth-century engraving by James Gray reads: "Kingston from Fort Henery, Respectfully dedicated to his Patrons, Sir Peregrine Maitland, Lt. Governor, & the Gentlemen of Upper Canada, by Their Obedient Servt James Gray." The engraving was published in 1828.

Courtesy of the Public Archives of Canada

The present rate of house-building, an all-time record, is more than 150,000 units per annum. Not only will this have to be maintained but also increased.

During the new industrial revolution greater and greater growth is taking place in the existing urban agglomerations – or *City-Regions*. The parent cities are in the hearts of the city-regions, but they are sending their children to the suburbs, which are separate municipalities, generally unprepared for the physical onslaught taking place. They try to stem the tide by asking subdividers to provide all services, and even industries on a percentage basis. They compete for industries but do not want industrial workers.

The economics of land speculation and low-density sprawl further work against the provision of the many hundreds of thousands of houses needed for industrial workers. One of the important results is that a high proportion of families have to share houses, and worse, through overcrowding older houses in the parent cities, they spread blight and decay.

Recently, a former Alderman and Mayor of an Ontario municipality expressed the view that the Provincial Government must directly concern itself with regional planning. There was logic behind the arguments leading to his saying that "the Province has been 'guiding' the municipalities in the matter of planning, and I think the time has come for guidance to be replaced by positive leadership and direction." He might have added that the provinces are directly concerned, as major developers, with the shape of things to come. To take an example, it was the building of the Queen Elizabeth Way across the irreplaceable Niagara fruitlands which opened them up to industrial development.

Provincial governments, the senior partners in municipal affairs, must come more effectively into planning as well as development. They may do it indirectly, through the creation of city-regional municipalities such as that for Metropolitan Toronto; but many questions concerning the use and acquisition of land on a regional scale can only be settled by a provincial government. In making regional planning studies, facts could be exposed and much needed guidance to municipal and private enterprise given.

As things stand there is unused administrative machinery, which it would be very evident should be put in motion if there were regional planning studies to predict what was likely to happen in a period of twenty years, and to suggest what policies should be pursued in

The heart of Toronto: The pile-up of banks and office buildings dominates Toronto, making it difficult to spot even the City Hall and Queen's Park.

Photo—National Film Board

order to cut the extravagance which accompanies hit or miss methods. Many costly mistakes are predictable; many recommendations could be made in the public interest.

The great bane of good city-regional planning and development is the scramble by municipalities for industrial and commercial assessments. More often than not this results in a distortion of the regional structure, longer than necessary journeys to work, particularly for those who can least afford it, and considerable overzoning for industry and commerce. Furthermore, it leads to the ruin of some residential areas when councils throw all semblance of planning overboard in order to grab "assessment".

Last year, Mr. L. A. Rice, President of the Toronto Metropolitan Housebuilders' Association, expressed the view that a fairer tax distribution would result if all industrial and commercial "assessments" went directly to the province and were then equitably distributed among the municipalities.

Mr. Rice also suggested that great areas of cheaper land could be opened up at a distance from urban centres if large lengths of sewer and water mains were laid beside roads and highways to service them. In fact, several new large scale projects, involving about fifteen thousand acres, may soon be under way in the Toronto city-region. Mr. Rice, perhaps unknowingly,

Edmonton from the air: "It is perhaps right in a modern democracy that secularism should be symbolized." Left: the Legislative Building; centre and right, postwar blocks of government offices.

Photo—National Film Board

was advocating a city-regional new towns policy. His starting point was the high cost of land and houses in suburbs; costs which were so high that urban workers of the lower wage group, were forced into apartments (unsuitable for families with children) at high rents, and were never able to save enough to make a down payment on a home.

A new towns policy without a firm, guiding city-regional plan would help but little. A new town should be a balanced community for families of all kinds and with its full complement of industries. If a "new town" were launched in a rural area, at the end of extended service lines, there would be irresistible pressure to fill the space between it and the parent city; and there would be no guarantee that work places and homes could be built in balance.

Within the framework of a regional plan a new towns policy could be established. Already under the National Housing Act, the Federal and Provincial Governments may assemble land in partnership. If the new towns were to have identities of their own, and not to coalesce into the usual endless suburbs, it would be necessary to acquire sufficient land for greenbelts between them. These could include river valleys (now with horribly polluted rivers in most city-regions), and land for agriculture as well as recreation. They would

also be ideal places for the location of major highways and other lines of communication.

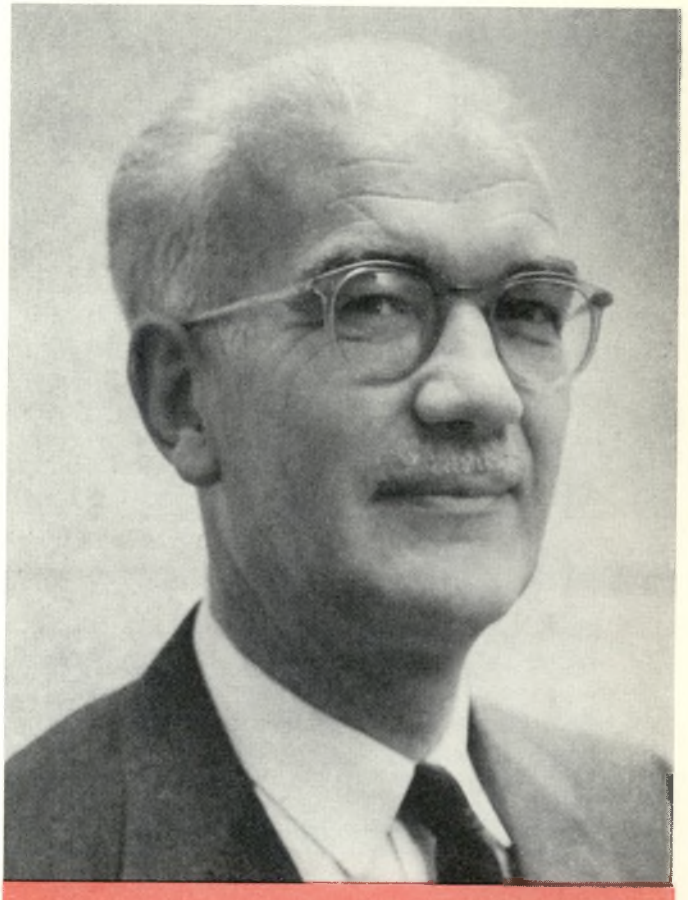
Many great city-regions of the world have been able to grow in a rational manner because they have been far sighted in maintaining considerable areas of publicly owned land. In the post-war years Calgary and Edmonton, through having large reserves of public land within their boundaries and a general land pooling system, have extended in a methodical and economical way. The cost of land and the initial ownership of land for development are at the very root of city-regional development. A lot, perhaps, could be learned from the experience of the Alberta cities.

If regional growth on new land were guided into successive new towns there would be benefit to both public and private enterprise and, not least, there would be relief for the parent city in every city-region. Now, nearly all parent cities are faced with the serious spread of blight and slums. The problems arising can only be solved on a regional basis. In human terms, blighted areas are due to the pent up demand for shelter. For many families there is no alternative to rooms or flats in older areas. The only way the growing pressure may be relieved is through building large numbers of low cost houses, on low cost new land. As new industries also seek extensive areas of low cost land, the two needs would be related and could be satisfied in new towns.

The questions of slum clearance and low cost housing are often mixed up. This is largely because municipalities are unable to think and act in regional terms. It is necessary to clear slums, and redevelop worn out downtown areas, but the process will be slow despite the generous assistance of the Federal Government. If it is determined that such redevelopment should be for housing, astronomical land costs will cause it to be of high cost and at very high density, and very considerable subsidies will be required if rents are to be relatively low. Furthermore, low-rent housing through redevelopment will be only a drop in the bucket in relation to the overall need. Slum clearance and redevelopment are essential if parent cities are to remain healthy in social and financial terms, but redevelopment and the ample provision of low cost housing are quite separate even though related subjects.

In the early days in Canada, pioneering families built their own homes while they were subduing the wilderness. They created small towns and settlements, sometimes according to very good plans. Nowadays society is much more complex and highly specialized. Through the use of power and machines it is incomparably more productive. It is also wasteful and inefficient in many ways, not least in city building. This is, in part, due to the fact that there are no bold plans, and – importantly – city-regional plans, to show how things might be done to increase urban efficiency and beauty.

The number of houses in Canada should increase from 4,000,000 to 8,000,000 in the next twenty years. It will be a time when great industrial expansion will take place, when parent cities and city-regions will be constantly growing and changing, when new forms of municipal administration will have to come into being. The challenge is ever-present, and of a very different kind to that faced by the pioneers. But as in other times, to meet the challenge, there is a great need for audacious men with ideas and imagination as well as understanding; for a new generation of pioneers ready to break away from the conformism that in the end has the machine, the sewer and the dollar dominating life itself.



Professor Gordon Stephenson is Head of the Division of town and Regional Planning of the School of Architecture of the University of Toronto. He is a graduate in architecture from the University of Liverpool and has since studied at the British Institute in Paris, the University of Paris and the Massachusetts Institute of Technology.

Photo–Eric Trussler

THE PLACE OUTSIDE

By Humphrey Carver

At this time of year the glossy magazines entice us with pictures of terraces, porches and patios where we might soon be enjoying the smells and sounds and sights of summertime. The stores are getting out their porch and garden furniture, with colours so much gayer and shapes so much loungier than what we have been offered in the wintertime. We begin to practise our summer attitudes, stretched out beneath sun and trees, each in our personal version of the suburban sprawl.

And rightly so, for there is no dwelling so modest that it cannot have a bit of outdoor space from which to contemplate the world around. It may be just a scrap of balcony on the face of an apartment house or duplex. Or it may be a few square feet of uneven flagstone on a suburban lot that has been flattered with the title of "the patio".

There are indeed two aspects of a house. It is both a place to withdraw into, shut off from the outside world, and it is also a place from which to look out upon the outside world from your own special point of view. There is a psychology to this.

Whether it is just a hole in the ground, an NHA bungalow or a palace, a house is first of all a kind of private cave where a person retreats into his introspective self and where a family confronts its own internal functions. Inside the walls of your house you meet the intimate stresses of personal life, battle with its disappointments and tragedies or laugh at yourself if you can. This is the most familiar idea of a house, a shelter and protection from the alien universe.

But I suspect that one of the first domestic enterprises of our hairy forefathers was to crawl out from their refuge and scrape a kind of level platform at the mouth of the cave where they could sit on their haunches and view the world around them. It was a relief to get away from the children's winter scribblings on the walls and focus the eyes upon a wider horizon. This became an important part of the house. Over the little terrace they would soon rig up some kind of roof supported on a row of posts. This kind of two-piece house, the dark and secret stone chamber with the porch in front, was in fact the prototype home of our Homeric ancestors. Made of finer materials it became the Greek temple with its classical portico in front and the hearth or shrine within. To this day our churches hold a memory of this ancient dual nature of the house, the sanctuary and the porch.

Colonists have always been great porch-builders. In a new country there was at first little to do with leisure time but sit at home and look at the property that had been cultivated. This was done most gracefully by the colonists of Virginia, the Carolinas and Georgia who built their comfortable mansions with porticos in the Greek and Roman styles. You remember "Tara" in "Gone With The Wind"? The Dutch settlers in South Africa built the "stoep" or paved terrace in front of their wide white houses. And the French in Quebec made their porches an essential part of the house, sheltered by the wide eaves of the bell-cast roof.

To sit upon the threshold of your own home and contemplate the marvels of the living world around you, has always been one of the pleasantest and most rewarding occupations. You have recognized our national experts in this art if you have driven down the main street of a Quebec village on a Sunday afternoon, between the two close ranks of houses each with its row of chairs on the porch, rocking in quiet contemplation

of the passing scene. Until the 1920s most houses in the rest of Canada, both Victorian and Edwardian, were also built with some kind of porch. Then a shame came upon us and we retreated inside the picture window, a poor substitute though it at least has the advantage of offering a view through all seasons of the year.

Inhibited from rocking on his own front porch in the city, the urban Canadian has run to cover in the woods, there to make for himself another private sanctuary. Here, after gestures of tribute to the supposed virtues of physical exercise, he sits gazing out upon the miracles of nature both the right way up and as reflected in the water. Like his primitive ancestors he cuts branches from the trees to extend his horizon, to catch a glimpse of the island in the lake or some other special fragment of his universe.

As a place to live in, I suppose nothing has been contrived quite so delightful as the English country house of the days before the industrial revolution – whatever may be said about the privileges of the class system which supported such a manner of living. A spacious house looks out upon a pattern of terraces, lawns, fruit and vegetable gardens, all surrounded by a private park in the folds of a bosky countryside. One of the neatest inventions of the 18th Century was the Ha-ha. This was a shallow ditch between the lawns of the house and the meadow beyond, the inner side of the ditch being a retaining wall about four feet high, its top flush with the level of the lawn. The sheep and cattle grazing in the meadow could not pass the wall and, from the house, there was a continuous view across lawns and meadow, uninterrupted by any fence above ground level. From the house and terrace the eye could wander freely to the distant views of hills and woods. Sometimes the view would terminate on a building or sculptured ornament in the landscape. Sometimes the perspective would lose itself in the wilderness. Here was the origin of the art of landscape architecture, reaching its 18th Century climax in the vistas and avenues of Versailles and Washington.

At a modest scale we contrive our own little views down the garden path, seeking to establish a link between the threshold of our sanctuary and the horizons of the world around us. A good deal of the difficulty in accommodating ourselves to life in cities is connected with this aspect of what makes a house – the looking out rather than the looking in. The sprawl and scatter of the suburbs is the consequence of a race against time and space in our striving for a longer perspective view of what the world contains. Of course the idyll we have sought turns out to be elusive. The countryside beyond the last suburban bungalow is quickly submerged by the next wave of house-building and every new subdivision becomes an old one. "At one time the

suburb had ended here;" writes Gabrielle Roy in The Tin Flute, "the last houses of Saint-Henri looked out upon open fields, a limpid, bucolic air clinging to their eaves and tiny gardens. Of the good old days nothing is left now on St. Ambroise Street but two or three great trees that still thrust their roots down under the cement sidewalk".

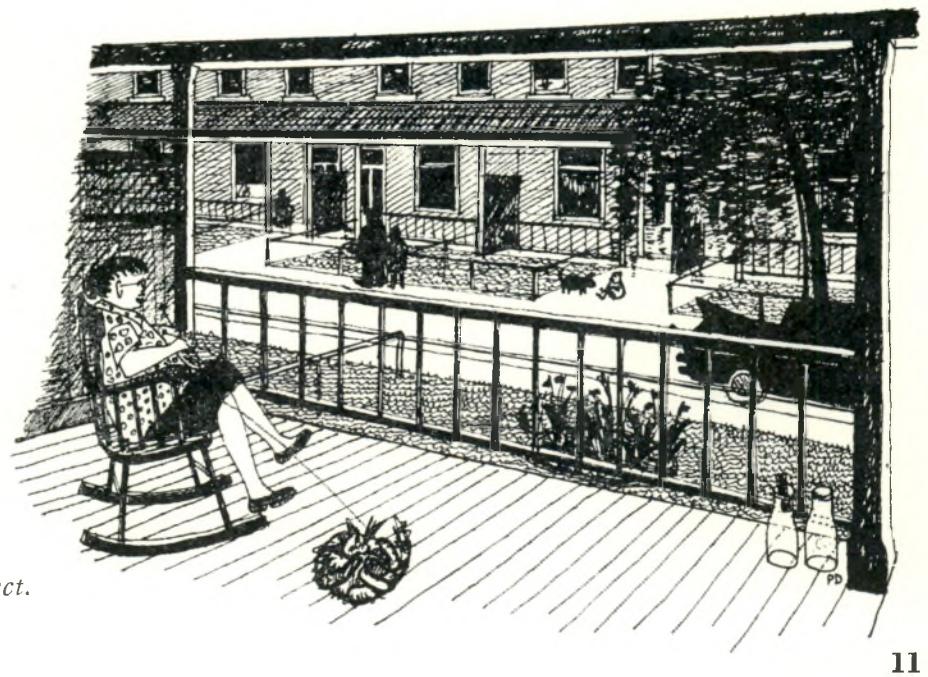
Ever since industrial cities began to grow like rank weeds there has persisted a dream, that a little bit of the countryside might remain attached to every house. There have been many attempts to realize this dream. Before Queen Victoria arrived London had gathered itself around the Regency Squares and Royal Parks. Then there were the hopeful English Garden Cities of the 1900s and the American Greenbelt Towns of the 1930s. In Ontario there was even legislation requiring developers to dedicate a percentage of their subdivisions for open space. And now Ottawa has been presented with a Greenbelt around itself. But the dream eludes us and cities have continued to gobble up the woodlands and streams that might have been preserved.

In our own time there has seemed to be a new prospect of fulfilling the dream. The automobile, the modern highway and the decentralization of industry open up new dimensions of space and time. Throughout the new kind of loosely sprawling regional city would it be possible to scatter a generous pattern of green open spaces? It is true that urban sprawl is to be condemned if it emasculates the countryside and is just untidy and expensive. But if a new kind of loosely woven city could preserve intact for our enjoyment some fragments of the natural landscape, the cost might indeed be worthwhile. Each new Saint-Henri might keep its bucolic village air.

But dreams, we are told, are symbols. And perhaps the city dwellers' wistful longing to look out upon the natural universe is to be satisfied by a symbol rather than a literal realization. On many stunted little frontyards north of Queen Street in Toronto grows the Ailanthus or Tree of Heaven, its green fronds drooping gracefully over porches and sidewalks, stubbornly declaring the arrival of each summer season. And Winnipeg seems to have a special genius for capturing a microcosm of landscape in its backyards. A fenced patch of black earth beside the porch, a few vegetables in neat farmer-style rows and the whole sweep of the Ukraine is remembered. It's not the size of the garden or the length of the vista which creates the landscape, but the illusion of its immediate presence on the threshold of the house.

As we become a nation of city-dwellers perhaps our interest in the world around us will change direction. Instead of yearning for distant horizons we may become more preoccupied by an interest in the town itself. To sit on the porch or balcony and witness the drama of the city's surging life may seem a more natural way of satisfying our curiosity about the universe. Such a change in the direction of our thinking might well change the direction in which our cities will grow. Will we continue to scatter towards the horizon? Or, as other urban people seem to have done, will we turn and concentrate our attention upon the crowd?

Whichever way it goes, there will be a place for the porch and the rocking chair, the house that looks in and the house that looks outwards.



The sketches illustrating this article were drawn by Peter Dovell, the Corporation's' Ontario Regional Architect.

THE CHANGING FACE OF MONTREAL

By Eric Minton

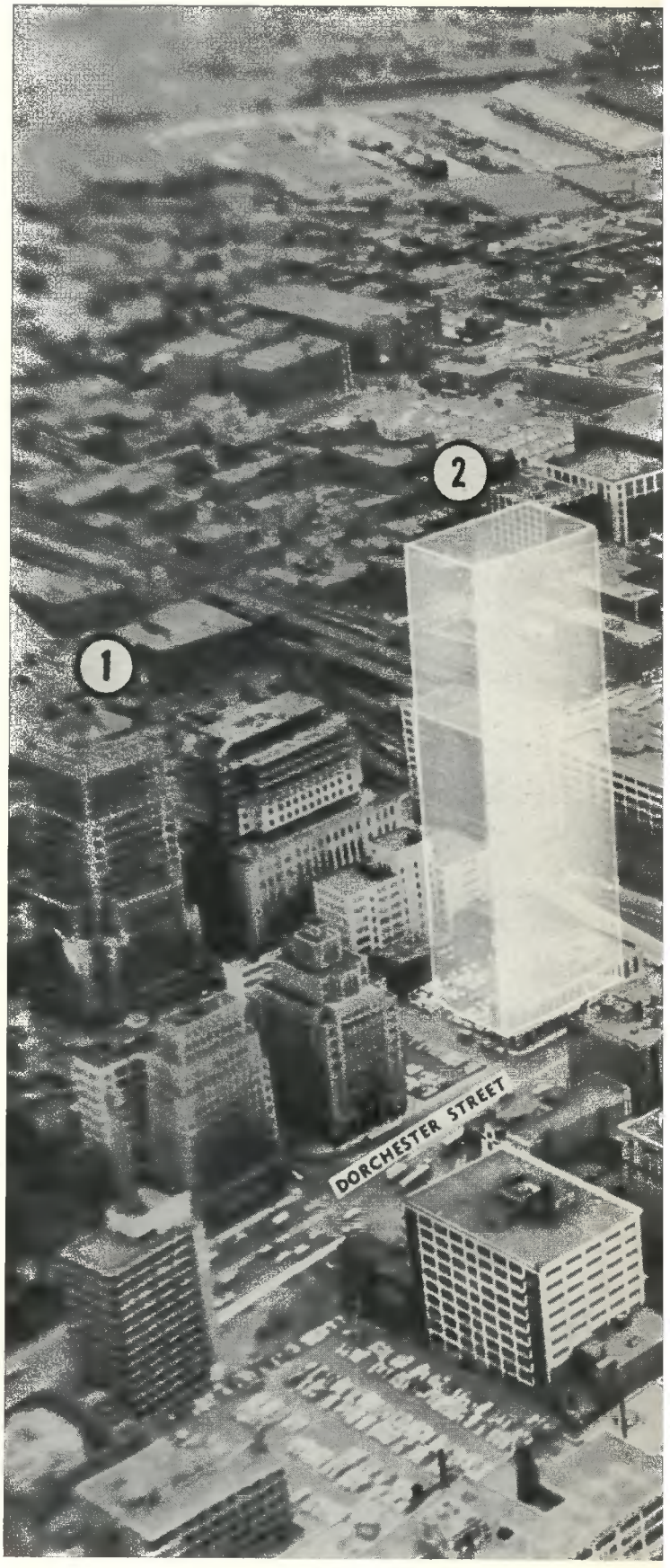
The shape of Montreal has been changing continually since the days of Maisonneuve and the first island community of 1642. Before the Second World War it was a gradual process – a few old buildings torn down and replaced by a new office block; face-lifting carried out on others. On the whole it was a leisurely process, hardly noticeable to the average Montrealer.

But several new projects now underway – or in the planning stage – will rapidly alter the face of downtown Montreal. Work has already started on Place Ville Marie, the largest of these developments. And in the next few years at least half a dozen new buildings will be added to the Dominion Square area.

The skyscrapers to be built will dwarf all surrounding buildings in size and will rise up to meet, as it were, that famous Montreal landmark, Mount Royal. These developments will eventually transform the heartland of Montreal into a striking business and entertainment centre which will contribute materially and artistically to the life of the city.

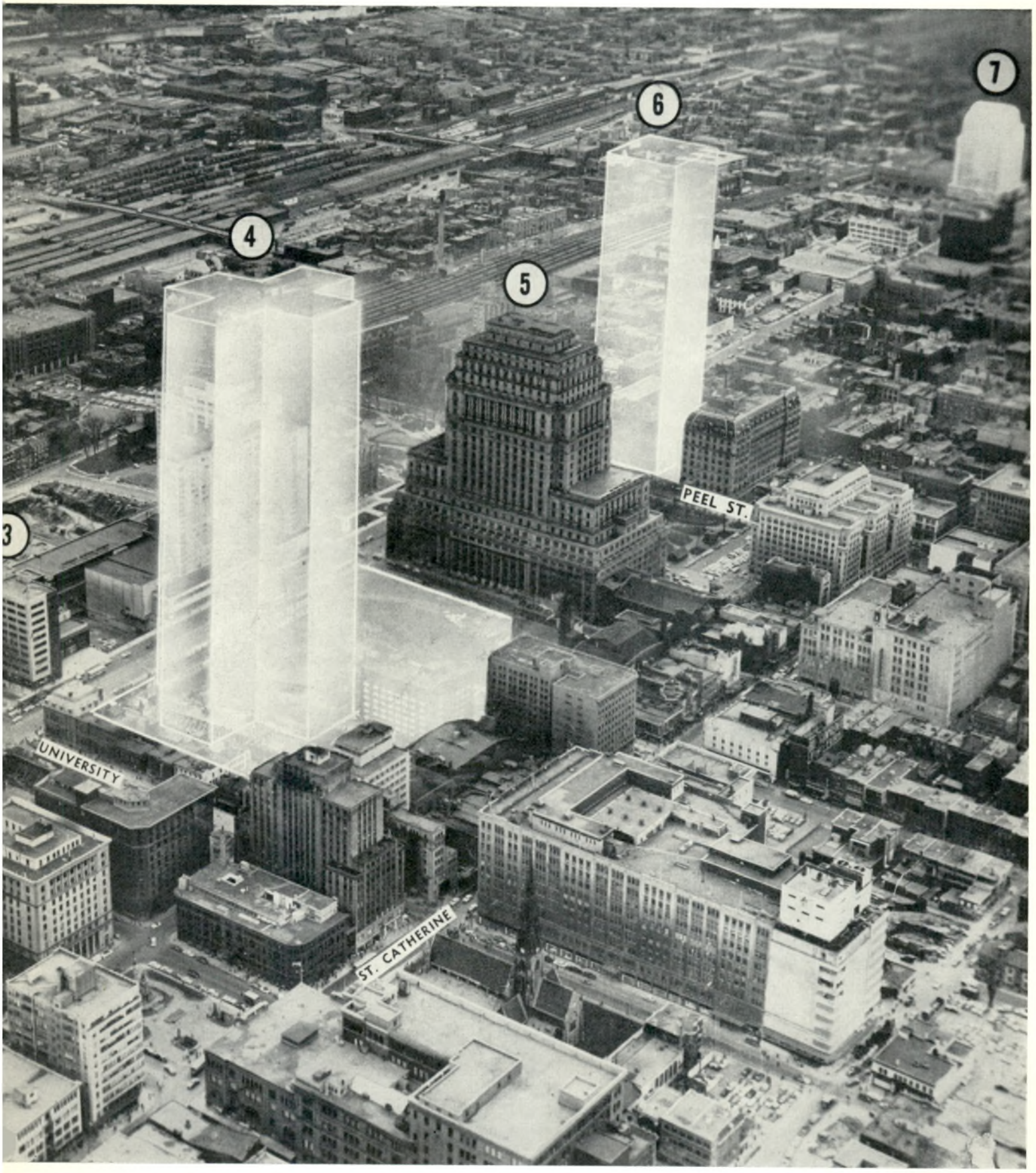
The increased rate of expansion in Montreal is a process that began in 1945 and is still underway.

With the rise in population in the city from 903,000 in 1941 to 1,149,000 in 1958, the problems of suburban



This composite photograph of downtown Montreal shows how the area will change in the next few years: (1) Bell Telephone building, (2) the 32-storey building which will house the Bank of Montreal, (3) International Aviation Building, (4) Place Ville Marie, (5) Sun Life building, (6) Windsor Plaza, (7) Northern Electric building.

Photo composite by Mac Juster and Owen Maccabe
Courtesy of Canada Wide Feature Service Limited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6
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PEEL ST.
UNIVERSITY
ST. CATHERINE

Model of the Place Ville Marie project. The buildings at right are the Sun Life building (in foreground), the Queen Elizabeth Hotel and St. James Cathedral.

Photo—H. J. Busse

growth and mid-town traffic became acute. The city has taken a number of steps to overcome these problems. The rigid street car system has now been replaced by a faster and more flexible fleet of buses. Dorchester Street has now become an important traffic artery. Another east-west traffic artery, Burnside Street, has been cut through the centre of the city. A main north-south artery, Côte des Neiges Road, has been widened and improved, as have other streets in the city.

Aided by these improvements for handling traffic, there has been steady growth downtown along with the post-war suburban expansion. It is against this background that the new developments are set.

The story of Place Ville Marie, which takes its name from the original settlement founded in the shadow of Mount Royal, goes back to the 1920's when plans were first put forward to build up the three city blocks of the Canadian National Railway's property on either side of Dorchester Street. The railway had acquired all this land in 1922 and preliminary studies for construction purposes were made in 1929, but the depression years stopped further planning.

When the war came the CNR was able to use one part of the site for its new Central Station. The International Aviation Building, built in 1950, and the Queen Elizabeth Hotel, which opened in 1958, added to the central development of the city.

While the hotel was still under construction the CNR signed an agreement with Webb and Knapp (Canada) Ltd. to draw up a new master plan for the area. This plan for the CNR property was prepared by I. M. Pei and Associates, working with CNR architects and the City Planning Department. Its aim was to transform the area into a city within a city and to link the old with the new.

The most striking feature of Place Ville Marie will be the already well-publicized cruciform building – a 42-storey skyscraper of metal and glass. At the foot of the tower there will be a plaza for pedestrians, which will be connected to St. Catherine Street by a tree-lined mall. On the north side of the plaza there will be a promenade of shops and a small square with a 700-seat theatre. The plaza will be framed on the west by a 15-storey office building.

The centre of the plaza will have a sunken open-air restaurant and skating rink. A concourse of shops and restaurants and parking for 900 cars will be provided below street level.

These are the basic features of the new master plan. Early this year construction men were working on sinking 32 steel columns, which – when finished – will climb the height of the cruciform building. This was the first part of the $9,000,000 steel construction project. Seven tracks were torn up to make way for the shafts, and a new platform was built under the hotel. The tracks will be replaced later.

Work on the Place Ville Marie project is scheduled to be completed by 1961. Jobs for 1,200 men are expected to be provided at peak employment.

South of Dorchester Street are two additional blocks of railway property that will be developed later. Scheduled for construction are a 20-storey office building, a large five-storey administrative building for the CNR, and a block-long terminal for all air, rail and bus services in the area.

The details of Windsor Plaza, another big private development, were announced late in 1958. A few hundred yards from Place Ville Marie, this latest project will cover a city block and will have three buildings, including another 42-storey office block.

To make space for the Windsor Plaza, part of the Windsor Hotel – in operation since 1878 – is to be torn down. The "new" wing of the hotel, built in 1912, will form the second unit of the plaza. A 22-storey office building will complete the project.

Windsor Plaza was designed by Peter Dickinson of Toronto. It will add a dash of colour to the heart of Montreal – the skyscraper will be faced with white granite ribs enclosing green slate tiles. Glass used in the building will be tinted green, and the whole area of the sidewalk and plaza will be paved in grey-green slate.

Further east along Dorchester Street, the Bank of Montreal will occupy a substantial part of a new 32-storey office building which is scheduled for completion by 1962. The Royal Trust Company and the Bank of Montreal are working with Rudberg Brothers of Montreal on this new project. The architects are Greenspoon, Freedlander and Dunne of Montreal.

Across the street will be the Prudential Assurance Company's 14-storey building, now under construction. These last two buildings will form the eastern end of a row of skyscrapers which will give a new skyline to Dorchester Street and the centre of Montreal. The Northern Electric Company's new 17-storey building at Guy Street marks the western end of the centre town expansion.

The initiative shown by the developers and planners in these undertakings in Montreal is an expression of the confidence of private investment.

Concrete evidence of interest in the new Dorchester Street projects is shown by the fact that substantial space in the high-rise buildings has already been leased, although excavation work in some cases has barely begun. The head office of The Royal Bank of Canada will be located in Place Ville Marie's cruciform building. The Canadian Bank of Commerce will set up banking facilities and regional administrative offices in Windsor Plaza.

The new developments on Dorchester Street will result in the revitalization of the heart of the city. St. James Street, Montreal's financial district, will soon be rivalled by Dorchester Street as a centre of money and banking. Financial and business institutions will operate in a setting of smart shops, haute-couture, theatres, and restaurants. Commerce and culture will meet in new and spacious settings.

Change is the essence of life in Canadian cities in this era of rapid expansion and redevelopment. Suburbia has grown into a thriving self-contained community, but the centre of Montreal is attempting to meet this challenge of peripheral growth with these new projects, housing both business and the arts.

LA MAISON

–SA DIMENSION EN RELATION DE SA FONCTION

Par Hector Saint-Pierre

Toute chose a un but, une raison d'être et exige une conception en vue d'un rendement maximum. Certaines qualités sont essentielles à ce rendement.

L'automobile est un moyen de transport moderne qui comporte confort, vitesse et usage facile et commode. Dès que ces qualités disparaissent, elle devient ferraille.

L'église bruyante trouble le recueillement et n'est plus un lieu de prière.

Ce n'est pas tout qu'une construction soit maison; elle doit être conçue en vue de son but et remplir les conditions qui en sont les accessoires indispensables.

La maison est le cagibi des époux, l'école des enfants. C'est là que naîssent, se développent et se conservent la famille et l'amour qui l'entoure. La maison est le palais de la famille.

Pour remplir sa fonction convenablement la maison doit avoir, pour les différents groupes qu'elle peut abriter, des qualités différentes. Elle peut avoir des formes très variées et des devis disparates. Sa dimension est essentielle à sa condition fonctionnelle.

Si la maison ne sert que de gîte à des époux, une superficie trop grande et un nombre excessif de compartiments peuvent produire l'éloignement, la solitude et l'ennui.

Mais pour une jeune nation, et c'est le cas de la nation canadienne, les logements ou maisons pour deux ne doivent servir en général qu'au début et à la fin de la vie conjugale. Les enfants iront à leur tour fonder leur propre foyer. Et encore pour les grands-parents quel bonheur de pouvoir réunir à la demeure familiale leurs enfants et petits-enfants! Ces réceptions sont impossibles dans les logements de deux ou de trois chambres.

Quel est le critère de la superficie requise pour que les besoins d'une famille soient adéquatement servis par la maison? Un nombre de pieds carrés par personne? Ce serait là une formule bien simple, mais les besoins d'espace d'une famille ne se calculent pas de cette façon. On pourrait considérer une échelle allant du "drawing-room" du wagon-lit au palais médiéval. Dans le premier cas c'est l'étouffement; dans le deuxième c'est l'éparpillement qui oblige l'enquête sur la présence au foyer des membres de la famille.

Est-ce qu'il ne faut pas considérer l'espace requis par chaque membre de la famille en vue de sa vie personnelle et intime, en plus de l'espace requis par l'ensemble de la famille par rapport aux relations des divers membres de la famille entre eux? "L'espace requis" dont il est fait mention serait un espace minimum pourvu que sa dimension soit basée sur les nécessités physiques, sanitaires, psychologiques, morales, culturelles et économiques de la famille et des individus qui la composent.

Au point de vue fonctionnel, la maison comprend généralement vivoir, salle à manger, cuisine, salle de bain et chambres à coucher. Certains croient que si l'on donne à une maison tous ces compartiments avec des dimensions minimums on aurait une maison dont la construction pourrait être à conseiller au point de vue économique. Ces dimensions minimums produisent une maison minimum. Ce genre de maison contraint les membres de la famille à vivre dans des conditions de promiscuité qui ne répondent certainement pas adéquatement aux besoins de la famille et qui pourraient fort bien être dangereuses.

Considérons une famille à laquelle nous donnerons le nom de Loka. Cette famille se compose du père et de la mère qui se sont épousés relativement jeunes, de deux garçons dont l'aîné a seize ans et le plus jeune, dix ans, et de deux filles de douze et quatorze ans respectivement. La maison minimum où vivrait cette famille pourrait n'avoir que trois chambres à coucher.

Quand les âges des enfants variaient d'un mois à six ans, le problème d'espace des Loka était sans importance. Du moment où l'aîné atteint l'âge d'environ treize ans jusqu'au jour de son départ du foyer, il s'écoulera de sept à dix années. Cette période importe sérieusement dans la vie des parents, mais encore bien plus dans la vie des enfants, puisque c'est là toute leur enfance, toute leur adolescence.

Les parents Loka doivent vivre dans cette petite maison; c'est-à-dire qu'ils doivent faire tout ce que font les individus pour vivre pleinement. Ils devront trouver dans cette petite maison l'échappée aux tracas journaliers, le calme contre le "stress" de la vie moderne, l'intimité des confidences, la classe d'éducation des enfants, la tranquillité propice à la réflexion et à la lecture, le salon pour leurs amis, le sanctuaire de leurs effusions amoureuses. Les parents Loka peuvent-ils vivre convenablement avec quatre adolescents qui ne sont jamais plus qu'à vingt ou trente pieds d'eux?

Et que penser de la vie des enfants dans une telle camisole de force? Chacun des enfants a sa vie physique à vivre. Ils doivent manger, dormir, faire usage de la salle de bain. Et tout cela, à cause d'une discipline imposée par les exigences de la société, (heures des classes, etc.) doit s'accomplir quasi en même temps. On se pousse les uns les autres de telle sorte que personne ne bénéficie complètement des avantages, si petits soient-ils, que peut offrir la maison minimum.

Une telle congestion ne peut que produire une ambiance malsaine et des microbes nocifs, virus, infections qui s'attaqueront à un enfant, déjà trop exposé à l'école, passeront sans aucun doute à ses frères et soeurs et souvent aux parents. Ce sera, à la moindre occasion, l'épidémie familiale avec sa suite de malheurs: absence de l'école, retards, surcroît d'efforts pour se remettre au niveau des autres. Et tout ça a pour effet de miner lentement la condition physique générale des enfants. Moins de résistance; plus de maladie.

On prétend que vivre dans un taudis a des effets psychologiques souvent désastreux. Une maison même toute neuve peut être un taudis pour des enfants si elle est surpeuplée, et c'est le cas de la maison minimum de trois chambres à coucher qui loge la famille Loka.

La promiscuité est dangereuse pour des enfants qui arrivent à l'adolescence. C'est là un fait qu'il ne paraît pas nécessaire d'examiner ici dans ses détails.

Si l'on considère que cette partie de la maison où vivent les enfants Loka n'a qu'un petit vivoir, une petite salle à manger, une petite cuisine, dont l'ensemble n'a qu'une superficie de 230 pieds carrés, et deux petites chambres à coucher de 80 pieds carrés chacune, (la troisième chambre à coucher étant celle des parents) où les enfants Loka peuvent-ils trouver le lieu et la tranquillité nécessaire à la réflexion pour faire leurs études? Les travaux intellectuels faits sur le coin de la table de cuisine dans le brouhaha coutumier pourront difficilement développer l'intelligence d'un enfant. Les enfants qui réussissent, le font probablement au détriment de leur santé en prolongeant leurs études tard la nuit alors que s'éteignent les bruits de la maison.

Le seul aspect économique de la maison minimum est son prix d'achat. La famille Loka vivrait à bien moins de frais dans une maison plus grande.

Si la maison des Loka répond mal aux exigences de leur famille, quelle maison leur conviendrait? Une maison spacieuse, il va sans dire. Mais il faut aussi que la maison ait un plus grand nombre de compartiments. C'est là, il semble, une condition essentielle à la tranquillité si nécessaire, à certains moments, à chacun des membres de la famille.

La maison devrait avoir un vivoir d'au moins 150 pieds carrés. Que penser en effet d'un vivoir où toute la famille ne peut se réunir? La salle à manger est nécessaire et peut servir à plusieurs fins si elle est une pièce fermée. La cuisine doit être grande de façon à y permettre les repas des enfants du matin et du midi les jours de semaine, alors que la mère a tellement à faire. Une salle de jeu est devenue indispensable de nos jours et elle se fait à peu de frais. Il faut donner à une chambre où doivent dormir deux adolescents une superficie d'au moins 120 pieds carrés. (Les chambres à coucher de 80 pieds carrés sont des pouponnières.) Ajoutons une chambre à coucher qui pourra au besoin servir de "den" ou de salle de couture. Une salle de toilette additionnelle n'est pas un luxe, mais une nécessité.

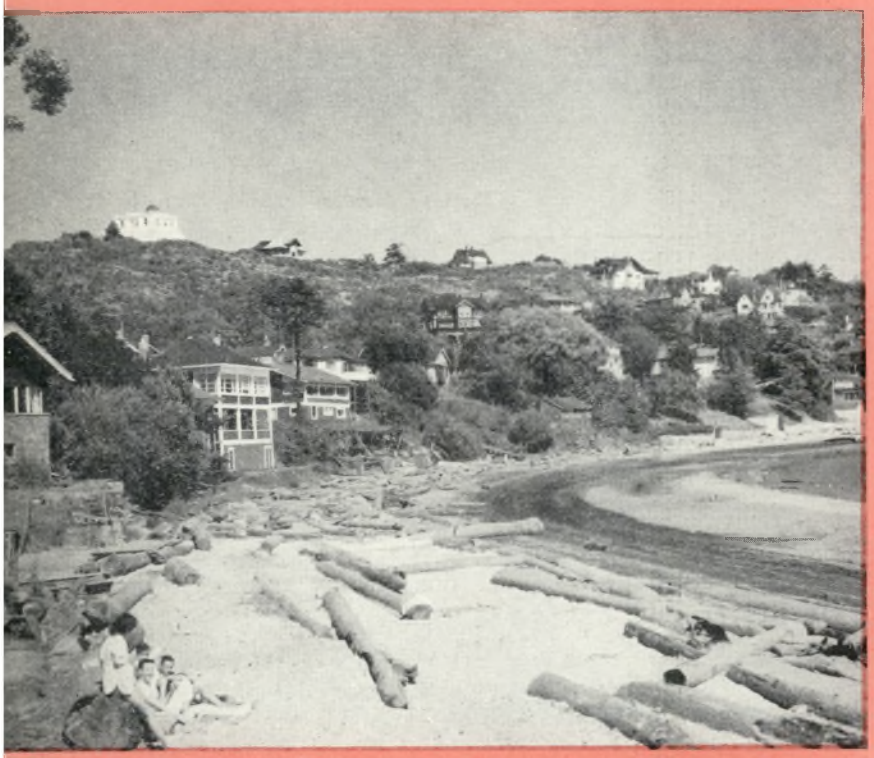
Est-ce à dire que la famille à revenu modique ne pourrait jamais se construire une maison, puisque le prix en deviendrait prohibitif? Il semblerait — jusqu'à ce qu'on ait trouvé une formule qui permettra de calculer le prix de construction d'après d'autres données que les dimensions.

En attendant, il serait bon de chercher la formule qui permettra aux familles d'acquérir les grandes maisons déjà construites et d'empêcher les propriétaires de diviser en plusieurs petits logements les maisons qui peuvent servir et qui sont nécessaires aux familles.

Les maisons constituent un actif pour une municipalité, pour la nation. Nous n'ajoutons rien à notre actif national en construisant la maison minimum.

CAMERA ON CANADA

Last year, CMHC staff photographer David Butler spent five months in Western Canada and the Maritimes shooting photographs for the Corporation's housing library. While on assignment he took more than 1,500 photographs, a few of which appear on these pages.



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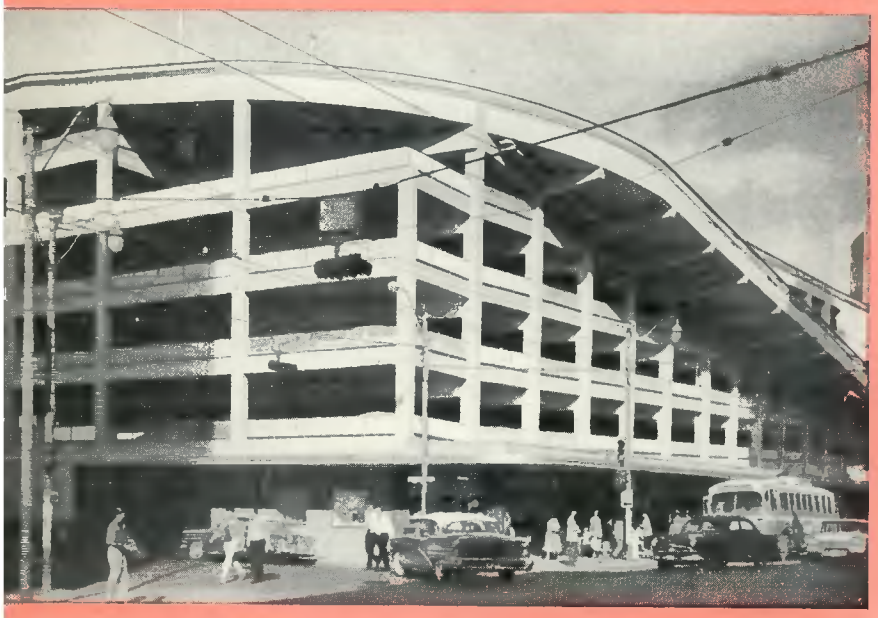

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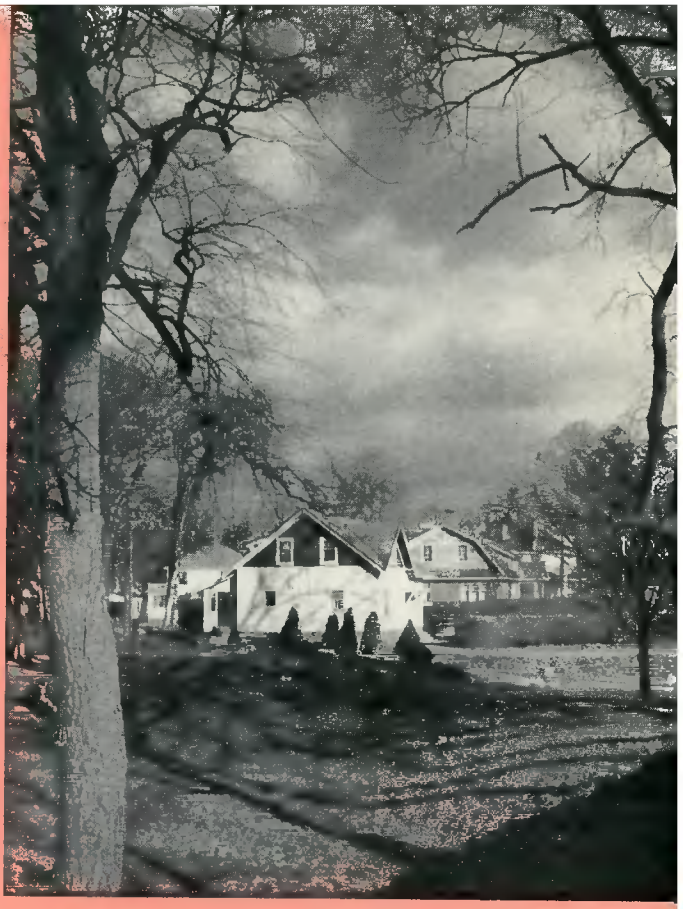

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1. Gonzales Beach, Victoria. 2. Winnipeg. 3. Renfrew Heights, Vancouver. 4. Delbrook subdivision, North Vancouver. 5. Burnaby, B.C. 6. Hudson's Bay Company parking building, Calgary. 7. Regina. 8. Fredericton. 9. Uplands subdivision, Victoria.

Tête de cheval gravée dans le roc à Lascaux par un artiste de l'époque Cro-magnon.

SÉSAME OUVRE-TOI!

Par Albert Potvin

La caverne, asile ténébreux chargé de mystère, apparaît souvent dans les contes légendaires. Ces voûtes secrètes se peuplent d'êtres fantastiques, dragons, géants, sorciers, qui font de la caverne leur lieu de retraite. Dans une caverne fréquentée de l'île de Crète naquit, selon la légende, Zeus, l'omnipotent fils de Titan. C'est dans cette même caverne que Zeus revint épouser Europe. De cette union, dit-on, naquit Minos, roi fabuleux de la Crète antique. Mais la mythologie, si fantaisiste qu'elle puisse nous sembler, contient une part de vérité. L'origine de ces récits, croit-on, remonte au temps reculé de la préhistoire. Les souterrains de la fable seraient la caverne de l'homme primitif dont le souvenir s'est perpétué à travers le brouillard des siècles.

La caverne a joué un rôle des plus important dans l'histoire de l'évolution de l'homme. C'est elle qui lui aurait servi d'abri pendant les centaines de milliers d'années qu'il travaillait à sa transformation. Plus tard, vers la fin de la dernière époque glaciale, l'homme évolué fit de la caverne un lieu de culte, dans lequel il a dressé le tableau de ses connaissances. Les découvertes des spéléologues dans la région des Pyrénées, par exemple, nous apportent la preuve que l'homme, à l'âge de la pierre taillée, avait atteint un niveau culturel avancé. Sur les parois des cavernes on relève des peintures qui sont des exemples manifestes d'un haut développement artistique.

La caverne constitue en quelque sorte les archives de notre passé. Mais il y a à peine cent ans, on ne soupçonnait pas encore l'existence de ces civilisations embryonnaires. Il nous a fallu depuis corriger l'image que l'on s'était faite de l'homme préhistorique et lui accorder la place qu'il mérite dans l'histoire.

Des êtres primitifs que l'on veut bien aujourd'hui accepter comme les véritables ancêtres de l'homme, cherchaient refuge dans la caverne il y a près d'un million d'années. C'est au cours de travaux d'excavation, quelque temps avant la dernière guerre mondiale, que l'on découvrit dans une caverne près de Sterkfontein au Transvaal, les fossiles du pré-homme le plus reculé. L'usage qu'il faisait du feu indiquait déjà un début d'évolution. Le renommé spéléologue français, l'abbé Henri Breuil, confirma l'antiquité de ces reliques.

Plus rapproché de nous, mais vivant à une époque encore si éloignée que l'imagination peut difficilement en saisir la portée, nous avons l'homme de Pékin. C'est à un Canadien, le docteur Davidson Black, que revient l'honneur d'avoir conduit les recherches qui menèrent à la découverte du crâne pétrifié de cet ancêtre, dans une caverne effondrée de la Montagne du Dragon. L'existence de cet être primitif était déjà connue avant la découverte de ses restes fossilisés. Les anthropologues avaient déjà reconnu les traces de son passage — armes, couteaux de pierre taillée et autres vestiges des civilisations primitives. Ces messieurs de Pékin, dit-on, apprêtaient leurs repas au feu il y a déjà plus d'un quart de million d'années. Ils façonnaient aussi des outils avec les ossements d'animaux.

Dans une caverne de l'île de Java le savant français Dubois découvrait, à la fin du siècle dernier, des ossements qui avaient appartenu au cousin de l'homme de

Pékin. L'homme de Java, comme on le désigna, marchait comme nous dans une position verticale, ce qui le distinguait de ses ancêtres simiens. D'autres attributs aussi le rapprochaient déjà de l'homme d'aujourd'hui.

C'est encore dans une caverne, cette fois en Allemagne, près de la vallée de Neander, que l'on fit l'une des découvertes les plus retentissantes du siècle dernier. Des ouvriers, tailleurs de pierre, en déblayant le fond d'une des cavernes de Feldhofer déterrèrent un squelette d'une grande antiquité. On crut d'abord que ces reliques étaient celles d'un ours. Mais un professeur d'histoire naturelle de l'endroit, en faisant les constatations, se rendit compte de la valeur de cette trouvaille inattendue. Il le nomma l'homme de Néanderthal. Cet être avait vécu en Allemagne il y a à peu près cinquante mille ans. Pendant un demi-siècle on le considéra comme notre ancêtre le plus éloigné.

Les pages les plus sensationnelles de la paléontologie, étude des fossiles — comme de la spéléologie, — étude des cavernes, sont sans doute celles qui traitent de la découverte des Cro-magnons, ascendants en ligne directe de nos races évoluées. C'est Cuvier, le célèbre naturaliste français surnommé le père de la paléontologie, qui le premier entreprit de fouiller les cavernes dans la région montagneuse des Pyrénées à la recherche des preuves qu'il lui fallait pour l'aider à compléter son catalogue des espèces.

Les découvertes qu'on y fit dépassèrent toutes les espérances.

Parmi les plus célèbres cavernes de 'l'âge d'or' de la civilisation Cro-magnon, sont celles de Fort-de-Gaume, La Mouthe, Pair-non-Pair, Marsoulas, Tuc-d'Andoubert, la grotte de Lascaux découverte en 1940, la caverne de Montespan, la grotte du Pech-Merle, ainsi que la caverne d'Altamira, en Espagne.

Plus loin à l'est, dans les régions montagneuses de l'Allemagne, en Autriche et en Tchécoslovaquie, on découvrit également les signes d'une civilisation contemporaine des Cro-magnons. Comme ces derniers, les peuples antiques de l'Europe centrale fréquentaient les cavernes. Ils nous ont laissé eux aussi des oeuvres d'art d'une exécution étonnante.

Depuis le début du siècle des découvertes se succèdent. Elles nous ont obligés à reviser nos notions périmées sur le degré de civilisation qu'on concédait jusqu'alors à l'homme primitif. Des dessins d'un raffinement exquis qu'un artiste de nos jours n'aurait aucune honte de s'attribuer couvrent les parois de plusieurs de ces cavernes: — dans la grotte Fort-de-Gaume, des bisons sculptés dignes d'un Rodin; dans la grotte de Teyt, en Dordogne et la grotte de Pech-Merle on admire l'emploi judicieux des couleurs, encore d'une étonnante fraîcheur; dans la caverne d'Altamira en Espagne des représentations si vivantes qu'on a voulu les comparer "aux plus grands chef d'oeuvres de tous les temps".

Dans la grotte de La Mouthe apparaît, parmi les dessins dont sont ornés les murs, la première esquisse d'une construction. La charpente offre une ressemblance saisissante à une des formes de l'architecture moderne dans laquelle le toit n'est que le prolongement du mur.

L'homme primitif ne connut-il d'autre abri que la caverne? Certains écrivains l'ont affirmé: "Pendant des centaines de milliers d'années" lit-on dans l'ouvrage de Herbert Wendt 'A la recherche d'Adam', "l'humanité vécut dans des cavernes ou des abris sous roche. Vers la fin du pléistocène les grottes habitables semblaient s'être raréfiées. C'est pourquoi de nombreuses hordes de chasseurs s'établissaient à l'abri de grands rochers saillants." La pénurie du logement ne serait donc pas particulière au 20ième siècle.

Toutefois, ces affirmations d'ordre général ne sont pas incontestables. Dans cette science encore jeune qu'est la paléontologie, la spéculation que nécessite forcément les vides tient souvent lieu d'explication. Une interprétation plus ou moins plausible peut s'afficher jusqu'à ce que quelque nouvelle preuve vienne la modifier ou la supplanter. Ainsi, faut-il broder sur des bribes pour reconstituer une civilisation, ses habitudes et ses moeurs, d'après quelques tracés sur les murs d'une caverne, quelques objets qui ont pu résister à l'usure des siècles, des ossements, des amulettes, ou encore des armes ou des outils primitifs.

"L'évolution de l'habitat s'accomplissait parallèlement à celle de l'art", de dire encore Herbert Wendt. Mais on aurait tort de croire que la simple représentation d'une charpente sur le mur d'une caverne établirait de soi la date d'origine de la première habitation. L'homme avait dû savoir se construire une demeure bien avant que l'idée lui vienne d'en faire un tableau. De même, on ne peut accepter que l'art si développé de l'âge de pierre en soit arrivé à ce degré de perfection du jour au lendemain. Bien avant la "période classique" de la préhistoire lorsque se multipliaient les chefs-d'oeuvre muraux, on avait dû s'amuser à faire des tracés dans le sable comme le font les enfants à la plage.

D'ailleurs, la caverne qui suppose un mode de vie plus ou moins sédentaire n'aurait nullement suffi à abriter les hordes de nomades qui s'étendaient à travers la terre à l'époque mésolithique. L'on calcule que dans les seuls environs du désert de Gobi où habitent à peine un million d'habitants de nos jours, vivait à cette époque une population beaucoup plus nombreuse.

C'est de cette région que l'exode vers l'Amérique prit naissance, il y a quelque 25,000 ans. Les premiers aventuriers, à la poursuite du mammouth peut-être, franchirent le détroit de Berring qui aurait été encore à cette époque sous l'emprise des glaces. De là ils descendirent par la voie des fleuves et par la route côtière pour se répandre jusqu'aux confins australs des Amériques.

Sur cette nouvelle terre la caverne n'a jamais eu la même vogue. La tente de peaux de bêtes aurait été le logement habituel des nouveaux arrivés, et n'aurait subi à peu près aucune transformation au cours des siècles. Il n'en faut pas plus encore de nos jours à certaines de nos tribus indiennes pour se loger.

Toutefois, dans l'histoire du nouveau monde, c'est encore la caverne qui a su le mieux garder les secrets des civilisations primitives. Les preuves ne sont pas moins authentiques et étonnantes que celles que nous ont fournies les cavernes du midi de la France. Dans une caverne de l'Utah, par exemple, on a découvert les fragments d'un panier d'écorce tressée qui date de quelque neuf mille ans, et dont l'exécution dénote déjà une grande habilité manuelle.

Cette tête de boeuf, travail d'une exécution remarquable, nous fournit une preuve convaincante que l'art à cette époque reculée avait déjà atteint un haut degré de perfection.

On a trouvé également dans la caverne de Fort Rock, en Oregon, des chaussettes tissées de fils d'écorce, à peine abimées, et d'un travail si soigné qu'on les étalerait sans hésiter dans une exposition d'artisanat de chez nous.

La vérification de l'âge a été faite au radio-carbone qui ne saurait mentir, ce qui nous permet d'établir avec précision l'époque qui nous a légué ces documents. L'absence d'humidité dans cette région accidentée du sud des Etats-Unis a rendu possible cet état remarquable de conservation.

Au sud-est des Etats-Unis la caverne Russell est l'habitation la plus ancienne que l'on ait découverte dans ce secteur. Les premiers habitants de l'Alabama en avaient fait leur demeure il y a au delà de neuf mille ans. Parmi les objets retrouvés à cet emplacement on remarque des hameçons ainsi qu'une lampe primitive façonnée de l'humérus d'un ours. On soupçonne un lien entre la tribu qui fréquentait alors cette caverne et les peuples des régions boréales. Leurs instruments se ressemblent trop pour n'être qu'un jeu du hasard. L'hameçon dont on a parlé, par exemple, était d'un genre ingénieux que l'on retrouve encore aujourd'hui chez les Esquimaux. L'exploration de cette caverne ne commença qu'en 1953 et les fouilles se continuent toujours.

Parmi les cavernes célèbres d'Amérique notons encore, entre autres, celle de Carlsbad au Nouveau Mexique et la caverne Mammoth du Kentucky. Cette dernière, comme l'indique son nom, est une ouverture colossale que l'eau souterraine a pratiquée dans la pierre. On peut y pénétrer jusqu'à une distance de 14 milles. Cette caverne compte plusieurs lacs souterrains, le plus grand mesurant un demi-mille de longueur.

Si énorme que soit cette grotte du Kentucky elle ne peut tout de même être comparée avec la cavité béante de Carlsbad, une des merveilles du monde. Etablie sur trois niveaux distincts, celle-ci s'abaisse à une profondeur de plus de 1,000 pieds au-dessous du sol. La chambre principale mesure un mille et quart de circonférence; la voûte s'élève à 285 pieds au sommet. Bien qu'elle fut connue durant l'époque néolithique — on y a même trouvé la sandale d'un indigène prehistorique — elle fut longtemps oubliée par la suite. C'est au début de notre siècle seulement qu'un cavalier, apercevant ce qu'il croyait être une colonne de fumée sortant des

rochers, s'approcha de la colline. Il se rendit compte alors que ce qu'il avait pris pour de la fumée n'était autre chose qu'un nuage de chauve-souris. Il faut à ces millions d'êtres ailés prenant leur vol à la tombée du jour plus d'une heure pour évacuer la caverne. Chaque année des visiteurs en grand nombre viennent contempler les merveilles souterraines de Carlsbad.

Ainsi, les grandes cavernes naturelles pratiquées par l'érosion des rochers calcaires ne servant plus aux besoins élémentaires de l'homme ont été transformées en lieux touristiques. La caverne de Drach sur l'île Majorque au large des côtes d'Espagne sur la Méditerranée est explorée chaque année par de nombreux visiteurs. Ils peuvent y admirer un lac long de 500 pieds dans lequel les pointes innombrables des stalactites se mirent à la lueur des flambeaux électriques. Le guide explique que dans cette caverne, une partie de l'armée des Maures en déroute, vint se réfugier après la bataille de Parme. Les vainqueurs espagnols les en délogèrent par la fumée des feux qu'ils allumèrent à l'entrée de la caverne.

Les cavernes célèbres ne manquent pas dans la région de la Méditerranée, à partir de Gibraltar, dont les grottes autrefois occupées par des colonies de singes ont été "expropriées" par les Anglais, à celles de la Jordanie, sur les bords de la Mer Morte où l'on a découvert tout récemment des parchemins enfouis par les Esséniens il y a deux mille ans.

Les îles du Pacifique ont aussi leurs cavernes célèbres. Le héros de l'expédition du Kon-Tiki, Thor Heyderdahl nous parle de la caverne légendaire de Vai Po qu'il explora avec son épouse au cours de leur voyage de noces sur l'île Fatu-Hiva en Polynésie. Le fond de la caverne est baigné par un lac et on ne peut y accéder qu'en canot. Comme la grotte de fingale en Ecosse, cette caverne semble émettre des sons musicaux, illusion créée par la caprice des échos.

De tous les souterrains qui ont figuré dans l'histoire de l'humanité les plus célèbres sont sans doute les catacombes de Rome où ont été ensevelis plus de six millions de chrétiens au temps de l'Eglise naissante. Les catacombes ne sont pas des cavernes proprement dites puisqu'elles ont été creusées par l'homme lui-même. On ne croit pas non plus qu'elles aient jamais servi à l'habitation, à cause de l'air malsain de ces profondeurs. Durant les premiers siècles de l'ère chrétienne, elles sont demeurées un lieu de culte mais au huitième siècle, en partie détruites par les Lombards, on en perdit la trace. Depuis leur restitution, après mille ans d'oubli, elles sont devenues des endroits très fréquentés. Il y a quelques années des visiteurs s'étant égarés dans les dédales souterrains y passèrent deux jours entiers avant d'être retrouvés.

La maison-caverne n'est pas tout à fait démodée. On sera peut-être étonné d'apprendre qu'encore de nos jours plusieurs millions d'êtres humains ne connaissent pas d'autre abri. Dans certaines régions de la Chine, par exemple, des populations entières vivent comme des taupes dans des grottes creusées dans les collines. Ces habitations avancent parfois à une profondeur de plusieurs cents pieds à l'intérieur de la montagne. Elles sont cependant pourvues d'un certain confort.

Plusieurs générations successives peuvent occuper la même caverne. Mais la vie dans ces terriers n'est pas sans danger. Vers 1920, un tremblement de terre provoqua un éboulis catastrophique dans lequel périrent d'un seul coup plus de 100,000 des occupants.

Au sud de l'Espagne, également, dans les régions accidentées de l'Andalousie on s'accommode à la vie sous terre. La montagne abrite des villages troglodytes entiers. Ces peuplades gitanes dont les ancêtres étaient, croit-on, originaires de l'Inde sont venues s'établir ici il y a plus de cinq cents ans. Aux environs de Grenade, une véritable ville avec ses propres écoles et magasins a été aménagée dans le flanc des collines. Les pluies sont rares dans cette région, ce qui facilite un tel genre d'existence.

La caverne n'a donc pas perdu toute son utilité.

Serions-nous à la veille d'un retour aux souterrains? Cette possibilité n'est peut-être pas si éloignée qu'on pourrait le penser. La menace grandissante d'une guerre dévastatrice pourrait nous y forcer un jour. En Suède des souterrains très élaborés ont été aménagés dans la montagne. Déjà, durant la dernière guerre mondiale des usines entières fonctionnaient efficacement dans les souterrains d'Allemagne.

Même en écartant l'idée de guerre, si l'on considère le coût toujours croissant de la construction résidentielle ici au pays on peut se demander parfois s'il n'y aurait pas avantage à chercher dans la caverne la solution à notre problème du logis.

Ces scènes préhistoriques ont été captées en couleur par le Révérend Père F. Banim, O.M.I., anthropologue et doyen de la faculté des arts à St. Patrick's College, Ottawa.

THE TROUBLED METROPOLIS

The Fifth Annual Winter Conference of the Canadian Institute on Public Affairs brought together some of the top planners, architects and sociologists in North America to discuss the problems of the troubled metropolis.

The main speakers at the three-day Conference, held in Toronto on the weekend of February 7th, were Anthony Adamson of the University of Toronto, Howard Jones, Social Psychologist at the University of Leicester, England, Stewart Bates, President of CMHC, C. Wright Mills of Columbia University and Ernest van den Haag of New York University.

This is not a full report of the conference – it is rather a broad outline of some of the main points brought out by the principal speakers. The C.I.P.A. will be publishing a final report of the proceedings.

Professor Adamson's topic was: "Is the City Invading Your Life?" A series of interviews with citizens outlined the following facts: Growth in our cities means change. The chief change is in the use of land, and this change occurs throughout the whole period of growth and decay of the cities. The problem of the town planner is to anticipate changes and to plan for them so that the invasion of people's lives occurs with the least disturbance.

The cycle of growth and decay begins when farm land is developed for houses. It continues when the suburb is used for such things as apartments, filling stations and stores, resulting in changes in zoning and higher densities. This process of transition takes place over a number of years, after which the area becomes obsolete and again there has to be a change in usage of the land.

As the city expands it becomes necessary to bring up to date the road widths, the transportation systems, the utilities, the public services and the park areas. Unless these things are done, parts of the city are strangled, assessment decreases, taxes go down, the area becomes blighted and the blight spreads into other areas. At this stage of transition, the city must expropriate land for many purposes and this expropriation frequently invades the lives of those who are expropriated.

The consensus was that development was a compound of selfish interests.

Professor Jones, who spoke on "The City of 1984" described a new kind of family pattern building up in large cities which would leave society heir to mental illness, crime and epidemics of disease.

He warned that unless planning concepts change there will be no improvement in the cities of the future.

He said that destroying a slum area and moving its inhabitants to the suburbs is not enough. Research in England had shown that new housing is no cure-all in itself.

In Canada the cities are becoming bigger and more impersonal all the time. "Two different kinds of development seem to have taken place. In the built-up central areas the preference is for high-rise apartment blocks – concrete filing cabinets for people, with an up-to-date index down in the hall. On the outskirts, on the other hand, we see the suburban solution – an amorphous ever-spreading rash of new buildings – detached houses each insulated from all the others by this little patch of garden. No real suburban community to which the residents could belong even if they wanted to."

Professor Jones said the current emphasis on individuality appears to be an attack on things collective, things communal and things shared. He would like to see a regard for collective and common things now, instead of the mistakes we are making which will have to be rectified in the next twenty years.

Mr. Bates said in his paper that the city of 25 years hence will be exactly what we make it.

"The city of 1984 is not something you have to wait to see, like the other side of the moon; nor something concealed in an alien complex mastermind. It has been composing itself, is composing itself now in the inside and hearts of the people."

If governing attitudes do not change then the cities will simply expand themselves as they have been doing since the war, except faster. But Mr. Bates said he expected governing attitudes and public opinion to change substantially, and these changes will affect many aspects of urban living.

We can already be sure of one thing about the city of 1984: it will show that 25 years earlier the most important part of the public sector of living – education – was being neglected.

"The attitude to adopt is not to regard education as having only a remote chance of creating the desired habits of mind, the proper governing attitudes of public opinion: rather, education is the only chance."

Professor Wright Mills, speaking on "Forces Shaping Our Cities", blamed commercial interests and politicians for the chaos in which large metropolitan centres find themselves.

"Is the ugly, frustrating and irrational structure of the city now due so much to fate, to haphazard forces or can you now identify circles of men who are responsible for decisions that affect the innumerable milieux that make up the city? . . . surely you will agree that often city governments are now more readily understandable as committees for a complex of real estate interests."

Professor Mills said the problem of the city is to consider publicly, imaginatively, planfully, the city as a structure. "To see it, in brief, as a public issue, and to see ourselves as a public – rather than as men in a mass trapped by merely personal troubles. We must realize, in a word, that we need not drift blindly; that we can take matters into our own hands."

He challenged the designer, the architect, the artist, the city planner and the private citizen to use imagination.

"Our profession and crafts that have to do with the city are now in chaos, and without agreed-upon standards. Our task – as professional people and as citizens – is to formulate standards: to set forth as a conference ten or twelve propositions on which we are willing to stand up."

This photograph – denoting traffic problems in downtown areas – was one of seven panels in the Corporation's exhibit, "The Troubled Metropolis", at the C.I.P.A. Winter Conference.
Photo–CMHC

Professor van den Haag criticized the functionalism of North American cities – that strict division between the residential and the business and entertainment sections. He wanted town planners to blend the two. Cities should be exciting places and this is impossible when housing is excluded from business developments and business and industry are prohibited from entering residential areas.

It is up to government, the architects, planners and the citizen to foster variety and surprise in our cities – not the monotony which is so prevalent throughout North America.

Much of the blame for the poor planning of cities rests with the increasing number of automobiles on the road.

"The more people ride the less useful the car becomes. In our big cities automobiles are a costly and socially harmful nuisance. Yet half the mileage of all automobiles is driven on city streets. New measures to relieve traffic congestion are constantly taken. These are responsible more than anything else for the destruction of neighbourhoods, and the dullness of streets from which people have been driven by traffic."

"A radically new approach is needed. Instead of building roads for more and more cars, we should hold down the number of cars used."

Cutting down the number of cars could be done by placing a prohibitive tax on automobiles. Transportation could be handled much more easily in urban centres by subways, railroads, buses and taxis.

Other speakers who took part in the Conference were Rev. J. A. Raftis of the University of Toronto, Rev. William Jenkins of the First Unitarian Congregation, Toronto, Albert Rose of the School of Social Work, University of Toronto, William Kilbourn of McMaster University, Gordon Stephenson of the University of Toronto, Walter Gordon, under whose direction the Royal Commission on Canada's Economic Prospects was made in 1956, James Murray of the University of Toronto and Editor of *Canadian Architect*, and Alan Jarvis, Director of the National Gallery of Canada.

In between sessions the 500 people attending the conference attended discussion groups covering all aspects of urban growth. Propositions developed by these groups will be included in the final report of the conference.

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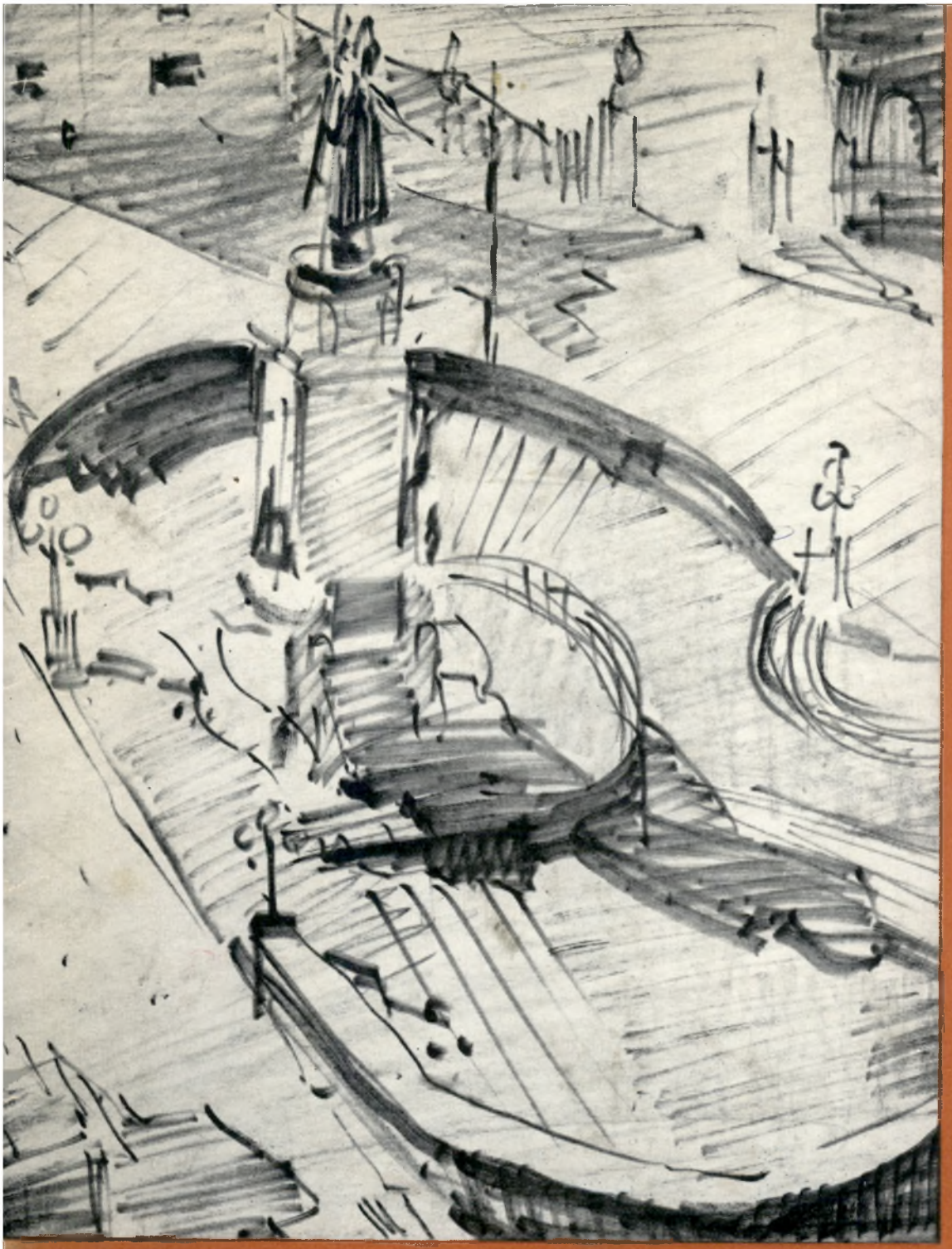

MAY-JUNE 1959

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Habitat


GRINDSTONE, MI

The photo opposite is a typical scene in Les Îles-de-la-Madeleine.
photo by the National Film Board

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The cover is by Phyllis Lee. A statue of Monseigneur de Laval, first Bishop of New France, dominates the scene on Rue des Ramparts, Quebec City.

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The Relationship between

PUBLIC HOUSING

Fifteen or twenty years ago the few persons who banded together in various groups across Canada known as citizens' housing or citizens' housing and planning associations found it relatively easy to formulate their objectives. These were, simply, slum clearance and rehousing of the occupants of the dilapidated dwellings of slum neighbourhoods. It was not difficult to find a clear focus for social action, as the problem was considered to be fairly obvious. Slums were neighbourhoods in which the amenities of light, air, sunshine and open space were seriously lacking or grossly deficient; in which the residential and other structures were relatively old, decayed, or in need of major repair; in which the physical provisions of adequate heating, plumbing and cooking facilities were seriously lacking or grossly deficient; and in which a great many individuals and families were crowded together in quite inadequate and unacceptable physical and social relationships.

For the most part, as well, the slum dweller could be easily identified. No one, it was assumed, would live in a slum dwelling or in a slum neighbourhood through choice. The inhabitants, therefore, must primarily be individuals or families in serious poverty: old persons or couples living on extremely low incomes, families of low-wage earners, families of persons unemployable through chronic illness or accident, families of deserted wives with dependent children, families of incarcerated offenders, and the like. It was admitted that there were, in addition, a few criminals, deviates and isolates, but these were the exception rather than the rule. In short, the slum dweller was "poor" and his poverty dictated his choice of housing accommodation which was restricted to relatively inadequate physical shelter in relatively inadequate neighbourhoods mainly in the core of the urban centres. Although there were inconsistencies in these assumptions, such as the fact known to every social agency, whether under public or voluntary auspices, that many residents of sub-standard accommodation were paying relatively high rents which constituted an unduly high proportion of their incomes, or that some families would not or could not move when more suitable accommodation was found for them, or that some structures in slum neighbourhoods were relatively sound and in good repair, these apparent inconsistencies did not affect the major conviction that poverty was the cause, slums were the result, and slum clearance and rehousing of the residents were the obvious answers.

The first simple surveys in areas being considered for clearance in cities like Toronto and Vancouver did appear to support these arguments. On first examination in 1946 the residents of Regent Park (North) in Toronto provided evidence that they could pay an average rental of about $25 per month, suggesting an average income of about $125 per month. Average weekly wages in industry in Toronto at the time were about $33 per week, more than $142 per month. It was clear that the residents were a disadvantaged group for a variety of reasons, and in view of the condition of the buildings and the neighbourhood, slum clearance and rehousing of eligible families were clear and simple objectives.

A dozen years later it is astonishing to find just how complex the simple pictures of the past have become. It is no longer perfectly clear that most slum dwellers reside in housing accommodation which is quite inadequate on physical and social grounds because they have no other choice. It is no longer clear that most slum dwellers are "poor" or "in poverty". It is no longer clear that the problem of housing the "poor" is relatively simple and without serious social question. It is no longer clear that, given public housing, the responsible authorities will select as tenants many families known to be in poverty and in dire need of adequate housing accommodation.

From 1950 through 1958 a federal-provincial partnership in public housing has enabled the initiation of 71 housing projects in 37 municipalities in seven provinces of Canada. Thirty-seven local housing authorities have been appointed to administer these projects which will, when completed, contain 8,266 dwelling units.

AND PUBLIC WELFARE

By Albert Rose

Slightly less than 58 per cent of these units are intended to be rented on a subsidized basis; the remainder are known as "full recovery" units rented on an economic basis. In a current study under the auspices of the federal and provincial governments, for which the writer is serving as research consultant, it has been learned that only about eight per cent of the subsidized dwelling units under administration late in 1958 were occupied by families or persons in receipt of public assistance allowances made available through federal-provincial or federal-provincial-municipal welfare programmes.

Small wonder, then, that the experience of the past decade has created serious misgivings in the minds of well-meaning citizen volunteers who strove so hard to convince local councils of the need for public housing in their communities, in the minds of serious students of these problems in the social sciences and in social work, and in the minds of federal, provincial and municipal officials responsible for the provision, construction and administration of public housing projects. The frank admission of one member of a housing authority in Ontario at the Sixth Annual Conference of Local Housing Authorities of Ontario in June 1958 that "there are no poor families in our houses" was shocking, not merely as a statement of fact but because few members of the Conference really seemed to be concerned.

What has happened? Why have the local housing authorities in Canada striven for "nice", "clean", model projects in which it seems necessary to exclude the very people for whom public housing accommodation was considered essential some years ago, and for whom public housing accommodation would still be considered absolutely essential by responsible welfare officials throughout the nation? Behind our recent experience lies a very great confusion, on the one hand, and a very neat and unreal separation of responsibility, on the other. The confusion rests on a gross misunderstanding of the answers to such questions as, Who are the poor? and, What are "welfare cases?" and upon serious confusion between such concepts as "poor families", "troubled families" and "troublesome families". The neat and unreal separation is between the responsibilities of the public housing programme, on the one hand, and the public welfare programme, on the other. We have tended to treat these two major programmes as if they were completely unrelated and, figuratively, worlds apart.

POVERTY AND THE POOR IN CANADA

The classic exposition of the causes of poverty in our industrial society was made by Sir William Beveridge in his well-known report of 1942[1]. This classification is well worth reproduction to explain the nature of poverty and its meaning for those responsible for policy decisions in the fields of housing and community planning. Beveridge claimed that there are eight primary causes of need:

Unemployment: that is, inability to obtain employment by a person dependent on it and physically fit for it . . .

Disability: that is, inability of a person of working age, through illness or accident, to pursue a gainful occupation . . .

Loss of Livelihood: that is, by a person not dependent on paid employment . . .

Retirement: that is, from an occupation, paid or unpaid, through age . . .

Marriage Needs of a Woman: this category would include —

(1) Marriage;

(2) Maternity;

(3) Interruption or cessation of a husband's earnings by his unemployment, disability or retirement;

(4) Widowhood;

(5) Separation, that is, end of husband's maintenance by legal separation or established desertion;

(6) Incapacity for household duties.

Funeral Expenses: that is, of self or any person for whom responsible . . .

Childhood: that is, the expense of rearing and educating children; or, from the point of view of the child who is neglected, deserted or a true "orphan" . . .

Physical Disease or Incapacity: that is, of self or of dependents. . .

To this list should be added, at least, *mental retardation*, that is, intelligence sufficiently below the normal that the individual is unable to earn enough to provide a minimum adequate standard of living for himself or his family.

It is clear, then, that the question, Who are the poor? has no simple answer. If we may put the point in another way, the simple answers are generally derived from simple prejudices. For example, the "poor" are still commonly thought to be lazy, shiftless, wasteful

(1) Sir William Beveridge, *Social Insurance and Allied Services*, Macmillan, 1942, p. 124.

persons who are either so devoid of energy that their earnings are nil or sub-standard or highly irregular; or so devoid of intelligence in their spending habits that the product of their labour is largely wasted or does not redound to the benefit of their families. The fact is that there are few such people in our society today, and those who might fit the descriptions are persons with a profound emotional sickness — the alcoholic, the drug addict and the like.

Poverty in Canada today is for the most part limited to persons and the families of persons who have suffered one of the major disadvantages enumerated by Beveridge. For the sake of clarity we might attempt to measure them, but before doing so, we should clarify one major assumption of this paper. Short-run poverty, the state of being "hard up", for the most part does not concern us here. The man who is unemployed in winter and who is likely to be employed again in the coming spring, the man who, that is, will draw unemployment insurance and perhaps a supplement to his insurance paid by the municipality of his residence or a private social welfare agency, is not our major concern. The man who is ill and faces heavy expenses which he will meet at some considerable sacrifice while working for some months or years after convalescence, is not our major concern. (Of course, if either of these persons is already housed in a public housing project, there may need to be serious adjustment in his rental and perhaps consequent loss to the authority.) The question of responsibility for the housing of persons or families who suffer chronic, or long-run poverty, is considered to be the major concern of this paper.

The "poor", then, are those individuals or families who experience serious and long-term poverty from which there is little prospect of escape. Such poverty stems from some disadvantageous situation usually beyond the control of the individual and his family. Without attempting to exhaust the list of possibilities, we suggest that these persons or families would include the following groups:

Unemployables: those in receipt of "direct" or "unemployment relief"; figures are not available for the nation but in Ontario, for 1953-1956 inclusive, 0.43%, 0.45%, 0.50%, and 0.48% of the population were on relief. This amounted in 1956 to 11,106 cases with 14,697 dependents for a total of 25,803 persons assisted.

The Disabled: those in receipt of Disabled Persons' Allowance. As of March 31, 1957, there were 31,835 recipients in Canada.

Widowed or Deserted Mothers with Dependent Children: those in receipt of Mothers' Allowance from the various provincial governments. As of March 31, 1956, there were 40,575 families in receipt of assistance; in these families were some 109,618 children.

Unmarried Mothers with Dependent Children: these persons may or may not be in receipt of financial assistance from public or private funds. Illegitimate live births in Canada are approximately 4% of all births and in 1956 amounted to 17,510 births. In Ontario in 1954-1955, 6,142 new cases of unmarried parents requiring financial or other as-assistance were recorded.

Children in Care of Children's Aid Societies or Institutions: in Ontario at December 31, 1955, 15,376 children were in the care of Children's Aid Societies of whom 10,259 were permanent wards. Total figures for Canada including those in institutions are not available.

Families of Offenders: these are families of persons committed to prisons or reformatories. At March 31, 1955, there were 5,500 persons in federal penitentiaries. Their families are often in receipt of Mothers' Allowance or "relief" in various provinces.

Blind Persons: those in receipt of Blind Persons' Allowances at March 31, 1957, numbered 8,256.

Mentally Defective Persons: those dependent upon public assistance are probably accounted for in large part in previous categories.

Aged Persons: elderly persons are those who reach a period in chronological time where they find themselves unable to obtain gainful employment. This may be at age 45 or 55 or 65, but in Canada, financial support is provided primarily for those 65-69 on a "means test" basis and to those 70 and over through a universal Old Age Security Allowance. At March 31, 1957, the number of persons in receipt of Old Age Assistance in the age group 69-69 was 89,907; the percentage of recipients to total population aged 65-69 was slightly less than 20%.

At the same date, 797,486 Canadians over 70 were in receipt of Old Age Security. They may or may not be substantially dependent upon the Allowance. It might be safely assumed that between 40 and 50% have little additional income.

Two important comments must be made as a consequence of this brief analysis. The "poor", by definition in this paper, may include as few or as many as 900,000 to 1,000,000 persons or families in Canada at this time[2]. These units are all, again by definition, supported almost wholly by public and private social welfare funds. This is what is meant by "welfare cases". Whether this is considered a significantly large segment or a significantly small segment of our total population depends partly on one's judgment and one's expectations in an industrial society.

Secondly, it is clear that this definition does not include the so-called low-income earner, the individual or family whose income is beyond the levels permitting eligibility for "public assistance", but whose income is

(2) This is a rough estimate based on the figures presented above. A great deal of careful work would be required to obtain a relatively exact figure for Canada as a whole, particularly because of the problem of duplication.

not sufficient to enable maintenance of a minimum adequate standard of living including the provision of decent and adequate housing accommodation. The reason for excluding these families from consideration in this discussion is simply that there is in Canada little question of the acceptance of responsibility for the provision of housing for them within the scope of public housing, at either subsidized or full recovery rentals. Once admitted to public housing they may later suffer chronic poverty because they are potentially "the poor".

"POOR", "TROUBLED" AND "TROUBLESOME" FAMILIES

It is difficult to accept the undeniable fact that there is great confusion in the housing field, and among Canadians generally, concerning these three concepts of "poor", "troubled" and "troublesome" families[3]. "Poor" families have already been defined. They may not be "troubled" families beyond their concern with financial inadequacy, in the sense in which "troubled" will shortly be defined. They are probably not "troublesome" in any sense in which that term will be defined.

Nevertheless, it is clear that the terms "poor", "troubled" and "troublesome" (or similar terms with similar meanings) are used interchangeably and quite inaccurately by people who should know a great deal better. The significance of this confusion rests simply in the fact that many of those who make the policy decisions in the fields of housing and community planning have not accepted responsibility for providing housing for the families they term "poor" or "welfare cases". They do not accept such responsibility because they do not know or understand who "the poor" are in a modern industrial society and because they confuse the three concepts. There is absolutely no doubt that many Canadians still consciously or unconsciously ascribe a stigma to the state of being "poor". The sooner they mature in their attitude the sooner we shall derive the social and economic benefits which can accrue through a realistic appraisal of the housing problems of those in poverty.

In a study of "Problem Families in Public Housing" completed by the Housing Authority of Baltimore in 1956, the assumption of responsibility was clearly put forward:

> Difficult, troubled, and troublesome families are a part of every community and consequently must be expected to make up part of the public housing population. The problem cannot be eliminated by refusing to accept such families – it can only be shifted to other areas of the community, where there would be even less regard and concern for their welfare. The Baltimore housing authority recognized that it had an obligation to house a cross-section of low-income families in the community – not just well-behaved "model" families who would give the management staff little "trouble".

The term "troubled" families refers, obviously, to families who experience one or more disabling social problems. Such problems usually refer to the interpersonal relationships within the family – marital relationships, parent-child relationships, the degree of emotional adjustment or lack of adjustment within individuals in a family group – or to the relationships between individuals and families in a neighbourhood or community. All of us, surely, in our lives and within our families, experience one or more of these problems or difficulties at one time or another. As married persons we must all adjust to the role of father or mother, and in these roles we must make adjustments as our children move through infancy, pre-school years, pre-adolescence and adolescence while we move into middle age and beyond. Most of us, fortunately, as members of a family group, are able to make these adjustments with a reasonable or normal degree of difficulty, pain and pleasure.

The "troubled" family, by definition, is one in which the interpersonal relationships are not resolved, in which the adjustments are so imperfect that the pain greatly exceeds the pleasure, in short a family in which the needs of the members are not being met within the family group and the deficiencies are in very substantial measure. As well, even though these needs may be met at some minimum level of satisfaction, the family cannot

(3) The phrase "troubled" and "troublesome" families appeared in 1956 in a study undertaken by the Housing Authority of Baltimore. The title "Troubled and Troublesome Families" became the theme of the special issue of the *Journal of Housing* for April 1957. The use of the terminology is hereby acknowledged.

adjust to its neighbouring or adjacent family groups. Most often, though not necessarily, major inadequacies are present both within and without the individual family, or, if you will, within the dwelling unit and in the neighbourhood or community. These are the so-called "social problem" or "multiple-problem" families. The connection with poverty rests, of course, in the fact that many of these families are also "poor", either in the sense in which the term has been here defined, or in the sense of low-income family.

The "troubled" family, however, may or may not be a "troublesome" family. What do we mean by "troublesome"? Troublesome to whom? Presumably a "troublesome" family is one in which the intra-family relationships are so badly maladjusted that the family begins to trouble other families with which it is in close contact. There are, in our communities, some unfriendly neighbours who do not converse freely or visit with their neighbours. They may not know or even care to learn the names of their close neighbours. These people are not necessarily "troublesome" but may constitute some of the few remaining non-conformists of our urban and suburban society. We are not concerned here with their situation.

The "troublesome" family, on the other hand, is one in which deterioration in relationships becomes so severe that the family cannot live together as a unit without conflict, severe pain and consequent disorganization. They may become troublesome to their neighbours, to their neighbourhood, to their wider community or society. Individual members may engage in anti-social activities, crime, delinquency, prostitution, bootlegging, quarreling, violence and the like. Obviously, such persons and their families would be considered "troublesome" by the administrators of a public housing project. Once again, however, such families may or may not be "poor".

THE DILEMMAS FOR HOUSING POLICY AND ADMINISTRATION

The dilemmas of those responsible for policy in housing and community development become severe. The major questions might be expressed – on the assumption that responsibility for housing "the poor" as here defined is accepted – as the following:

(1) How can a balance be achieved within the public housing project, as between families of diverse social and economic position? This raises these major sub-questions:
   (a) What is an appropriate proportion of tenants who are in poverty, that is, in receipt of public assistance, "welfare cases" if you will?
   (b) What is an appropriate distribution of tenants in various categories of social class and economic grouping?

(2) What are the responsibilities of public housing authorities in assisting the social adjustment of those tenant families who are so "troubled" that they require the assistance of social agencies outside the family and its friends? More particularly:
   (a) What are the responsibilities of housing authorities in facilitating the adjustment of tenant families, without reference to their social and economic status, to their new environment?
   (b) What techniques can be employed in housing administration in helping tenant families to make a satisfactory adjustment in the housing project? Is the tenants' handbook the best we can do?

(3) What policies might or should the public housing authority adopt with respect to the few families who prove to be "troublesome" following admission to a public housing project? Do our talents extend beyond "eviction"?

These questions have been raised here and posed simply because they are among the most important unanswered social questions in Canadian public housing today. It is quite clear that we do not want public housing projects, or even substantial groupings within such projects, which are little ghettos of "the poor". It is equally clear that we do not want these concentrations, not because there is any stigma to be attached to a family in poverty, but because we believe that it is unhealthy, abnormal if you will, to raise children, to create a satisfactory family life, to create satisfactory new communities in which tenant families will have real pride, if the great majority of such families are families who have experienced such serious misfortune and deprivation that they are in chronic poverty.

Everyone will recall friends in his childhood who were "poor", whose homes were not so nice as one's own home, whose lack of material possessions was obvious, whose parents were in ill-health, or quarreled, or drank to excess, or seemed otherwise less desirable than

one's own parents. Many of us also recall the depression years when several families on every street, in every neighbourhood, were in receipt of "relief". The great majority of one's friends, one's neighbours, were not, however, obviously in poverty, or unemployed, or unemployable, or without both parents, or ill, or alcoholic, or in prison, or aged. Providentially, only a modest proportion of our neighbours seemed to suffer unusually severe disadvantage or distress, even in the midst of depression. This fact continues to be true in our society except in special local situations. For this reason, alone, our public housing communities should reflect, roughly perhaps, the general distribution of independence and dependence in our society.

Assumption of responsibility for housing those in chronic poverty should be a most important function of housing agencies in the federal and provincial governments. If this is not so, then only one of two conclusions is sensible: either the housing agencies should go out of business and leave the field entirely to private enterprise; or the various governments should recognize that they have, consciously or unconsciously, deceived a good many people in this country and should take steps to correct our conceptions or their own housing policies.

It seems clear as well that public housing authorities in Canada have far more responsibility than they are now assuming for the successful adjustment of their tenants in their new and essentially different environment. Local housing authorities simply do not understand the magnitude of a shift from more or less total inadequacy to more or less total adequacy. This shift is for many families a profound miracle. Admittedly, such families should not be hounded or watched every hour of the day; nor do they require clinical examinations or social casework service in order to function reasonably well in a new environment. Yet they do require warm, friendly advice with respect to household operation, home economics, budgeting, nutrition and preliminary counselling and referral to community social services when they seek advice on certain social problems which they seem unable to solve without help. In a recent address to the Annual Conference of Local Housing Authorities of Ontario the writer said:

> How far should an authority go in helping certain families to make a satisfactory adjustment in the public housing project? Obviously if the authority simply admits families with a grudging acceptance and leaves them entirely on their own to fail in their new environment and then evicts them, both the tenants and the authority have failed. Authorities which fulfill their responsibility towards the community of providing an opportunity for decent living for some families least likely to be able to provide for themselves, must also do what they can to assist such families to make a success of their new opportunity. I am not recommending "molly-coddling" or "hand-holding". Perhaps the answer is close supervision; perhaps the answer is a professional staff person – home economist, public health nurse, or social worker – to work with such families, teach them to keep house adequately, to use new and strange facilities and the like; perhaps the answer is a system of friendly visiting by volunteers of the practical homemaker or home aide type. Whatever the answer, each authority which admits some of the least able or most disadvantaged families – whichever is a preferable description – must make some attempt to help in their adjustment.

In her magnificent address to the 1956 annual conference of NAHRO, entitled "Human Gains and Losses in Housing and Urban Renewal", Elizabeth Wood considered the more serious question of the responsibility of a housing authority for families who are indeed "troubled" and "troublesome":

> However, because I am a houser, I raised the question: "Why should a housing authority try to do something for the families the social work agencies have failed with, especially when their presence jeopardizes the good housing program? It would be easier to refuse to admit them; evict them, if they get in by mistake; let them go back under the carpet to the dark anonymity of the slums."
>
> But I could not help feeling that a slum clearance program that brings these families out from this anonymity into the open as "relocation problems" has a responsibility to them. But the question was not to be answered by a series of oughts: it took a deeper answer.

EXPERIENCE AND EXPERIMENTATION IN METROPOLITAN TORONTO

To date when slum clearance has been achieved, as in downtown Toronto, the housing authority has been committed to a policy of rehousing families declared to be "eligible" or families who by virtue of residence in the area on the date of expropriation have a "priority" status. This has meant that a number of families in receipt of public assistance have been admitted both to Regent Park (North) and to Regent Park (South).

The experience in the former project has been described by the writer in *Regent Park: A Study in Slum Clearance*[4].

Regent Park (South), by contrast with the earlier scheme, is a federal-provincial project administered by the Metropolitan Toronto Housing Authority. Demolition of the old structures and construction of the new units have been achieved within a space of two and one-half years. The project was fully occupied on April 1, 1959. A competent tenant selection staff was developed, and with the use of a point-scoring system termed an "Investigation Report" several thousand applicants have been interviewed in their current housing accommodation. The families chosen for admission to the available units in the housing project, after accommodation of the "eligibles", were those who scored the highest number of points within the income limits set for the project.

It soon became apparent to the authority that it would be entirely possible, in a metropolis like Toronto, to fill the entire housing project with families dependent upon public assistance allowances as their major source of income. In an effort to achieve a more balanced community the authority adopted as its policy for Regent Park (South) the following regulations:

(1) The proportion of families in receipt of general welfare assistance, formerly known as "relief" or "unemployment relief", shall be limited to 10 per cent of the tenants; and

(2) The proportion of families in receipt of all other forms of public assistance such as Mothers' Allowances, Disabled Persons' Allowances, Old Age Assistance and the like, shall be limited to 10 per cent of the tenants.

As soon as these proportions were reached in the tenant population no further admissions of families in receipt of public assistance were made. In a project of 732 units this has meant the admission of no more than 146 families in these two categories. It should be emphasized that this number is more than half of all such families admitted to subsidized federal-provincial public housing accommodation throughout Canada at this time. In practice, however, the total number of "welfare cases" in Regent Park (South) will vary on a seasonal pattern. During the current winter months a number of heads of families who were employed when admitted have become unemployed and have been assisted by the public welfare authorities over and above their unemployment insurance benefits. If these families be included in the calculation, the proportion in the project has at times exceeded 20 per cent of the tenants.

The authority had no accepted standards to go by when making the judgments described above. It was aware of the view of some American housing administrators that they have encountered serious difficulties when the proportion of public assistance recipients exceeded 25 per cent of the tenants, but recognized that this experience is influenced by racial tensions as well. It was aware of the experience in Regent Park (North) and elsewhere in Canada. It was aware of the view of some persons in the housing field in Canada that the housing of "welfare cases" is the responsibility of the public welfare authorities. It made its own policy decisions on an experimental basis and will watch the consequent experience carefully over the next few years.

An interesting fact to be noted in passing is that from the time the first tenants were admitted to Regent Park (South) in September 1957 to April 1, 1959, only seven families have been evicted from the project. In every case the reason for this action by the authorities was the behaviour of these families in their relationships with other families. Three of these seven families were admitted to the project while in receipt of public assistance; four were self-supporting families.

For some time the writer has considered an assumption that there are probably few real differences between the social and economic histories of families in receipt of general welfare assistance and self-supporting families of low income, beyond the probability that chronic illness or disablement has forced many of the former group into dependency on public funds for support. In the fall of 1958 the Metropolitan Toronto Housing Authority approved a proposal that a group of graduate students in the School of Social Work at the University of Toronto undertake some exploratory research under my direction. During the month of May 1959, eight students interviewed every family in Regent Park (South) admitted to the project while in receipt of general welfare assistance as well as families who have, since admission, required welfare assistance, and a carefully matched group of self-supporting families drawn from income groups above the maximum public assistance allowance of $180 per month. The matching group was made up of families of similar size, age of head of household and other characteristics in the income groupings $200 to $249 and $250 to $299 per month. The major question for research has been defined as: What significant differences are there in the social and economic histories of a group of families admitted to public housing in Regent Park (South) while in receipt of public assistance as compared with a group of families admitted while self-supporting but of relatively low income? We are prepared to find that there are significant differences, thus disproving the writer's

(4) Albert Rose, *Regent Park: A Study in Slum Clearance,* University of Toronto Press, 1958, Chapter 8, especially pp. 112-118.

hypothesis. Of most importance, by developing the income and social histories of both dependent and self-supporting families, we expect to enhance our understanding and that of the members of the authority with respect to the questions involved in housing "poor" families. When the study is completed we should have a clearer picture of the so-called "welfare case".

CONCLUSION

Canadians generally, particularly those responsible for the fundamental decisions in housing and community planning, have demonstrated so far little understanding of the nature and behaviour of so-called "poor", "troubled" and "troublesome" families. In the simple confusion involved in the substitution of these terms one for the other, responsibility for housing those in chronic poverty has been denied. Such responsibility is said to be that of "welfare" departments of governments in this country. This is not merely ridiculous, since such departments have little or no knowledge of the problems involved in providing housing, but it suggests that what we require are concentrations of the poor in "welfare housing". This denial of responsibility is probably the prime reason why public housing in Canada to date has failed to meet the need for which it is intended.

If society has responsibility for providing adequate shelter, what level or levels of government, and what department or departments of government should assume responsibility for such provision? In Canada the fact that public housing has been a federal-provincial responsibility while the provision of financial support to needy families has been a provincial-municipal or a volunteer citizen responsibility, has led to the view that there is a clear separation of responsibility between housing self-supporting families and housing families dependent upon public funds. In the last two years, however, the Federal Government has begun to participate in the financing of the former provincial-municipal public assistance programmes. At the present time in Ontario the Federal Government supplies 50 per cent of the funds for general welfare assistance, the provincial government supplies 30 per cent, and the local government supplies 20 per cent. The pattern differs from province to province, but the federal share is constant. It is no longer realistic to assume that there is a clear distinction between the housing programme and the public welfare programme. When this new reality is faced, it will be encumbent upon those responsible for housing and those responsible for public welfare in this country to work out a definite and satisfactory set of relationships designed to house any Canadian who is unable to provide adequate shelter for his family by virtue of inadequate financial resources.

Dr. Rose of the School of Social Work, University of Toronto, is a graduate of the University and received a Ph.D. from the University of Illinois. Professor Rose has been a member of the Metropolitan Toronto Housing Authority since 1955. Among his published works is Regent Park: A Study in Slum Clearance.

A VISIT FROM CHARLES DICKENS

The lake steamer from Niagara Falls docked in Toronto harbour in 1842 with a most distinguished passenger aboard. Charles Dickens, the famous author, came ashore, to the great delight of the town gentry who called at the "American House" to pay their respects. One local editor, however, came out strongly against the modern novel, and expressed satisfaction that at least no public celebration was being held.

Dickens in his "American Notes" gives a picture of Toronto at that time: "The country around the town itself is full of life and motion, bustle, business, and improvement. The streets are well paved and lighted with gas; the houses are large and good; the shops excellent. Many of them have a display of goods in their windows such as may be seen in the thriving country towns in England, and there are some which would do no discredit to the metropolis itself". Writing to a personal friend, he adds, "We have been in Toronto, experiencing attentions which I should have difficulty in describing", thus casting a favourable light on the efforts of the townsfolk to entertain their guest. Dickens himself appeared on the stage of the Theatre Royal, on King Street, reading from his own works, and undoubtedly reducing the Victorian audience to tremors and tears.

Montreal again brought theatricals, with Dickens taking part in several plays at the Queens Theatre, and appearing much pleased that the Governor-General, did not recognize the "guest star" in a character role. These glimpses show Dickens genially playing the tourist, monologist and actor, between the inevitable round of official banquets and speeches.

Celebrities are a commonplace today, but a century ago the community was indeed honoured by such an event, and the efforts to measure up to the moment now make amusing and informative reading. *Eric Minton*

The Gardiner Expressway, Metropolitan Toronto. *Photo—The Photographic Survey Corporation Limited, Toronto, Canada*

THE SUBURBAN EXPLOSION

By Frederick G. Gardiner, Q.C.

The recent explosive industrial, commercial and residential expansion that has taken place in all large cities in North America has been variously described as the metropolitanization of our cities, the fractionalization of our urban areas, the suburban explosion, the advent of the megalopolis and in a half dozen other ways, depending upon whether the speaker was looking at the scene through a kaleidoscope or in the welter of confusion he could see nothing but a phantasmagoria.

This phenomenal twentieth-century miracle became clearly evident in 1945 just after the last war. The hundreds of thousands of people who had gravitated to the cities to swell our production lines as Canada and the United States became the arsenal of democracy did not return from whence they came. Sixty per cent of the population of America became urban dwellers as residential suburbs mushroomed around every large city. Wherever it occurred the symptoms were the same — the need for water supply and sewage disposal facilities; expressways and parkways to handle the ever-increasing number of motor vehicles; new schools to accommodate the new generation of war babies; and countless other collateral services to serve our booming cities and burgeoning population.

Whenever such a crisis occurs in our democratic countries there follows a rash of meetings, conferences, panels and symposia to study the situation and to recommend that immediate action be taken to solve the problem. The thousands of commissions, citizens' committees and public service organizations that have digested and predigested the problems have distilled their conferring, consulting and expounding into countless recommendations. They have created a volume of literature on the subject more extensive than the Encyclopaedia Britannica. The solutions range from annexation and amalgamation to the creation of single or multi-purpose authorities. What to adopt and how to proceed is like attempting to find one's way out of a labyrinth.

To date there are two metropolitan governments on the North American continent. One is the Miami-Dade County plan involving the City of Miami and the other twenty-six municipalities in Dade County; and the other is Metropolitan Toronto composed of the City of Toronto with a population of 700,000 and its twelve suburbs with a population of 800,000 to form a metropolitan city of 1½ million[1].

To those who are considering a form of metropolitan government and are frustrated because they have not been able to accomplish their goal in a relatively short time, let it be said that the Miami-Dade County plan was under discussion for about fifteen years before it became crystallized and that Metropolitan Toronto was under consideration for thirty years before it became a reality.

In 1923 the late Honourable George S. Henry, who represented the riding of East York and who was Minister of Municipal Affairs in the Province of Ontario, introduced a bill into the Legislature providing for the establishment of a metropolitan form of government for Toronto and its suburbs. Mr. Henry saw a cloud on

Editor's Note.
(1) Since this article was written the Montreal Metropolitan Corporation has been established.

the horizon as big as a man's hand which signalled hurricane conditions before too long. He was the first in this area to realize that a community of adjacent municipalities is actually one geographic, economic and social unit and that despite their artificial boundaries they must be dealt with as such. Mr. Henry's bill was drawn by Hollis E. Beckett who is now M.L.A. for York East. It forecast conditions too far in the future to concern his contemporaries. The bill withered and died on the vine but not before a Committee of the Legislature was set up to consider and report upon the matter. The guiding spirit in that Committee was Mr. A. J. B. Gray, who later became the Deputy Minister of Municipal Affairs, the Assessment Commissioner of the City of Toronto and is now the Assessment Commissioner of the Municipality of Metropolitan Toronto.

From 1923 to 1929 consideration of the matter was impeded by the fact that during those years everybody was too busily engaged in the bonanza of making fortunes on the stock market on 10% margin to be interested in such commonplace things as municipal government.

By 1929 before the Committee could crystallize its activities the depression descended upon us like the ice age and from 1930 to 1939 everyone was engaged in endeavouring to bail most of our municipalities out of bankruptcy with no time to engage in deliberations concerning the proper form of municipal administration for a metropolitan area. In 1939 the roof fell in again as the second great war overtook us and until 1945 we were engaged in a battle for survival with no time for such mundane matters as governmental institutions.

However when the war ended the greatest industrial, commercial and residential expansion in all history broke loose. No longer was the question of municipal government academic as the new mathematical principle of multiplication by subdivision was enacted every day. The fields in suburbia soon disappeared under acres of bungalows and split level ranch houses and the streams disappeared into miles of concrete pipes. Pretty soon there was plenty of water in the cellar and none in the tap. Sump pumps became standard equipment like the NHA mortgage. Thousands of motor vehicles bumped and bounced each other around every day as they struggled to get in and out of the city. The schools burst at the seams as the children increased in a geometric instead of an arithmetic progression, and portables dotted the landscape.

The Ratepayers' Association, the Home and School Club and the Citizens' League all joined in the pandemonium. Sir Galahad on a white horse was the one who promised water, sewage disposal facilities, roads and schools. He became the Reeve or the Mayor. But something more than promises was necessary. The rapidly expanding residential suburb with a bad tax base of unproductive residential assessment and glaringly insufficient industrial assessment could not sell its bonds. Once again the spectre of municipal bankruptcy haunted the municipalities which became the recipients of tens of thousands of newcomers who demanded the same standard of municipal services as they had previously enjoyed in the old and more settled municipalities which they had deserted to enjoy the gracious living they had read about in magazines. All of them struck off for Cherry Hill Gardens like the Klondike gold rush but many finally wound up in Weedville Heights where the horticulture involved burdock bushes and crab grass instead of petunias and geraniums.

After wrestling with the problem for five years the Toronto and York Planning Board recommended the progressive amalgamation of the city and its twelve suburbs. While the suburbs were desperate for money which they could not raise they still defended their sovereign rights and their local autonomy with vehemence. The supporters of amalgamation were nefarious Machiavelians and potential dictators.

Out of this melange of oratory it was evident that common sense had to prevail. The genius of Lorne Cumming, the Chairman of the Ontario Municipal Board, recommended a metropolitan form of government where the services required by the whole area became the responsibility of Metropolitan Toronto and the services more local in nature remained the responsibility of the thirteen local municipalities. Premier Frost, realizing the merit of the recommendation and that Metropolitan Toronto represented one-quarter of the population of Ontario and the most lucrative market in the Province, with his usual courage, guided the recommendation into The Municipality of Metropolitan Toronto Act, 1953, commonly known as Bill 80.

So Metro was born. It is better that I should let someone else, more objective than I, assess its accomplishments. The text of this sermon is, if you want to provide a metropolitan government for a community of municipalities you must become a large shareholder in a company known as Patience and Perseverance Unlimited but in the long run you will receive very satisfactory dividends on your investment.

Frederick G. Gardiner, Q.C., has been Chairman of the Council of Metropolitan Toronto since its establishment in 1953. Mr. Gardiner is a graduate of the University of Toronto and Osgoode Hall and has been active in civic and community organizations for a number of years.

Photo—Karsh

CAMERA ON CANADA

HABITAT inadvertently caused embarrassment to the citizens of Regina and the Province of Saskatchewan with a photograph of Regina published in the March-April issue. We apologize. Any camera, including our own, can find many fine things in Regina. Here are a few.

The Natural History Museum (immediate right) and the aerial photograph are Saskatchewan Government photographs.

The photograph at top right is by the Canadian Pacific Railway.

David Butler, CMHC staff photographer, took the picture at top left.

The photographs at the bottom of the page were taken by Don Meyers of Excilo Photos, Regina.

URBAN REDEVELOPMENT IN THE NETHERLANDS

By Stanley Pickett

"God created the world, with the exception of Holland, which was created by the Dutchmen themselves". This quotation from an anonymous French wit gives the essential clue to an understanding of the processes of urbanization in The Netherlands. The pressure on available land is so great that an exceptional degree of co-ordination between national and local planning and between new development and urban renewal has been accepted by the Dutch people.

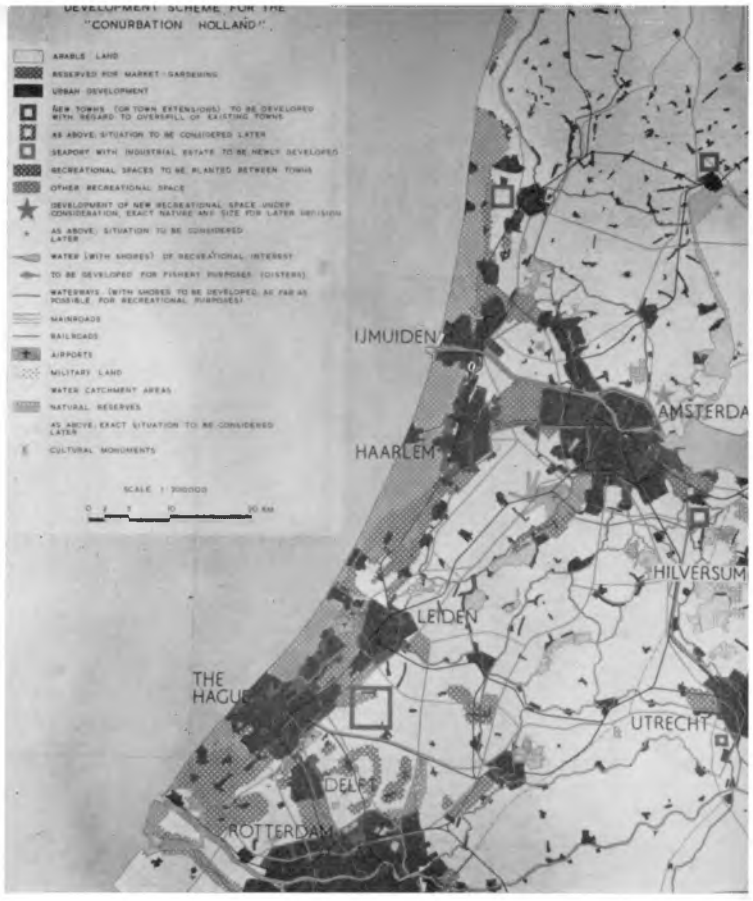
The population of Holland almost doubled during the first half of the twentieth century. More than eleven million people now live at a density of 840 to the square mile, which makes Holland the most intensely populated country in Western Europe. The only countries which remotely approach this density are Belgium with 745 people to the square mile and Great Britain with 540. Cities and towns with a population of more than 5,000 accommodate more than 85% of the people. It is not surprising to read that between 1900 and 1950 over 400,000 acres were urbanized and that there is a continuing loss of land to building development which averages 7,500 acres annually.

THE STRUGGLE FOR LAND

Land in Holland is both scarce and vulnerable. Scarce because virtually all waste land has been reclaimed or is used for such purposes as recreation or water catchment and there is a limit to the acreage which even the industrious Dutch can wrest from the sea.

Land is reclaimed by the construction of great dykes across shallow waters, such as the Zuiderzee, then pumping out the salt water behind the dykes to create low lying land which, properly drained by a canal system, becomes the productive agricultural polders. It has been estimated that in this century about 575,000 acres will be reclaimed. The land area of Holland is just under 13,000 square miles. If the sea and river dykes were destroyed well over 6,500 square miles would be inundated. The disaster of 1953 when 620 square miles were flooded, and the depredations of the German invaders illustrate the vulnerability of the dyke system to the assaults of nature and man. Land so hard won is precious and wasteful land uses are strongly resisted.

In this highly urbanized country, there is a marked concentration of population in the polder area of west Holland. This concentration is known alternatively as the Annular City or as Conurbation Holland. Imagine a saucer 50 miles in diameter, in the centre the low lying



polder and a series of small agricultural villages. Around three-quarters of the rim lie the great cities, Rotterdam, Delft, The Hague, Leiden, Haarlem, Amsterdam, Hilversum, Amersfoort and Utrecht. In this conurbation live over four million people. Industry is developing rapidly. The pressure on vital agricultural land is strong and continuous. It is not surprising, therefore, that Conurbation Holland has been made the subject of special research by the national government.

The unrelenting struggle for land is clearly reflected in the Dutch landscape. The traveller by road in Holland enjoys the rare contemporary experience of seeing a city from a moderate distance and being able to appreciate its unity and form. The road from Amsterdam to The Hague for example passes about three miles to the north-west of the university City of Leiden, a city of nearly 100,000 population. Beyond the church towers and academic spires the residential areas can be seen and understood as a whole. There is no sprawl, no ultra-low density. Just a city set amid the broad polders. Another good example of this decisive separation of town and country is Delft, only four or five miles from The Hague, but with no unsightly ribbon development linking the two. The unity of Delft is as inviolate today as it was when Jan Vermeer set up his easel on that blustery day in 1658 and created one of the great treasures of mankind — the View of Delft.

We see then, in Holland, a precarious balance between precious land, vital for the food production of a burgeoning population on the one hand, and the pressure

of vigorous, developing cities on the other. There is virtually no waste land, the creation of land by reclamation is a slow and complex process, the solution to the problems of urbanization cannot possibly be found in expedients, but only in strong planning and renewal policies. The acceptance and enforcement of these policies makes difficult consideration of the Dutch program in strict North American terms. It seems to me noteworthy that in Holland, renewal is given its appropriate place as part of a program of sound planned development and is not pushed off into a limited role or into a separate administration cut off from new development and from post-war reconstruction. The examples which follow may serve to illustrate this integrated concept of renewal and urbanism.

AMSTERDAM

The capital of The Netherlands draws its beauty and rare distinction from the interplay of water, trees, cobbled streets and fine building. Within the line of the old fortifications the inner city maintains its eighteenth century character. On each side of seven concentric ring canals run narrow tree-lined streets. Fronting the streets, the four and five storey houses of the Dutch merchants stand shoulder to shoulder. Above the roof level of these houses, the church towers rise unchallenged by other tall buildings. The individual buildings in this old city of Amsterdam are seldom great architecture. It is their collective effect which is so memorable. The same difference in quality between the whole and the parts may be seen in Canada within the walls of Quebec City. The inner city of Amsterdam reached its peak of population in 1900 when it had 255,000 inhabitants. Since then there has been a steady decline due to changes in land use and the demand for more space and facilities in the family home, to the present figure of 140,000. This decline in population has been accompanied by an increase in floor space for commercial and industrial purposes, and by the conversion of houses for unsightly or inappropriate uses. As business has grown in the central city, traffic con-

View of Delft *by Jan Vermeer. Copyright Maurithuis, The Hague.*

Photo by A. Dingjan

Photo K.L.M. Aerocarto Amsterdam

The Heart of Amsteram. Churches are the only dominating feature of the skyline. If character is to be maintained there can be no room for high buildings with large car parking areas.

gestion has multiplied in an area quite unfitted for modern traffic. In considering renewal of the city, Amsterdam faced a dilemma, whether to accommodate business, traffic and parking at the expense of the human scale and character which *is* Amsterdam, or to maintain the character to the detriment of business. The policy adopted is a practical compromise. Changes of use and new building within the inner city are being controlled in order to prevent the generation of excessive traffic. High buildings are not approved nor are traffic magnets such as large hotels and department stores. In consequence of this policy the new Hilton Hotel is to be built outside the city centre. The main railway station is at the core of the inner city and efforts are being made to encourage increasing use of another station outside the congested centre. Traffic is not to be excluded from the inner city. Improvements are being made to radial routes running at right angles across the canal system and provision is being made for adequate parking by more efficient use of the available land, the limitation of parking time and peripheral parking garages.

If at the centre of Amsterdam the Dutch are determined to maintain character, in the new suburban areas they are equally determined to save land. To accommodate the rapidly growing population, now about 900,000 people, new residential areas are being built to the west of the city. Four such areas, known as garden towns, will together accommodate 32,000 homes. Before the war the western suburbs were developed almost entirely with three and four-storey apartments at a net density ranging from 42 to 67 dwellings to the acre. The garden towns, arranged around a green heart, are to have a net density of 26 dwellings to the acre. The problem of development in Holland is well illustrated by the story of the garden towns. First of all it has been necessary to dig a lake, the Sloterplas, 220 acres in area and 115 feet deep. The 159 million cubic feet of topsoil removed by dredging have been used to create the sites for recreational areas around the lake and 265 million cubic feet of sand became available for raising the level of the building sites. It has been found that this method of development effects great saving in cost over bringing in sand from elsewhere. Once the land has been raised sufficiently to drain properly utilities are installed and then the construction of buildings begins. All the land remains the property of the municipality and is leased to builders. The garden towns, grouped around the recreational areas and the lake, present a good environment for living from the beginning as the recreational areas and the dwellings are constructed simultaneously. This tightly controlled medium density development within its clearly defined area, with logical relationships to internal facilities and to the city as a whole, is in sharp contrast to the triumphant sprawl by which 'development' disfigures the North American scene.

ROTTERDAM

Situated at the mouth of the River Rhine and in an unrivalled position for distribution to the whole of Western Europe, Rotterdam has become the largest port in Europe and the second largest in the world. In 1940, the heart of Rotterdam, an area of 650 acres, was completely destroyed by German bombers. It was immediately decided that when reconstruction was possible, it should follow a new plan and that no attempt should be made to reproduce previous conditions. In post-war reconstruction elsewhere it has proved difficult to change the existing street pattern and it is perhaps worth noticing that the reason why Rotterdam has been able to rebuild without the limitations imposed by an existing street plan is that, like Amsterdam, the city lies below sea level and all building, including streets, bridges and docks, is dependent upon pile foundations. The old street foundations had been destroyed or displaced by bombing and were quite unsuitable for re-use. A reconstruction plan was formulated during the war and was adopted in 1946. The plan lays down guiding principles for redevelopment including the street pattern and predominant land uses. It does not, however, define architectural requirements or the exact use of individual buildings. One of the criteria upon which the plan is based was the need to create a centre for an expanding urban area which now houses about 750,000 people. This has meant the provision of more governmental, cultural and business uses in the central area than existed before the war. Another criteria was the need for traffic routes which would facilitate movement to and around the centre as well as within the reconstructed area itself. To satisfy these two criteria a sharp reduction was required in the number of dwellings in the central area as well as a reduction in the proportion of the area built over. By the use of higher buildings, it has however been found possible to maintain approximately the same amount of floor space as before destruction. Another principle which has been followed in the redevelopment is the concentration of land uses. For example, instead of wholesale warehouses scattered throughout the area, one wholesale traders' building — the Groothandelgebouw — has been built adjacent to the new railway station. This building has internal service roads on three levels and provides 230 wholesalers with showrooms, offices and store rooms. These merchants have joint use of freight elevators and a central goods despatch system. Another example of concentration is the construction of two flatted-factory buildings in which work space is leased to small industrial concerns. Rotterdam is the major trans-shipment point for the Rhine waterways and the huge self-propelling barges are perhaps the most common feature of movement in the harbour. The redevelopment plan has provided a centralized dock system for the exclusive use of inland water transport. Perhaps the best known of the concentrations in the new Rotterdam is the great pedestrian shopping centre, the Lijnbaan, built through the co-operative effort of 66 retailers. The Lijnbaan consists of two pedestrian-ways, one 40 feet wide and the other 60 feet wide with a total length of well over half a mile. The whole development has been given architectural unity with modifications for the individual stores. The success of the Lijnbaan is due to the skill which has been used to make the centre attractive to shoppers. There are open-air cafes, flowers and grass, trees, benches, sculpture, flags flying gaily above the canopies of the stores. At night the Lijnbaan is a blaze of light and being in the heart of the city is in constant use as a pedestrian-way even after the stores are closed. At one end, the mall widens out into a square facing the old City Hall and there stands the memorial to the heroic citizens of Rotterdam. The City Hall is one of the few buildings that was not destroyed in 1940. Of those which were destroyed only one, the mediaeval Church of St. Lawrence, is being reconstructed. The increased commercial use of the city centre has involved the displacement of 15,000 families which have been accommodated in the new suburban areas to which most of the population growth also goes. These areas are developed by methods similar to those described in Amsterdam.

Interest in renewal is not limited to the great cities of Conurbation Holland. A few miles down the river from Rotterdam stands the City of Vlaardingen with a population of about 60,000. As industry moves down the

The new Heart of Rotterdam. The Lijnbaan pedestrian shopping centre runs between the department store in the centre of the photograph and the apartments at the top.

Photo Arte Photo Modern — Rotterdam

river toward the sea smaller communities are becoming interested in urban renewal. New opportunities are presented by industrial expansion and by the opening of a vast oil refinery on the opposite bank of the river. The centre of Vlaardingen was a typical main street. Now the old stores and apartments over them have been rebuilt.

THE HAGUE

The Hague, the seat of both the national and provincial governments, also contains within its limits the prosperous seaside resort and fishing port of Scheveningen. One of the earliest examples of urban renewal in Holland was the reconstruction of the fishermen's area of Scheveningen between 1919 and 1939. The Hague suffered during the war, partly from allied air action and partly from the clearance of a wide band of residential property parallel to the sea coast, through which the German army constructed part of the "Atlantic Wall". Since the war, 26,000 dwellings have been built in the city, over 6,000 of them in the Atlantic Wall belt. It may be interesting for Canadians to realize that, of this large housing program, only 36% has been built by private enterprise, the remainder being the work of either the municipality or housing associations, both of which obtain financial assistance under the Dutch Housing Act. The Hague is built on sand dunes and over the greater part of the city the costly pile foundations needed in Rotterdam and Amsterdam are not necessary; even so The Hague is constricted from lack of expansion space. There is room for only 20,000 more people within the municipality and it has not proved politically possible to expand the urban area into the valuable market gardening and polder lands which circumscribe the city. As the population of the metropolitan area, now 720,000, is expected to rise to almost a million by 1985, expansion space is clearly critical. To prepare for the crisis which cannot be too far ahead, the city is considering the development of a new satellite town in co-operation with adjoining municipalities.

The heart of The Hague contains the governmental and diplomatic buildings, many of which are of historic interest. Outside the core there is little evidence of any town planning activity during the rapid expansion of the last century. The centre presents three basic problems. Preservation of the character of the core, the serious slum conditions immediately around the core and the universal problem of steadily increasing traffic. The renewal plan calls for two ring roads. The inner ring will run around a 375 acre centre in which no increase in density is to be permitted. The second ring will enclose an area of about 1,200 acres. The outer ring will take the faster moving circumferential traffic. There will be thirteen parking garages on the inner ring road, which will be only five minutes' walk from any part of the core. Substantial redevelopment areas are planned for somewhat reduced residential densities between the two ring roads. Renewal action outside the ring roads is generally restricted to rehabilitation and several interesting examples of the rehabilitation of row housing facing narrow pedestrian courts at right angles to the streets can already be seen. The density of building since the war in The Hague reflects the trend to a more balanced range of accommodation as has been noted in Amsterdam.

SUMMARY

It is apparent that the problems posed by urban development in Holland are extreme. In Canada, or even in the United States, the availability of good land for development rarely presents a problem. As urbanization proceeds, however, as the population of Canada grows to 27 million over the next quarter century, there will be urban areas where the lessons to be learned in Holland may be usefully applied. My overriding impression of Holland is of a nation where land is so valuable, that what Carl Feiss has called 'land pollution' is not, and will not be, tolerated. Is it perhaps time to look around us so that by wise legislation and timely action we may avoid the critical pressures which the Dutch are so boldly facing?

Amsterdam. Some elements of urbanity.

Photo henk jonker Amsterdam

Île Grande Entrée – Cap de l'Est

Île Havre Aubert – Tombereau de pêcheur

Les Îles-de-la-Madeleine

Par Gene Parent

A peine étions-nous partis une heure de Charlottetown que nous apercevions de l'avion un groupe d'îles à l'horizon, plusieurs d'entre elles liées par une étroite dûne. Quelques instants plus tard, faute d'aéroport, nous atterrissions sur une grève, – nous étions arrivés aux Iles-de-la-Madeleine.

Les seize îles, situées dans le golfe St-Laurent, environ à mi-chemin entre l'Ile du Prince-Edouard et Terre-Neuve, s'étendent en forme de courbe sur une distance de soixante milles. L'absence d'arbres et un vent qui hurle continuellement offrent un aspect plutôt lugubre au nouveau-venu. Il y a soixante-douze milles de routes reliant les différentes municipalités et hameaux mais ces routes ne sont pas entretenues en hiver; il va sans dire, qu'à cette époque de l'année, l'auto-neige est à peu près l'unique mode de transport. Alors c'est avec un intérêt tout particulier que je me suis embarqué dans un de ces autos-neige pour parcourir le trajet de cinq milles entre le-dit aéroport et l'hôtel. Mon enthousiasme se changea soudainement en incertitude lorsque le chauffeur pour épargner du temps dirigea le véhicule vers de larges baies, mais il me rassura qu'il n'y avait aucun danger car la glace avait à cet endroit une épaisseur de deux pieds! Je me suis aperçu pourquoi l'auto-neige était indispensable lorsque nous avons rencontré plusieurs bancs de neige qui barraient la route et que nous avons dû contourner en piquant à travers les champs.

Les habitants des Iles-de-la-Madeleine (ils aiment se faire reconnaître comme Madelinots) se chiffrent à 11,000. Ils sont pour la majorité, de descendance acadienne dont les ancêtres s'installèrent sur les îles, il y a deux cents ans, à la suite de la dispersion des Acadiens, mais quelques familles anglaises se sont jointes à eux et forment aujourd'hui environ 5 p. 100 de la population. Après la découverte des îles par Jacques Cartier en 1534, Champlain y fit une visite et les surnomma Brion, mais plus tard, un nommé François Doublet changea leur nom pour celui de Madeleine en souvenir de son épouse. Il n'y a qu'un seul village, Cap-aux-Meules, au sein duquel se groupent 900 âmes; le reste de la population est dispersé ici et là parmi les îles.

L'industrie de la pêche est la principale source de revenu des Madelinots. Des premiers jours du printemps jusqu'à la fin de l'automne on pêche la morue, le hareng, et le maquereau. En plus, durant la période de mi-mai à la mi-juillet on pêche le homard, lequel, on me dit, est le plus raffiné du monde. Le gouvernement provincial a fait construire quelques entrepôts frigorifiques où est congelé le poisson pour ensuite être envoyé vers les marchés principaux des amériques. Les îles comptent aussi quelques conserveries où le poisson est congelé en filet et où l'on prépare la farine de poisson. Le revenu du pêcheur est de $3,000 à $4,000 par année, mais tel n'est pas le cas du reste des gens; ceux-ci

Île Havre Aubert — Cabanes de pêche

Cette photo et celles de la page 19 sont de l'Office National du Film

gagnent en moyenne $1,000 puisque les conserveries ne leur fournissent du travail que pour cinq mois de l'année.

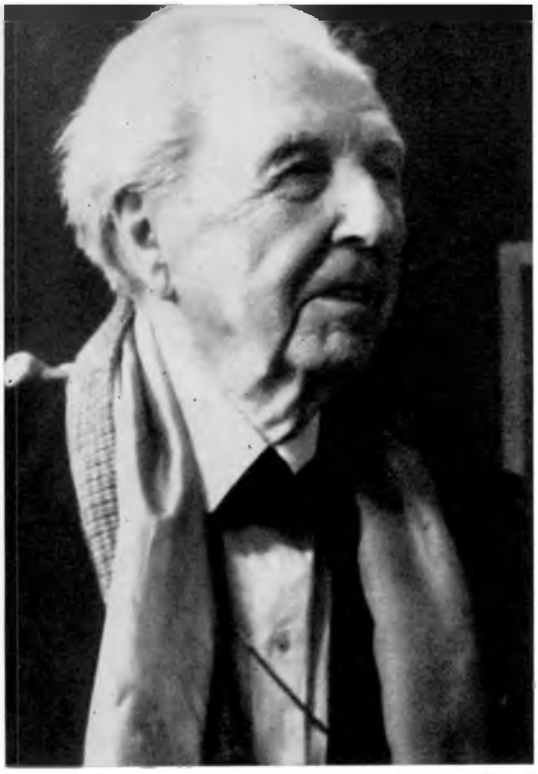
Le coût de la vie sur les îles est environ 20 p. 100 de plus qu'ailleurs dans la province, parce que tout doit être apporté par bateau. Ce pourcentage serait beaucoup plus élevé si ce n'était des coopératives qui se manifestent dans nombre de champs d'activité. Pour ses fins de transport, la coopérative met à la disposition des Madelinots, trois navires marchands pour l'exportation du poisson et l'importation des nécessités de la vie pendant la période de navigation d'avril à décembre. En plus des navires de la coopérative, la compagnie Clark Steamship Lines offre un service de passagers et de marchandises de Charlottetown, de Pictou et de Montréal, et enfin la compagnie Maritime Central Airways fait la navette tous les jours entre les îles et Charlottetown pour apporter le courrier en plus d'accommoder les passagers.

En ce qui concerne les communications les Madelinots jouissent d'un service téléphonique depuis plusieurs années mais le service interurbain au-delà des îles n'est en vigueur que depuis cinq ans. Dès le premier soir de mon arrivée j'ai découvert une autre méthode de communication qui semble desservir les Madelinots d'une façon très particulière. Pendant la veillée j'ai reçu plusieurs appels téléphoniques de gens habitant les divers hameaux le long des îles. Curieux du fait que ces gens avaient appris qu'un représentant de la Société se trouvait à Cap-aux-Meules, j'ai fait enquête auprès du gérant de l'hôtel. Ce dernier s'empressa de m'expliquer que le chauffeur de l'auto-neige, en plus de voir au transport des passagers descendant de l'avion, s'occupe aussi de la livraison du courrier aux divers hameaux et que c'était entendu qu'il devait tenir les maîtres-de-poste au courant de l'identité des personnes abord.

Il va sans dire que le but principal de ma visite était de me mettre au courant de la situation du logement aux Iles-de-la-Madeleine. Je me suis aperçu que les demeures au point de vue de style architectural sont semblables à la maison du villageois ailleurs dans la province et c'est avec intérêt que j'ai aussi constaté que les Madelinots prennent une fierté particulière dans l'apparence de leurs maisons et les entretiennent dans un excellent état. La plupart des maisons sont en bois, à deux étages, avec une cave qui sert principalement pour fins d'entreposage car très peu de maisons ont une installation de chauffage central. Il n'existe aucun service public d'aqueduc et d'égout sur les îles; par contre la plus grande majorité des maisons sont raccordées à une fosse septique et ont une installation électrique pour l'approvisionnement d'eau de puits ou de source. Le Madelinot calcule que la construction d'une maison devrait lui coûter de $5,000 à $6,000. Il faut ajouter que dans un cas typique, la maison sera en construction pendant trois ou quatre ans et sera sûrement habitée avant d'être parachevée. Le propriétaire verra à ce que le plus gros du travail chaque année se fasse en dehors de la saison de la pêche afin qu'il puisse bénéficier du fait qu'à cette époque de l'année les ouvriers se contentent d'un salaire moindre. Il est entendu aussi que le propriétaire se chargera de faire une bonne partie de l'ouvrage lui-même; la technique "Do it Yourself" n'est pas d'hier aux Iles-de-la-Madeleine.

Déterminés à améliorer leur sort, les Madelinots, nonobstant leur séclusion, ont progressé à un tel point qu'aujourd'hui il ne leur manque aucune nécessité. Il faut mentionner entre autres que les îles comptent vingt-cinq écoles primaires, quatre écoles supérieures et une école normale. L'on y trouve aussi un hôpital réputé être un des plus moderne de la province.

Les Madelinots sont très optimistes en ce qui concerne l'économie future des îles car grâce à la multiplication des établissements de pisciculture, à l'ouverture de nouveaux marchés et à l'amélioration des méthodes de pêche et de transport, l'industrie de la pêche a réalisé des progrès considérables. Le vaillant Madelinot continuera sans doute à prospérer tout en menant une vie caractéristique de gens à l'écart, une vie sereine, parfois austère.



Courtesy Ottawa Citizen

Frank Lloyd Wright

FRANK LLOYD WRIGHT

An Appreciation

I will make the poems of materials, for I think they are to be the most spiritual poems,
And I will make the poems of my body and of mortality,
For I think I shall then supply myself with the poems of my soul and of immortality.

Walt Whitman

By E. A. Levin

Frank Lloyd Wright made poems of materials; and out of shelter for the mortal body he built a lyric architecture which will give him immortality. American architecture's most turbulent and controversial figure died on April 10th, 1959, just two months short of his ninetieth birthday.

For six decades Wright was one of the dominant personalities on the American architectural scene. His influence was profound and complex, and full of paradoxes. He revolutionized American architecture, yet remained outside the main stream of its development; he taught "organic architecture" as a life-philosophy without which the formal aspects of design were meaningless, yet his philosophy was obscure and confused, and only the forms of his buildings were understandable and convincing. He described his work as the architecture of the common man, yet his clients for the most part were giant corporations and eccentric millionaires; he wrote voluminously – nine published volumes and numerous speeches – all a mixture of vitriolic social criticism, shameless self-admiration, and obscurantist architectural theorizing, yet it is unlikely that any of this will long survive him. He was a supreme egotist, a master showman, an incorrigible controversialist, and with it all, a creative genius of protean originality and infinite invention.

Frank Lloyd Wright was born at Richland Centre, Wisconsin, on June 8th, 1869. From his early years his life was marked by dissent, defiance of convention, purposeful self-assertion, and episodes of tragedy. He left the University of Wisconsin in the last year of his engineering studies without taking a degree. Apprenticed to Louis Sullivan, the most gifted architect of his time, whose own life was to end in tragic failure and unfulfilled promise, Wright quarreled bitterly with him and left him after four years even though he continued to revere him as his first and only master. When Wright set up his own practice, storms of controversy greeted each new design which he produced. One of the last works of his long life – the Solomon R. Guggenheim Museum of Art – was described as a "flower-pot", a "washing-machine", a "marshmallow". And he himself was merciless in his acid denouncements of other architects' creations.

His private and domestic life was equally stormy and unconventional. He had four wives and two marriages ended in divorce in a time when divorce was the ultimate scandal. His second wife and her two children by a former husband were murdered by a crazed servant who then fired and razed to the ground the house Wright had built for them.

But if controversy and tragedy were an intimate part of his life he also experienced triumph; and recognition, although it came slowly, came surely and inevitably.

In 1921 he completed the Imperial Hotel in Tokyo, under commission from the Emperor himself. Two years later the City was rocked by the most disastrous earthquake in history, in which nearly 100,000 persons lost their lives. When communications were eventually re-established with the stricken City, it was learned that only the Imperial Hotel had been able to resist the terrible force of the earth-tremors and stood alone among the ruins – a testimony to the brilliance of the architect's structural solution.

1909 Robie House, Chicago, Illinois. A good example of the prairie house of the period.

Not all of Wright's designs required such tragic and spectacular vindication. For the most part they found approval through the passage of time. Buildings which once had startled the public by their unorthodoxy came to be accepted as important contributions to American architectural tradition. The Midway Gardens on Chicago's lakefront, the Larkin Building in Buffalo, the Unity Temple in Chicago, the Johnson's Floor Wax Building in Racine, Wisconsin, the Kauffman House at Bear Run, Pennsylvania; his own residence – ateliers, Taliesin East and Taliesin West, have now found their places in the history of American architecture. And those more recent buildings which are still centres of controversy – the Guggenheim Museum of Art, the only example of Wright's work to be built in New York, the Chapel for his Florida Southern University campus group, the office tower for the H. C. Price Company in Bartlesville, Oklahoma – will also doubtless gain the same respectability with the passage of time. Wright himself once said that his real achievement lay in merely staying alive.

Although the influence of his public buildings and offices is important, Wright's greatest impact was undoubtedly made through his residential designs. Almost single-handedly he revolutionized the American home. After he left Louis Sullivan he took his young bride, the former Catherine Tobin (she was 19 and he was 21 when they married), to live in the Chicago suburb of Oak Park. Here he built for her a bungalow, the first of the long series of his characteristic houses, which are his greatest triumph and which alone would have assured him an enduring reputation. This house together with the residences he built for his neighbours at Oak Park, created an immediate sensation. They were low bungalows, closely contoured with the earth of which they seemed a part; they had strong horizontal accents, and their broad overhanging roof planes seemed to hover over the structure and its ground in an attitude of enclosure and protection. Gingerbread was completely stripped away. They had none of the fanciful adornments which satisfied the taste of suburbia. There were no dormer windows or leaded panes, no corner towers and turrets, no elaborately detailed chimneys, none of the superficial embellishments which characterized the turn-of-the-century suburban villa. The architect was hailed in Europe as the creator of a new and distinctively American architecture.

In America, however, recognition was neither so swift nor so praiseful. It took a long time for the daring innovations which first appeared in the homes of his clients to become part of the everyday vocabulary of residential design. Today we barely recognize the presence of Frank Lloyd Wright in our homes. But the "open-plan" evolved from his precedent. It was Wright who exhumed the kitchen from its depths in the interior of the house and made it part of the continuous spatial flow of kitchen-dining-room-living-room. It was Wright who stripped the turn-of-the-century interiors clean of their muddy coloured surfaces and trivial ornamentations. He replaced them with natural wood panels, and salmon coloured brick, and linen textures, and opened their walls wide with windows onto the outdoors. He gave them integral decoration arising out of the form and textures of his structural elements. Built-in lighting fixtures and furniture, interior planting and car-ports can all be traced directly to his pioneering ideas. The "Usonian House", which represents the last phase of refinement and development of his residential concepts, Wright felt was the archtypical home for a democratic society.

Wright spoke much of Democracy and the Architecture of Democracy. But it is evident that the word did not mean to him the democracy of twentieth century America. He was out of sympathy with his time.

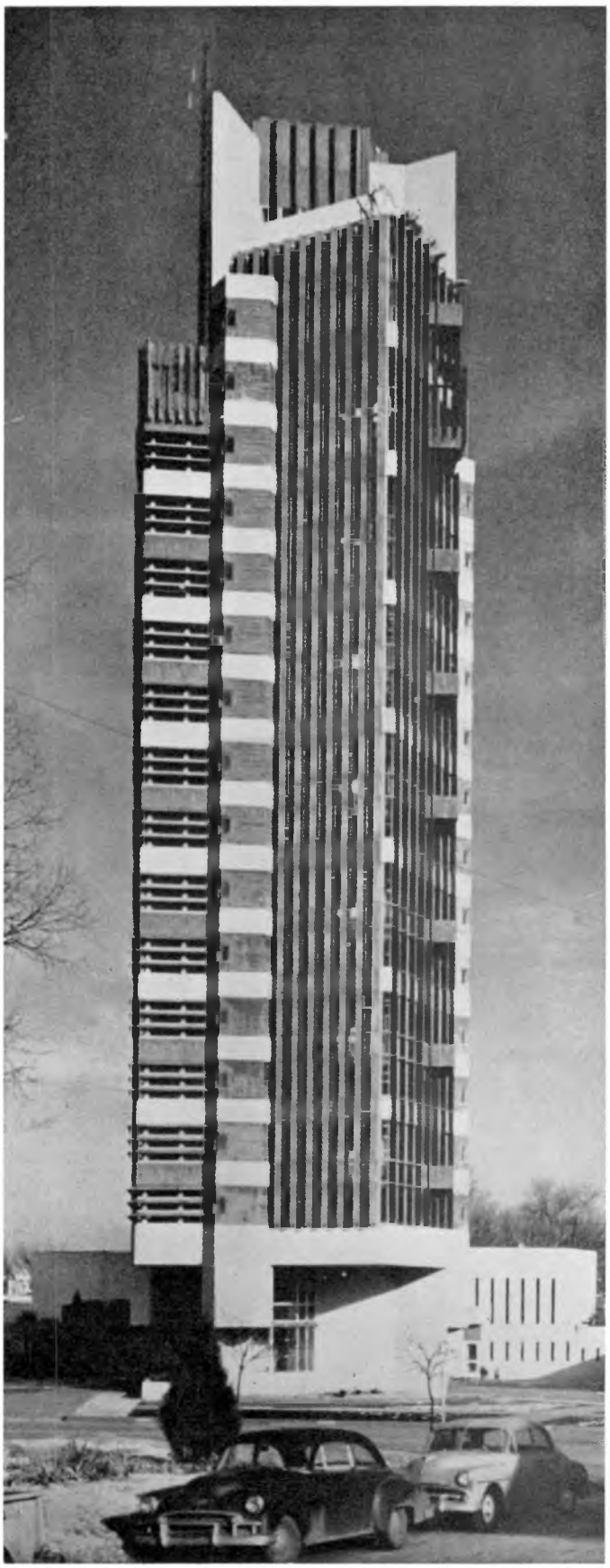
He hated the giant metropolis, and all the manifestations of a mass-technological society. Assembly-line production meant for him the ultimate death of the human personality. He railed against the decline of craftsmanship, alienation from the soil, the spread of social conformity and mass social phenomena of every kind. And his work in fact derives virtually nothing from machine technology. The sandwich panel, enamelled metals, thin shell concrete, machine precision and the whole range of the new architectural vocabulary deriving from the production and spirit of the machine, were alien to his work. His brief excursions into prefabrication and low-cost housing cannot be taken seriously. He preached democracy but his designs were intensely individualistic and personalized; he spoke of building for the people, but his buildings were beyond the reach of ordinary folk.

And yet there is in all his work something which has a strong identity with one of the main currents in American democratic philosophy. His admirers say that he was born before his time. Spiritually he was probably born after his time. For his whole world of ideas and attitudes has a much closer affinity with the thought and aspirations of an America which has past than with that which seems to be emerging out of the future.

Wright's spiritual world is compounded of the political agrarianism of Jefferson, of Thoreau's naturism and rejection of economic man, of Emerson's social criticism and misgivings over the directions of American capitalism, of the exultant and pagan self-consciousness of Walt Whitman. Even a cursory reading of Wright's published works together with the writings of these American thinkers reveals the startling identity of the architect's views with those of his earlier countrymen. It must be remembered that Thoreau died only seven years before Wright was born, and Whitman lived and wrote into the architect's twentieth year. He could not escape their influence.

The prototype of Wright's democratic man is the citizen-farmer, standing firmly in his own acres, politically free and self-determined not a nameless ballot in a leviathan state but a counted member of a face-to-face community, providing for his bodily and spiritual needs through handicrafts, agriculture and the pursuit of simple pleasures.

The derivation of these notions from the Jeffersonian tradition is obvious. Wright may not have had a very deep knowledge of the intellectual content of that tradition or a full understanding of its implications. Certainly his literal transposition of its eighteenth and



1953-1956 H. C. Price Company Tower, Bartlesville, Oklahoma. The tree that escaped the crowded forest.

1936 Kaufmann House "Fallingwater", Bear Run, Pennsylvania. The natural thing seemed to be to cantilever the house from the rock bank over the falling water.

nineteenth century ideas into a twentieth century context made him seem intellectually obscure and naive, and gave his writing an aspect of the bizarre.

Nevertheless all of his work clearly reflects this intellectual ancestry. It is apparent in his concept of "Broadacre City", in his theory of "organic architecture", in his unmatched empathy with and understanding of the "genius loci" of his building sites, in his preference for natural, on-site materials, and in the poetic lyricism of his designs which owe nothing to antecedent architectural traditions and could only have been conceived and executed in America.

Whatever school of "organic architecture" may have grown up around Wright's example during his lifetime, it is not likely to survive him for long. It was his own personality and the sheer strength and poetry of his designs which gave the movement any currency it enjoyed. His ideas were too highly personal and intuitive – each successive project was unique and bore virtually no generic relation to its predecessor – to provide the basic communicable principles upon which a school could be founded. Wright's intuitions could not be reproduced, their forms could only be imitated. With his departure it is altogether likely that the forms made in imitation of his idiom will bear less and less relation to his original concepts, and with progressive deterioration will eventually atrophy and disappear.

But his own original works will endure, not merely as monuments to his creative genius, but, like the poems of Whitman and the writings of the other Jeffersonian thinkers, as testaments to a vision of democracy which America could not bring forth into the world, but which Americans nevertheless still cherish in their hearts.

Photos of homes and tower courtesy Horizon Press, New York. Publishers of A Testament by Frank Lloyd Wright. H. C. Price Tower – Joe D. Price Fallingwater – Hedrich-Blessing.

LE BOIS ET LA DÉCORATION MODERNE

Par Marc Lefebvre

En dépit des procédés de fabrication et des produits de finition, le bois est resté une des principales sources de décoration intérieure de la maison.

Déjà, dans nombre de maisons où il se présentait de grandes surfaces en bois, voire même sur le plancher, des peintres s'adonnaient à imiter le chêne sur un fond de bois commun. Certains s'étaient spécialisés dans ce travail au point de simuler un beau morceau de chêne débité sur quartier. Tout comme les spécialistes du poli français, ces peintres sont à peu près disparus, de nos jours.

Aujourd'hui, les facilités de fabrication, de collage et d'assemblage, ont permis de réaliser de grandes surfaces en bois, à peu près ininterrompues, où le motif du grain est appareillé presque parfaitement. Ainsi, les fabricants ont réalisé de grandes portes en chêne, en merisier, en sapin Douglas, etc., d'une teinte à peu près uniforme. Ces mêmes panneaux en contreplaqué ont été employés sur les murs intérieurs pour obtenir une assez grande surface de ton et de motif à peu près uniformes. L'emploi de ce matériau s'est de plus en plus répandu et ce parement intérieur n'est plus réservé aux constructions coûteuses. Le mode de finition a permis de réaliser des effets innombrables et variés, tant par la texture que par la couleur, ce dont les décorateurs et les ensembliers modernes se sont prévalus inlassablement pour leurs travaux. L'emploi du bois s'est popularisé au point d'en tirer toute la beauté décorative naturelle, tout en l'employant pour ses qualités durables et structurales. Qui n'a pas vu cet escalier tournant à limon central dont la réalisation à elle seule est un chef-d'oeuvre, sans compter l'effet décoratif de ce massif en noyer noir. Les Japonais ont, depuis longtemps, recours à la beauté intégrale d'une poutre en acajou poli comme pièce centrale de décoration dans leur frêle maison. Aujourd'hui, on pousse l'effet décoratif du bois jusqu'à la troisième dimension, en dégageant en relief, les veines du bois par l'emploi de jets de sable. Tout ceci nous aide à comprendre que les meilleurs imitations en plas-

tique ou en composition quelconque etc., ne réussissent pas à donner l'apparence riche, la sonorité ligneuse non plus que la sensation chaude du bois naturel. Toutes ces imitations plastiques, si parfaites soient-elles, ne sont que des imitations. Leur valeur réelle réside dans leur facilité d'entretien et leur indestructibilité.

Déjà, dans la finition des meubles, on avait recours à divers procédés de teinture ou de vernis pour imiter l'acajou ou le noyer.

De plus en plus, de nos jours, les fabricants de mobiliers tentent de produire des ensembles où le bois naturel est mis en valeur. Le chêne, massif ou plaqué, sert, par son grain grossier, à maints jeux de couleurs. Le noyer circassien aux multiples motifs a garni nombre de têtes de lits; le chêne fumé n'a pas perdu sa place, même dans les décors modernes. Le plus spectaculaire, peut-être, est l'acajou, qui, fini naturel, réchauffe l'atmosphère du milieu qu'il occupe. Si l'acajou teint a un éclat richissime, l'acajou naturel ne cède le pas en rien à aucun autre bois pour l'ensemblier contemporain. L'acajou a toujours été l'un des bois le plus riche, tant par sa texture que par sa couleur qui s'enrichit en vieillissant.

Depuis quelque temps, le bois de Teck, est devenu le bois à la mode. Le marché est présentement inondé d'objets en Teck, depuis les salières et bols à salade jusqu'au panneautage mural.

Déjà, ce bois était employé à peu près exclusivement pour les constructions navales à cause de la propriété

Les photos de cet article sont de la S.C.H.L., courtoisie de Taarn Torontow Ltd., Ottawa

qu'il a de résister à l'effet de l'eau et de l'humidité. Ce bois, facile et agréable à travailler, se prête fort bien à tous les genres de fini soit naturel, soit teint. Les reflets miroitants des veines du bois enjolivent tout objet qui en est fait. L'emploi de ce bois se répand de plus pour la fabrication du mobilier exclusif. Il faut voir un ensemble en bois de Teck pour pouvoir en apprécier toute la valeur. Sa couleur se marie agréablement avec tous les jeux de couleurs. Sa sobriété permet d'en user sans crainte de surcharger une ambiance. Sa texture permet d'en tirer tout l'effet décoratif possible. Son prix prohibitif en limite l'emploi. Par contre, il y a de fort jolies choses en Teck . . . à prix modique . . . il suffit de savoir où les acheter . . .

DESIGN AWARDS — 1959

In April, 1959, the Honourable Howard C. Green, Minister of Public Works, presented the third series of awards made by the Canadian Housing Design Council. The objective of the awards is to encourage the improvement of housing design by bringing public attention to the best houses being built and providing recognition of their builders and designers. Three of the National award winning houses are shown on this page.

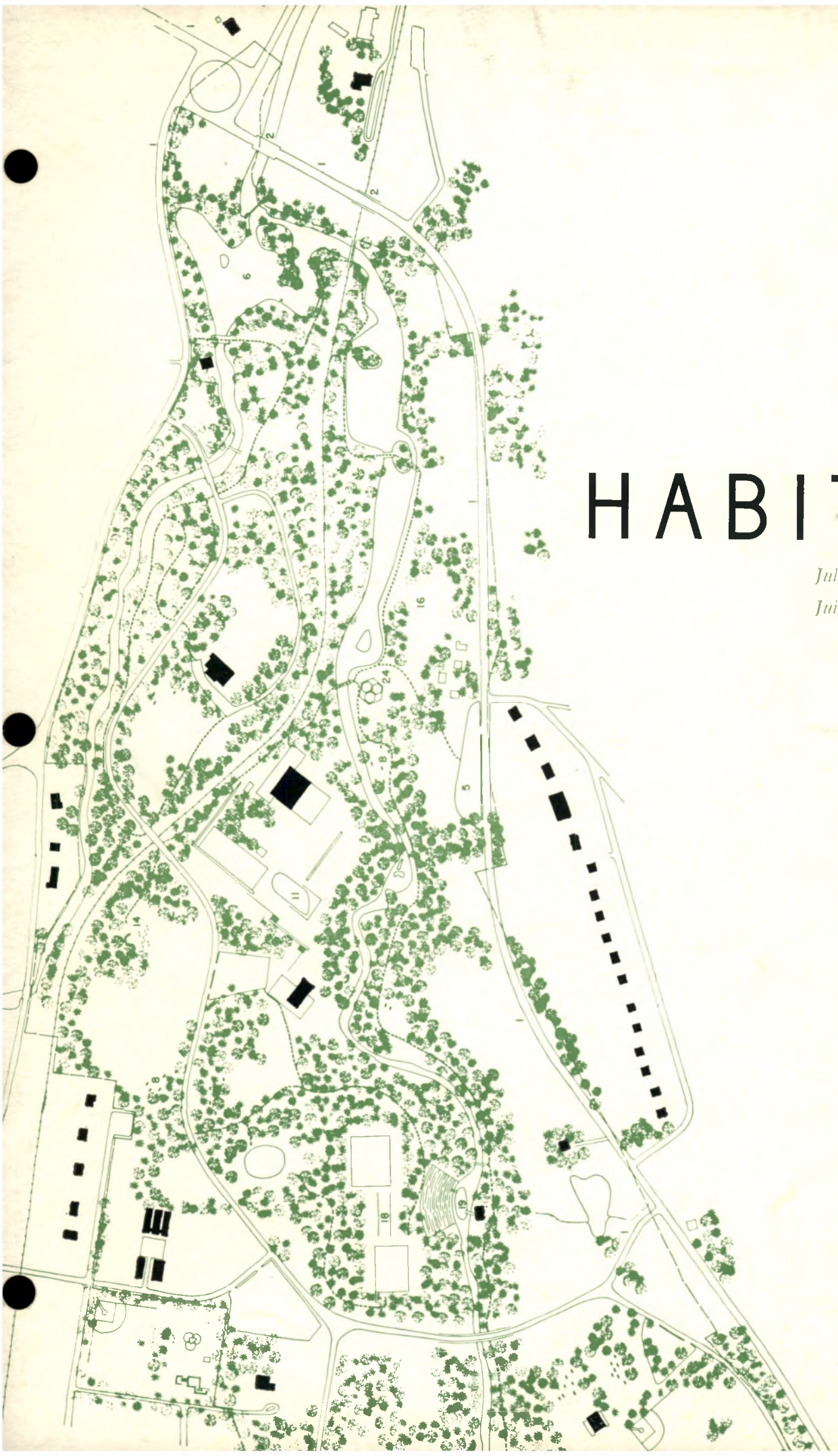
This year house grouping awards were added to the series. A later issue of *Habitat* will review the grouping awards.

The house at the upper right was designed and built by Lewis Const. Co. Ltd. in North Vancouver, B.C. Photo Selwyn Pullen.

The house at the lower right was designed and built by Harry Kivilo on Sheraton Drive, Montreal, P.Q.

The house below was built at North Bay by Roveda Limited, Architects Gibson & Associates, North Bay. Photo by Railton Studios.

CENTRAL MORTGAGE AND HOUSING CORPORATION
SOCIÉTÉ CENTRALE D'HYPOTHÈQUES ET DE LOGEMENT
OTTAWA • CANADA



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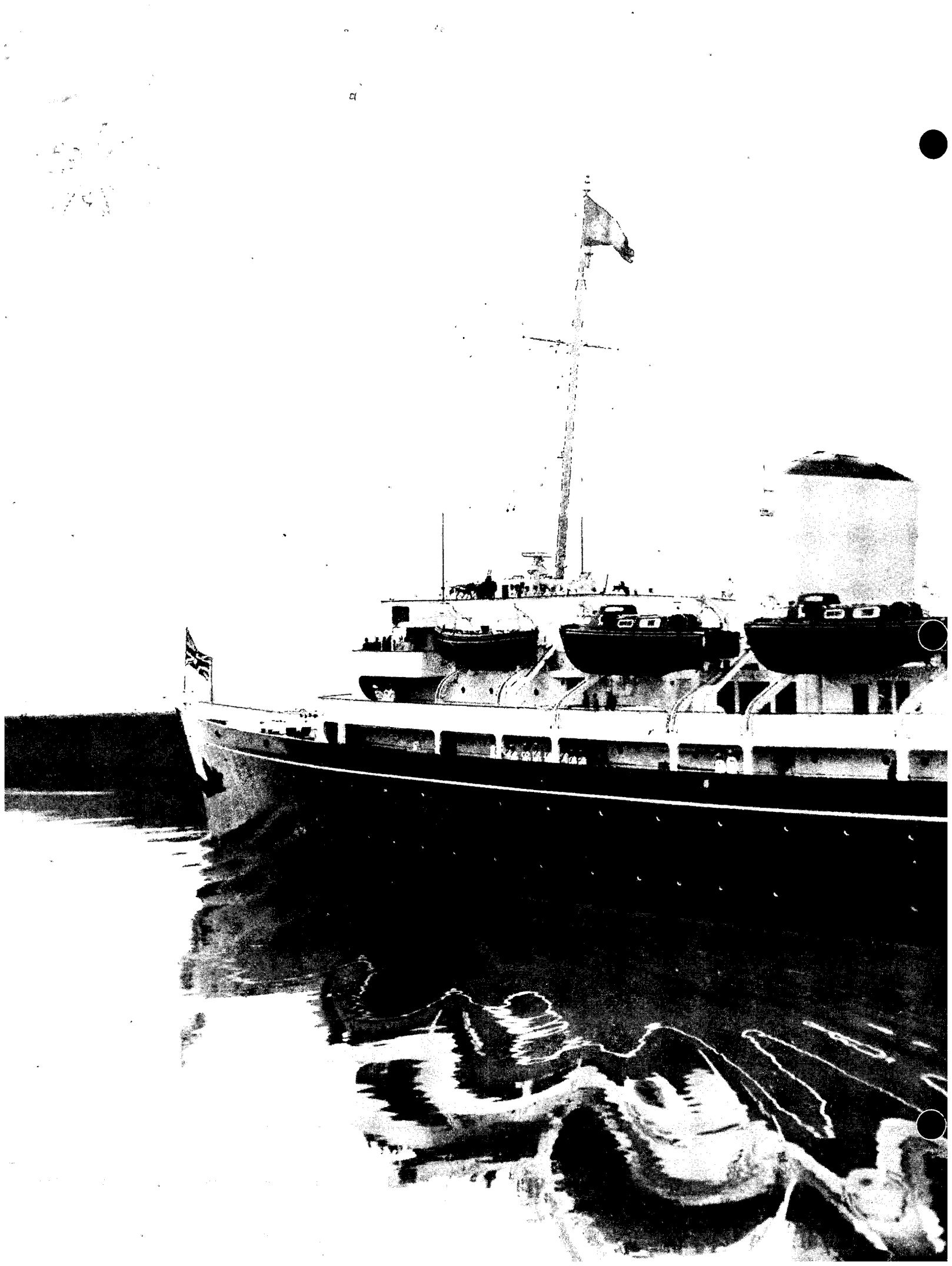

The photograph opposite shows the Royal Yacht Britannia cutting the barrier before entering the St. Lambert Lock to mark the official opening of the St. Lawrence Seaway. *Photo—Capital Press*

HABITAT

VOLUME II NUMBER 4

July - August Issue

contents

The cover, designed by Phyllis Lee, shows part of a development plan for Bowring Park, St. John's, prepared by Montreal architect and planner Blanche Lemco van Ginkel in partnership with her husband, H. P. Daniel van Ginkel. The full plan is reproduced on page 5.

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Gwyneth Cooper-Jones of Niagara-on-the-Lake helped to design the Lord Simcoe Hotel in Toronto and was also the resident architect in charge. This photograph was taken before completion of the parking lot.

Photo—Herb Nott & Co. Ltd., Toronto

WOMEN IN THE

by Jennifer R. Joynes

In 1956, Canadian universities produced 53 female doctors, 24 female lawyers, and only one female architect. (Comparative figures for male graduates were 773, 605, and 90, respectively.) This proportion has remained at a consistently low level. The comprehensive 1951 Census revealed that there were only 43 female architects in Canada, or 2.5% of the total.

A 1958 United Nations report on women in the labour force contained some interesting comparative figures from other countries. The proportion in the United Kingdom was about 4%, in Italy, 5.5%, Austria, 6.9% and the U.S.S.R., 24.6%. The proportion in the United States was less; only 1% of the registered architects were women.

According to reports from the Women's Bureau of the Canadian Department of Labour, most professional women are still to be found in careers that have been traditionally feminine fields for some time. At least 75% of all professional women are in the fields of teaching or nursing. However, growing numbers of women are invading professions that were previously male preserves. Between 1931 and 1951, the proportion of female physicians and surgeons grew from 2% to 5%, and of chemists and metallurgists from 4% to 10%. In the same period, the proportion of female to male architects increased from .2% to 2.5%. The 1958 membership in Provincial Architectural Associations numbered 2,066, of whom only 20 were women.

What is causing this feminine aversion to entering the profession of architecture? To some, it is the parental objection to the long and arduous training which, it is feared, will go to waste when she marries within a few years of graduation. To others, it is the fear of employer prejudice towards her sex. In some cases, there is a natural reluctance to entering what has been, hitherto, an almost exclusive male preserve.

These same arguments have been applied to almost every profession. In North America, particularly, marriage is regarded as the crowning achievement in a woman's life. This view is held by both men and women alike. Almost all the advertising directed towards the female sex helps to strengthen the illusion that marriage is a woman's inevitable and only goal. There is a widespread, erroneous impression that the pursuit of a profession jeopardizes a woman's chance of marriage. Recently, a married Canadian woman architect, well known in her profession, said, "Among women I found myself viewed as a very strange bird." This experience has been confirmed by several other women who have achieved success in the architectural field.

Unquestionably, the education and training of a girl is influenced by her anticipated role of housewife and mother. Parents, perhaps unconsciously, play a most important part in this direction of interests. While the small boy is given toy bricks, building sets, bulldozers and trains to play with, his sister receives dolls, toy washing machines, stoves and miniature boxes of soap powder.

Very few sincere, creative questions posed by a girl are taken seriously by her parents. Indeed, she is frequently adjured to concentrate as much on social graces as upon matters of the mind. This has the effect, of course, of bringing many girls to the stage of resignation to the role of wife and mother.

It is not to be denied that this attitude has a great deal of merit in our society. At the same time, it has the tendency to stifle any creative urge outside the realm of domesticity.

The architectural profession is not the only one affected by this attitude. Some vocational guidance specialists, conscious of the hard struggle attending a professional woman, may try to persuade young women to enrol in general rather than professional university courses.

The New York Life Insurance Company's brochure, "*Should You Be an Architect?*" was written by Pietro Belluschi, an architect of international fame. The last paragraph could hardly be described as an encouraging one to prospective female architects:

"You've noticed, I suppose, that I've directed my remarks to boys. I cannot, in whole conscience, recommend architecture as a profession for girls . . .

ARCHITECTURAL PROFESSION

The Edmonton office and residence of Jean Wallbridge and Mary Imrie.

Royal View Apartments, Edmonton, designed by the architectural firm of Wallbridge and Imrie.

the obstacles are so great that it takes an exceptional girl to make a go of it. If your daughter insists on becoming an architect, I would try to dissuade her. If she still insists, give her your blessing. She may be that exceptional one."

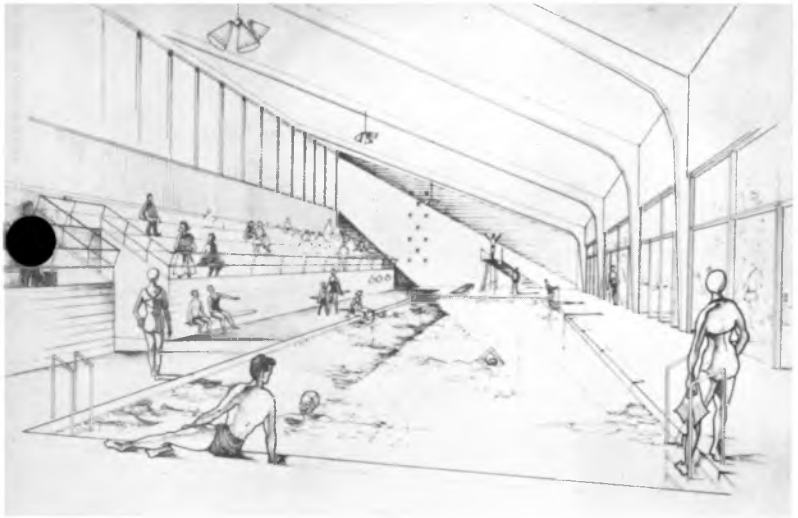
It is interesting to note that, in the field of town planning, a profession young enough to have escaped these traditional attitudes, women are more readily accepted. Female graduates in both architecture and the social sciences have entered this field and are making significant contributions. Public opinion also accepts interior design as being a particularly suitable career for women.

What is the future for the female architect who overcomes the traditional prejudices, enters the profession and finally gets her degree? She will meet with the same arguments all over again when she looks for a job. Employers will expect her stay to be a short one, and her salary and prospects will suffer accordingly. She can expect to experience more difficulty than her male associates in becoming established and respected in her profession.

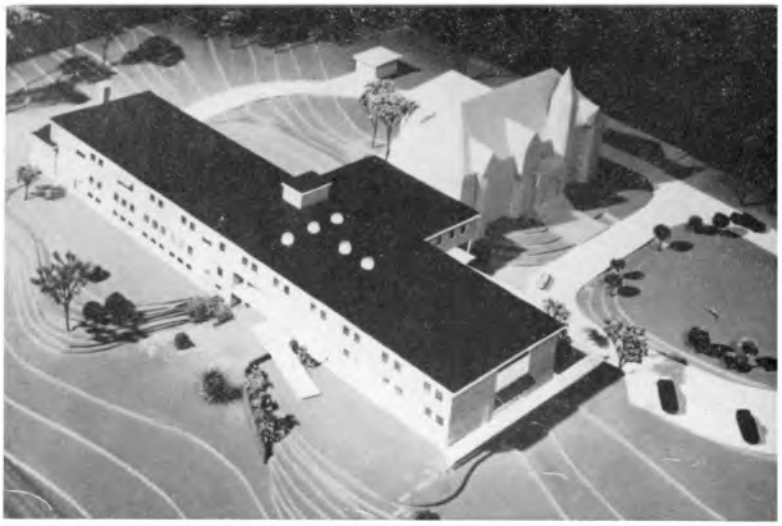
It has been said that the future of a female architect is limited because she cannot undertake the necessary supervision of construction on the site. This is not necessarily so. Gwyneth Cooper-Jones not only helped to design the 18-storey Lord Simcoe Hotel in Toronto, but was the resident architect in charge of 200 labourers, supervisors, draughtsmen and engineers.

Several prominent female architects have said that once a woman has overcome the traditional attitudes and proved her ability in the profession, she is fully accepted by both her associates and clients.

There is really no logical argument against a woman entering the architectural profession, provided that she accepts the fact that her talent as an architect can only be measured alongside her male peers in the realm of design. The suggestion that, because of her innate interest in the home and the family, she should be able to design kitchens, living rooms, houses and apartments much better than a man has no foundation in fact. Canadian female architects confirm that this is the case. They point out that a female architect, practising full time, has usually had comparatively little experience in



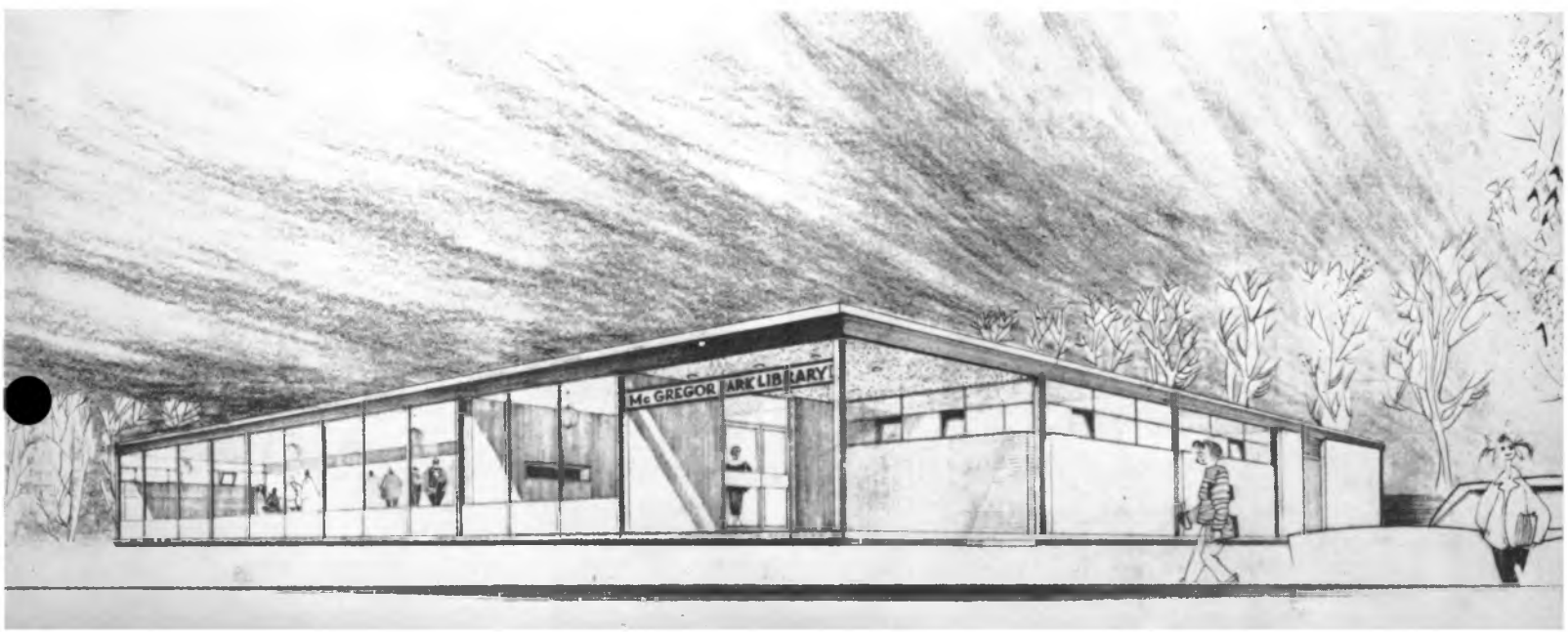
Perspective for a swimming pool, designed by Pamela Cluff in association with her husband, A. W. Cluff of Toronto.
Photo—Max Fleet



Model of the proposed Bruce County Home for the Aged, Walkerton, Ont., designed by Pamela Cluff in association with P. J. Cluff and M. D. Klein. *Photo—Max Fleet*

The development of Bowring Park, St. John's, prepared by Blanche Lemco van Ginkel in partnership with her husband, H. P. Daniel van Ginkel. The park is approximately 250 acres and will be the major recreation centre for the city.

The McGregor Park Library, part of the McGregor Recreational Centre in Scarborough, Toronto, was designed by Mrs. Joanna H. Ozdowski of the Toronto firm of Sproatt and Rolph.



A private dwelling at Manotick, Ont., one of several in the Ottawa area designed by Barbara Humphreys of Manotick.

Photo–CMHC

running a home, and that a male architect, provided he has a sympathetic understanding of the function and, more important, is a good designer, can create just as satisfactory a kitchen, house or apartment as a female architect.

If a woman can make any unique contribution because of her sex, it probably lies in her greater supply of patience and tact in dealing with the client.

It is a paradox that once a woman has overcome the objections of the general public towards her choice of profession and is a qualified and established architect, the layman is prepared to place complete trust in her architectural ability. One female architect expressed the view that: "Clients usually don't have the same confidence in a woman as in a man, whatever the business. But in the design of houses they, peculiarly enough, seem to think our female intuition is enough to place us on a par, if not ahead of, the male architect."

There are some grounds for believing that the traditional opposition to women entering the architectural profession is waning. Many European women have achieved international fame as architects and planners. Moreover, as the accompanying illustrations show, Canada has some good examples of buildings designed by successful women architects.

Aspiring female students can draw encouragement from the success, in North America, of such well known female architects as Jacqueline Tyrwhitt who teaches planning at Harvard, Mrs. Stanislawa Nowicki who teaches architecture at the University of Pennsylvania, Mrs. Blanche Lemco van Ginkel, a graduate of McGill, who has taught at both Harvard and Pennsylvania and who won the Vienna Grand Prix. They can observe the success of Jean Wallbridge and Mary Imrie who are partners in a successful architectural practice in Edmonton. Another example of feminine success is Natalie Saulkauskis, a student of architecture at the University of Toronto, who, this year, was the first female student to receive an award from the Ontario Association of Architects.

The only female architect engaged on the Place Ville Marie project in Montreal is Miss Anna Lam. Miss Lam studied architecture in Hong Kong and planning at McGill. In a recent newspaper interview she pointed out that, while men will appreciate the economic advantages of this city centre, women will be aware of its exterior aspect and of the visual and physical calm being created in the heart of the city.

These are examples of a few of the women who have made their mark in architecture. They have not only been accepted in their profession, but they are respected by their male associates.

The architectural profession is not an easy road to travel for a woman. Nevertheless, women who have demonstrated a talent and are prepared to face the hard work involved, should not be discouraged by the traditional objections they will meet. For the last thirty years, women have been overcoming similar prejudices in other professions. The woman who has the talent, and accepts the fact that creative design, in any field, is not necessarily the prerogative of either sex, can expect to achieve a full and satisfying life in the architectural profession.

Mrs. Joynes is Assistant to the National Director of the Community Planning Association of Canada. She has held a number of editorial positions, among them a writer on the Information staff at CMHC. Mrs. Joynes is a graduate of the University of Manitoba, where she majored in Philosophy and English.

Photo–CMHC

The Royalton, loaded with ore at a Duluth dock, is ready for its trip down the Great Lakes. The Wm. H. Donnelly, in the background, is on its way out.

Photo–National Film Board

HIGHWAY TO THE SEA

by John R. Akin

It is a paradox that while the St. Lawrence Seaway is commonly regarded as having been built primarily to permit ocean shipping to penetrate into the heart of the North American continent, the chief purpose of its construction is, by overcoming the menaces to navigation of the St. Lawrence rapids, to free the North American lake ships from their impoundment in the inland seas.

Thus instead of stopping at Prescott to tranship their cargo into a fleet of small canal ships, they may proceed from as far West as the Lakehead all the way to Montreal and other down-river ocean ports. There, their stupendous grain cargoes are transferred to elevators for loading into salt-water ships and the "lakers" proceed to other docks for a return cargo of Labrador ore, coal, woodpulp or other bulk material, bound for the ports of the Great Lakes.

Both the foreign-going traffic and the North American movement – the latter, as we have stated, being largely in the form of bulk cargoes – will be important, however. For the fundamental objective of the Seaway is to improve the means and reduce the cost of transportation by water for a considerable portion of the traffic arising from Canada's trade.

The Seaway does this, not only by accommodating deeper draught vessels (the Seaway channels provide 27-foot depth), but by speeding up transit through the use of seven large, modern locks between Lake Ontario and Montreal in place of 22 out-moded small locks and 14-foot-deep canals. The Welland Ship Canal, completed in 1932, has also a governing depth of 27 feet and is an integral part of the Seaway.

Where before the navigation facilities between

Ships upbound to the Great Lakes leaving the St. Lambert Lock —the first lock entering the Seaway.

Photo—The St. Lawrence Seaway Authority from Malak

Montreal and Lake Ontario restricted vessels to a length of 258 feet, lake ships, mostly of Canadian register, and with a length of over 715 feet, sail the 1,200 miles from Fort William, eastward to Montreal (and beyond).

Ocean ships up to some 260 feet in length did ply the small canals in considerable numbers, but they were on reduced draught and carried no more than 1,750 tons each. Now, loaded to a depth of 25 feet, larger foreign-going craft are carrying cargoes — of some 8,000 tons each — to inland ports.

"CANALLER" IS OBSOLESCENT

The small lake-ship or "Canaller" of 200-plus feet in length is still seen on the new waterway but the fleets of these are regarded as obsolescent and it was at a Montreal shipyard that what were said to be the last of such vessels to be built for this trade were launched last year. Meanwhile launchings of the large lakers are noted almost weekly.

They are moving immense cargoes from the Lakes to Montreal and doing so in remarkable times.

Previously it would take a ship some six or seven days from the Lakehead to Montreal; now ships, and some of the biggest ones at that, are making the voyage in less than five days.

One of these large ones, the "*Scott Misener*", arrived at Montreal from Fort William just a month after the opening of the navigation season this year in a little over four and a half days.

Six hundred and eighty-five feet long and with a 72-foot beam, she brought to the elevators of Canada's metropolis some 860,000 bushels of assorted grains. Some idea of the size of such a cargo may be taken from the fact that this grain was the product of over 41,000 acres and would occupy, if loaded on railway trains, no less than 368 box cars. After discharging her downbound cargo she proceeded to one of the ore ports of the St. Lawrence to take on a cargo of iron ore for return to the Great Lakes.

While bulk cargoes such as this constitute the preponderance of Seaway traffic, the foreign-going ships, flying the flags of some two dozen countries, have set the interests of lake-port communities agog. Although a number of them are taking cargoes and part-cargoes of grain from the lakes, their prime function is to carry general cargo, of a variety almost unimaginable, between overseas ports and Canadian and United States cities of the Great Lakes.

It has been estimated that Great Lakes and river ports have spent or earmarked no less than $300,000,000 for port improvements — and the first foreign ships to reach their harbours with the opening of the Seaway this year were greeted with wild acclaim. A "Fourth Seacoast" and "Eighth Sea" are terms associated with the enthusiasm of inland port officials.

The advantages that the large and modern facilities

Deckhands on the SS Mathewston close the hatches as a storm blows up on Lake Superior.

Photo—National Film Board

A small ocean ship and a Canadian canaller are raised together in the 41-foot lift of the Lower Beauharnois Lock. During the navigation season, ships sail the Seaway day and night, seven days a week.

Photo—The St. Lawrence Seaway Authority from Malak

of the St. Lawrence Seaway confer on trade by the reduction in transport cost may be seen to have two major discernible effects on regional development. One is the expansion of industry as affected by direct connection with overseas trade — this largely on the Great Lakes. The other is the development of the great "complex" of bulk-product industries on the lower St. Lawrence and Gulf east of Montreal.

EXPANSION ON THE LOWER RIVER

At least four major steel companies have announced plans to establish ore docks, beneficiating plants or steel-mills in the immediate vicinity of Montreal — both on the South Shore downstream of the Harbour, and on the Seaway channel, just upstream. A considerable group of trans-shipment facilities for iron and titanium ore has come into being in the last two years on the South side of the river, reaching from Varennes eastward almost to Sorel at the mouth of the Richelieu. Turning basins have been built along the channel, west of Montreal, and industrial estates and housing developments are forming fast.

The North Shore of the St. Lawrence, too, particularly in the region of Seven Islands and Baie Comeau, is arousing great interest on the part of major companies, both domestic and foreign. Already the scene of vast developments, its importance is growing as a major shipping area for iron ore, titanium, aluminum and pulp products. Cargill, one of the largest grain companies in North America, is now building a grain storage and trans-shipment facility which will hold some 15,000,000 bushels, at Baie Comeau. (Montreal Harbour's grain storage facilities will, when the present port expansion program is completed, hold some 22,000,000 bushels.) The possibility of future year-round navigation between St. Lawrence North Shore ports and the Atlantic is actively advanced.

Thus, the construction of the St. Lawrence Seaway itself has brought about a remarkable increase in building — of bridges, of terminal and handling structures, and of office quarters and domestic housing that industrial development brings in its wake.

Nature has endowed this country with the greatest inland waterway in the world, stretching for 2,200 miles from the Lakehead to the Atlantic. The completion of the St. Lawrence Seaway has enabled Canadians and Americans and the other trading nations of the world to make abundant use of the latent advantages of this water highway to the benefit of trade and the interchange of ideas.

POWER FROM THE RIVER

The benefits that spring from the development of the great power resources of the river are also enormous and in several cases, the powerhouses are tied in with the navigation facilities, notably at Cornwall (2,200,000 horsepower) and Beauharnois (2,235,000 horsepower).

The costs of construction for power and navigation — a billion-dollar enterprise — are recoverable through power rates and the imposition of tolls on shipping. Work started on the twin projects on August 10, 1954 — the Feast Day of St. Lawrence.

Not, perhaps, since the building of the Canadian Pacific Railway has such a stirring enterprise taken place in Canada and few will have more far reaching influence on the eventual development of our country.

Mr. Akin is Information Officer for the St. Lawrence Seaway Authority. A graduate of McGill University, he was formerly Assistant Financial Editor of the Montreal Gazette and did public relations work for the Canadian Pacific Railway before joining the Authority.

Photo—Capital Press Service

Photo—British Columbia Government

1.

CAMERA ON CANADA

VACATIONLAND

Daydreaming? Of course you are. Who can help himself on a soft summer day?

Young or old, rich or poor — inevitably our thoughts turn at this time of year to holidays and the vacationland that is Canada.

Whatever the inspiration — a warm sun smiling from sparkling white-flecked skies, the heavy fragrance of freshly-mowed grass, the sound that gushes from bright-hued songbirds — an anticipatory sense of well-being is abroad.

In wanton fashion, Nature conspires against the weak and the strong alike.

For some of us, vacation time means long, lazy days at the cottage or beach, within sight of sun-dappled waters with their gay burden of speeding craft and light-hearted skiers; within sound of laughing, splashing children, the sudden roar of an outboard motor, the nostalgic slap of a screen door.

For others, it is the gypsy life that beckons — tonight a tent under the pines, with the familiar bass chorus of frogs in the low marshlands close at hand; tomorrow in a secluded ocean cove, the monotonous night-time lap of waves inducing gentle sleep.

There are those who will settle gladly for a quiet pool, tucked in the bend of a river — cool, deep and satisfying — and for the sleek green-black beauty, the power and the glory of a fighting fish.

Or it may be the appeal lies in a carefree motor trip into the unknown where the grandeur of the past has not yet been entirely effaced by roadside signs proclaiming "*Worm for Sale*", "*We Speak English at 1,000 Feet*" or "*We Love Our Children*".

Again, some seek summer relaxation on the manicured greens of a golf course — astride a spirited mount on the bridlepath — aboard a luxury train, airplane or passenger vessel bound for faraway places — or, for the very few, on the gleaming decks of a cabin cruiser.

Whatever our choice, there is a holiday for everyone in Canada. And often, the planning, the lively expectation is the best of all. In a mundane world of power lawnmowers and hissing lawn sprinklers, even the stay-at-homes — by election or necessity — need not forgo their daydreams.

2.

Photo—National Film Board

CAMERA ON CANADA

1. *Yachts in the Inner Harbour, Victoria, B.C., with the Provincial Parliament Buildings in the background.*
2. *Tourists at Percé, Que. board the ferry for Bonaventure Island. Percé Rock is in the background.*
3. *Black Brook Beach, one of the many small uncrowded sandy beaches along the shores of Nova Scotia.*
4. *Entrance to the National Park, Prince Edward Island.*
5. *Pouch Cove, an ideal spot for the amateur photographer, Avalon Peninsula near St. John's.*
6. *An angler's paradise — the Miramichi, New Brunswick.*
7. *Lake Louise with the Rockies in the background — Banff National Park, Alberta.*
8. *Lake Brereton, site of the Canadian Girl Guides Summer Camp, Manitoba.*
9. *A friendly round of golf in Ontario's famous resort area of Muskoka.*
10. *One of the most thrilling summer sports — water skiing on Madge Lake, Duck Mountain Provincial Park, Saskatchewan.*

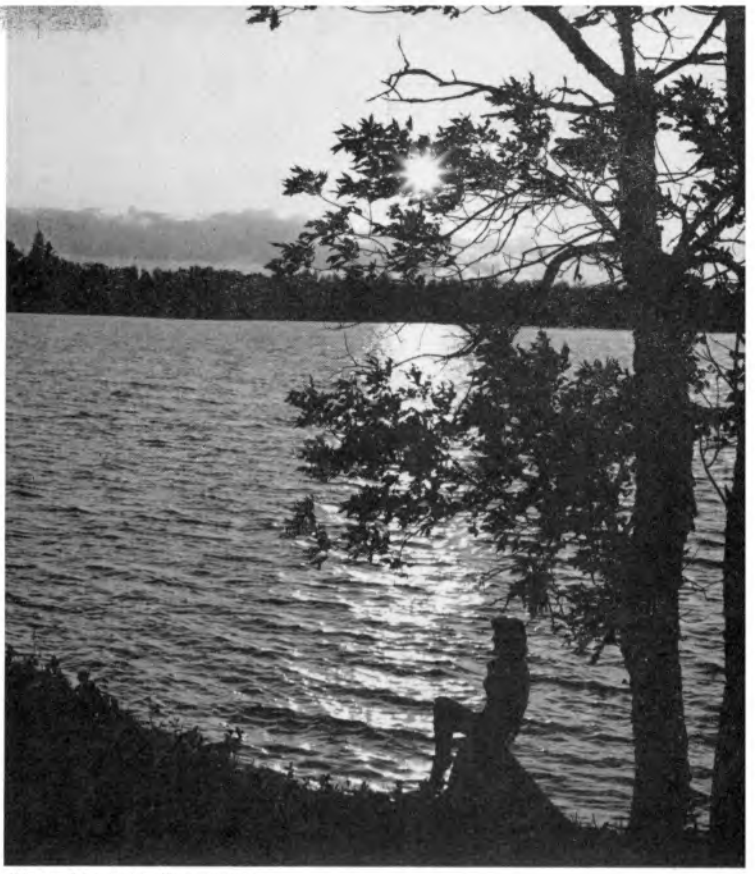
3.

Photo—Nova Scotia Film Bureau

Photo—National Film Board

4.

Photo—National Film Board 5.



Photo—Manitoba Government 8.

Photograph—New Brunswick Travel Bureau 6.

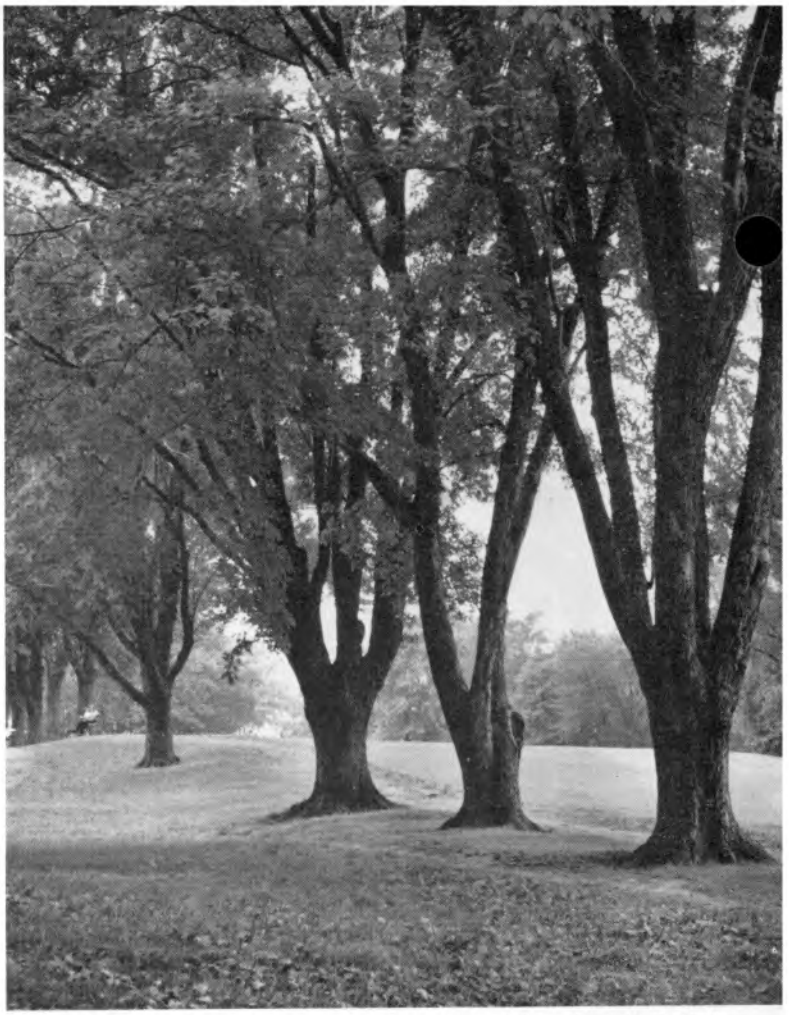
Photo—Ontario Department of Travel and Publicity 9.

7. *Photo—Alberta Government*

10. *Photo—Saskatchewan Government*

EXISTER SANS VIVRE?

par Claude Robillard



La paix d'un paysage au coeur de la ville agitée. **Photo–Henri Paul**

Les vers de Victor Hugo, qui en a tant écrit, ne hantent pas tous aujourd'hui toutes les mémoires. Ils ont pourtant enchanté la génération précédente mais si l'on s'attache aujourd'hui à des morceaux de choix, et de génie, des centaines de poèmes de Victor Hugo dorment sur les plus hauts rayons de nos bibliothèques, sans amis, quand ils n'ont pas pris le chemin du grenier, des librairies d'occasion ou des rebuts. Leur sort, source de réflexion féconde sur la vanité des choses humaines, n'en demeure pas moins injuste. Certains vers claironnent encore et reprennent à la lecture toute leur résonance. Je songe, par exemple, à cet alexandrin:

"*Car le plus grand malheur c'est d'exister sans vivre*" qui exprime en quelques mots ce vertige, cette réalité étourdissante des grandes villes dont l'activité fiévreuse tend à endormir en nous la conscience même de la vie.

L'un des phénomènes les plus terribles des révolutions industrielles des 150 dernières années n'est-il pas la substitution du milieu technique au milieu naturel, selon l'expression réaliste de Georges Friedman dans son merveilleux livre "*Où va le travail humain?*".

Ces révolutions industrielles ont tiré peu à peu le citadin hors de la nature et réussi à soustraire la grande ville à sa nécessaire influence. Il y a cent ans, la nature était partout présente dans la ville et l'homme ne pouvait pas ne pas rythmer sa vie aux saisons. La maison ne savait pas non plus l'arracher de la nature et, d'ailleurs, l'homme vivait dans la rue, au jardin ou sur la place.

La place, cet aménagement central qui donne encore tant de charme à la vie des villes d'Europe et où se déroulait la vie communautaire; les fêtes avec leur cortège de joie et d'échanges humains. L'église, toujours présente, y apportait la vie religieuse; l'hôtel de ville, la vie politique; l'auberge avec terrasse, la détente. C'est là que se lisaient, au son du tambour, les proclamations, les nouvelles, que dégustaient gourmandement les commères et un auditoire tantôt goguenard, tantôt sérieux. Le soir venu, le banc sous le grand arbre recevait les confidences des amoureux qui refaisaient, de génération en génération, les mêmes serments, les mêmes promesses. La pièce se répétait toujours, les acteurs seuls changeaient, les mêmes gestes revenaient; le petit-fils reprenait les pas du grand-père à la danse de la fête et le même jet d'eau faisait chanter la fontaine sous le même soleil, sous la même lune.

L'homme, par ailleurs, forgeait sa culture au labeur quotidien, à la pièce bien finie. La place lui ajoutait cette vie communautaire, ce sens de responsabilité réciproque riche d'éléments culturels. Une continuité merveilleuse plaçait l'homme dans un milieu connu et aimé.

Mais, tout à coup la révolution industrielle est venue. Avec son cortège d'artifices, de standardisation, de confort, ses obligations inutiles, son automatisation sans humanité, et un ennui terrible, plus terrible encore d'être inconscient. Désormais, plus de nature pour le travailleur d'usine, plus ou presque plus de culture pour le citadin, si ce n'est cette production d'amusements intellectuels ou autres qu'il regarde ou écoute sans participation, sans engagement personnel, avec une passivité ironique, sur ce fond agité de la ville.

La maison aussi s'est soustraite, malgré elle, à la nature. Un confort abusif coupe l'homme de tout contact avec la rudesse des éléments. L'air même qu'il respire, pour parodier Corneille, est fabriqué et la splendeur, la chaleur et le chant du feu se sont réfugiés dans une fournaise automatique. Le petit jardin, la cour intérieure avec des fleurs sont des rêves passés pour l'ensemble de la population. L'image, sombre sans doute, n'est que la dure réalité du grand nombre.

Aussi, n'a-t-on pas à s'étonner que devant l'inhumanité des villes, devant l'anonymat des individus, des centaines et des centaines de familles cherchent refuge dans la banlieue ou plus loin encore, vers l'"exurbia", selon l'expression utilisée par Jean Lupien dans son article "*Le retour à la terre*" publié dans le numéro de janvier-février de cette revue.

Là, la maison sait encore s'ouvrir à la nature; l'individu conserve un peu de sa dignité humaine et se soustrait à la standardisation complète, à la "déspiritualisation". Cet exode est-il la solution idéale?

Ne serait-il pas plus réaliste de redonner à la ville industrialisée un "supplément d'âme", une revalorisation humaine, de lui conserver et d'amplifier le peu de nature qu'elle recèle, de lui réapprendre sa fonction, son métier de vie communautaire pour des hommes de chair et de sang?

L'observateur perspicace sait que la vie des grandes villes menace dangereusement notre civilisation. Dans leur précieux témoignage "*Industry and Democracy*" publié à Londres en 1947, Constance Reaverley, universitaire ouvrière, et John Winnington, ingénieur de la grande industrie, soulignent que l'environnement de la ville et du travail de l'industrie est incapable de "développer les qualités de base qui font un homme" et que le citadin "soumis à l'action de ce milieu" évolue de plus en plus vers le totalitarisme.

Il ne s'agit plus de regretter le temps des "bergerettes" mais, comme on le voit, il importe de ne pas accepter la vie ahurissante de la ville d'aujourd'hui. Il importe de redonner au citadin un milieu où il puisse s'épanouir. Sans cela, la démocratie même est en jeu et sont menacées également les richesses de notre civilisation. Le citadin doit vivre et non pas exister si l'on veut que vive et s'amplifie notre civilisation.

La verdure, les grands arbres, les fleurs, les loisirs créateurs peuvent encore redonner à la ville ce visage humain essentiel, peuvent réapprendre au citadin à "vivre et non pas exister", lui ramener sa dignité humaine. Ici, les témoignages pourraient se multiplier à l'infini. Les chefs religieux, les éducateurs, les sociologues, les anthropologues s'accordent à trouver une solution efficace dans la création d'espaces verts et l'organisation d'une récréation active où la masse des citadins puisse retrouver une culture, utiliser l'initiative et l'engagement personnel, en un mot, "s'échanger" à une œuvre de création et s'enrichir de la détente et de la contemplation de la nature.

Le parc, cet ersatz moderne de la place et du jardin intérieur, visera avant tout à *recréer* dans la ville cette nature par trop absente et à *récréer*, à détendre l'homme urbain, à lui permettre un peu de gratuité généreuse dans une vie complètement centrée sur l'intérêt matériel immédiat.

" . . . où l'oeil ne recueille que laideur!"

Photo du Service des Parcs de Montréal

Photo—Henri Paul

Ici les yeux de nos enfants deviennent lumineux! Le parc humanise la ville.

Le parc prend ainsi une importance capitale, essentielle à la survie des villes. Aussi, s'explique-t-on mal la tendance persistante de certains à toujours vouloir opposer parcs et circulation. A Montréal, tout en vantant le charme du Mont-Royal, on insiste toujours pour le classer parmi les obstacles à la circulation, obstacle qu'il faudra bien, dit-on, un jour ou l'autre franchir. Dans une ville aussi vaste que Montréal, le parc Mont-Royal est une richesse inestimable et n'est certes pas plus un obstacle à la circulation que les pâtés drus de maisons, d'usines et de magasins qu'on lui aurait infailliblement substitués si la nature ne nous en avait pas fait don. Les problèmes de circulation n'existent-ils pas là où ne s'élève pas la beauté irremplaçable du Mont-Royal?

Quand on touche aux parcs, on s'attaque au capital humain des villes. La ville désireuse de survivre doit multiplier ses espaces verts, aires naturelles combinées à des aires de jeux. La dimension des villes contrôlera évidemment la superficie du domaine de verdure. On ne devrait jamais réserver moins de 10 p. 100 de la superficie totale de la ville au domaine des parcs; beaucoup mieux 15 et 20 p. 100.

Les nouvelles villes naissent comme des champignons et comme les champignons dès leur naissance chaque nouvelle ville devrait prévoir ses organes et se planifier dès le début. L'urbaniste professionnel jouera un rôle primordial et vaudra à la future municipalité des économies considérables en évitant les expropriations coûteuses plus tard si la ville se dresse au petit bonheur. L'urbaniste saura prévoir les espaces verts et leurs fonctions propres, les écoles, les centres récréatifs, les centres d'achats, les édifices de l'administration, les secteurs résidentiels et autres.

Dans la plupart des cas cependant, la nouvelle ville naît d'une agglomération déjà existante et le problème se complique si les pâtés de maisons se sont construits sans planification. C'est là que le rôle d'un expert, pour plus difficile qu'il soit, n'en est pas moins essentiel et de la meilleure économie avant que l'on ne continue l'aménagement de la ville.

Il en est de même pour l'aménagement des parcs. Le travail de l'architecte-paysagiste expert se traduira par des économies considérables. Il est toujours facile de déplacer une bâtisse, une pataugeuse ou tout autre élément sur un plan. L'étude poussée de l'aménagement évitera bien des erreurs et jamais ne devrait-on se permettre de lever la première pelletée de terre dans un parc sans un plan complet et détaillé. Sur ce point, Montréal possède une expérience concluante.

Un prochain article pourrait illustrer de façon plus technique l'aménagement rationnel des espaces verts et l'utilisation de la verdure pour rendre la ville plus humaine et, de ce fait, rendre plus vivantes les maisons dont elle se compose.

Claude Robillard est directeur du Service des Parcs de Montréal. Monsieur Robillard est diplômé en génie de l'Université McGill. Il est directeur régional du Festival dramatique du Dominion; il a toujours pris une part active dans la vie culturelle de la Cité de Montréal.

Photo—National Film Board

Inwood Roadside Park on the Trans-Canada Highway near Inwood, Ont.

Housing On Wheels

by Bruce MacInnes

To the uninitiated, trailers are annoying appendages dragged behind automobiles; they obstruct the view ahead and slow highway traffic behind. To the trailer enthusiast, however, they are either streamlined chrome castles called mobile homes, most of which are semi-permanent and can be moved only by commercial vehicles, or compact travel trailers towed by private automobiles for vacation purposes.

Utopia for the true trailerite is not two cars in every garage but the proud ownership of two units — a mobile home for daily needs and a travel trailer for recreation.

The appointments and size of mobile homes today show no trace of their ancestry, which includes the rickety conveyances used by migrant workers in the 1930's. Present-day land-cruisers compare favourably in comfort, though not in space, with dwellings firmly wedded to the ground. Ironically, though mobile homes provide freedom of movement, few of them move more than once every two years; on the basis of family allowance statistics, it is known that Canadian families with children move on the average of once every four years.

From a modest beginning the mobile home has been steadily increasing in size; today the highest proportion being sold range from 40 to 50 feet in length and up to 10 feet in width. These behemoths can be purchased in a style to suit any taste. They come in double deckers, tri- and split-levels, complete with dormer windows and gabled roofs. The fittings include everything from baths to broadlooms, lamps to laundries. Although the medium-sized mobile home can still be hauled by the family car with a brave driver, it is no longer possible to move the larger type — now the highest seller — with a private automobile and an ancillary industry has sprung up for the purpose. The cost of moving the home from one location to another is slightly less than moving a load of furniture, or about 40 cents a mile.

The price range of the mobile home is from $5,000 to $8,000, depending on length, breadth and fittings. In 1957 more than 3,600 units were produced in Canada and about 7,000 were imported from the United States. The industry reported sales of about 8,000 in 1957. Figures are not complete for 1958, but imports fell off drastically to about 4,000 units. At the same time domestic production increased and approximately 9,000 units were sold. The manufacturers of mobile homes expect the market to remain firm at about 9,000 units for 1959. United States statistics reveal that about 85% of trailer sales, equal to 10% of the housing starts in the United States, are for semi-permanent homes.

The attitude of government authorities will influence greatly the future sale of trailers in Canada. A lingering bias, associated with the nomadic and ramshackle trailer camps of the 1930's, is particularly prevalent among municipal officers. The modern trailerite is, however, not a hobo or a vagrant, but a substantial hard-working citizen with perhaps just a little more joie de vivre than the more stolid majority. He is as much concerned as any comparable citizen that an equitable

Photo—National Film Board

Trailer Park, Peterborough.

taxation agreement be worked out so that his children may be educated properly.

Well-run trailer camps with adequate taxation methods are feasible, but to date are few and far between. An amendment to the Ontario Municipal Act was passed in 1956 allowing municipalities to charge a maximum licence fee of $10 per month per unit. This legislation falls short of solving the problem because in many instances the fee is more than other ratepayers are contributing to schools and municipal services and yet it does not enfranchise the mobile home-owner.

A planned subdivision-type of trailer camp, which is one of the new approaches to the problem, can be an asset to a community — not only for semi-permanent residents but also as tourist accommodation.

The mobile home-owner may derive some comfort from the knowledge that, even if he feels there is a discriminatory attitude in this country, he is much better off than his counterpart in England. In Britain, the traditional land of the home-owner, the caravanner is still equated with the gypsy and in some localities is put so low on the social scale that he is denied admittance to that most hallowed of all English institutions — the pub.

A cross section of the trailer population would compare very favourably, both in amount and source of income, with any group of citizens living in either detached houses or apartment dwellings. For example a census of the Covered Wagon Park in Winnipeg, comprising 115 units, shows that the inhabitants included 60 school children, 10 retired couples, five school teachers, one minister, one office manager, one geologist, one television actor, three power commission men, 10 railroad men, office workers, skilled labourers and a good representation of army and air force personnel.

Mobile home life is attractive to newlyweds and others who desire privacy but cannot afford to establish the traditional type of home. The down payment on a mobile home is little more than the cost of furnishing an apartment. It comes completely equipped and furnished, and the monthly payments are about the same as the rental for leased accommodation.

Elderly retired people comprise less than 10% of the trailer population in Canada, although this figure is growing steadily.

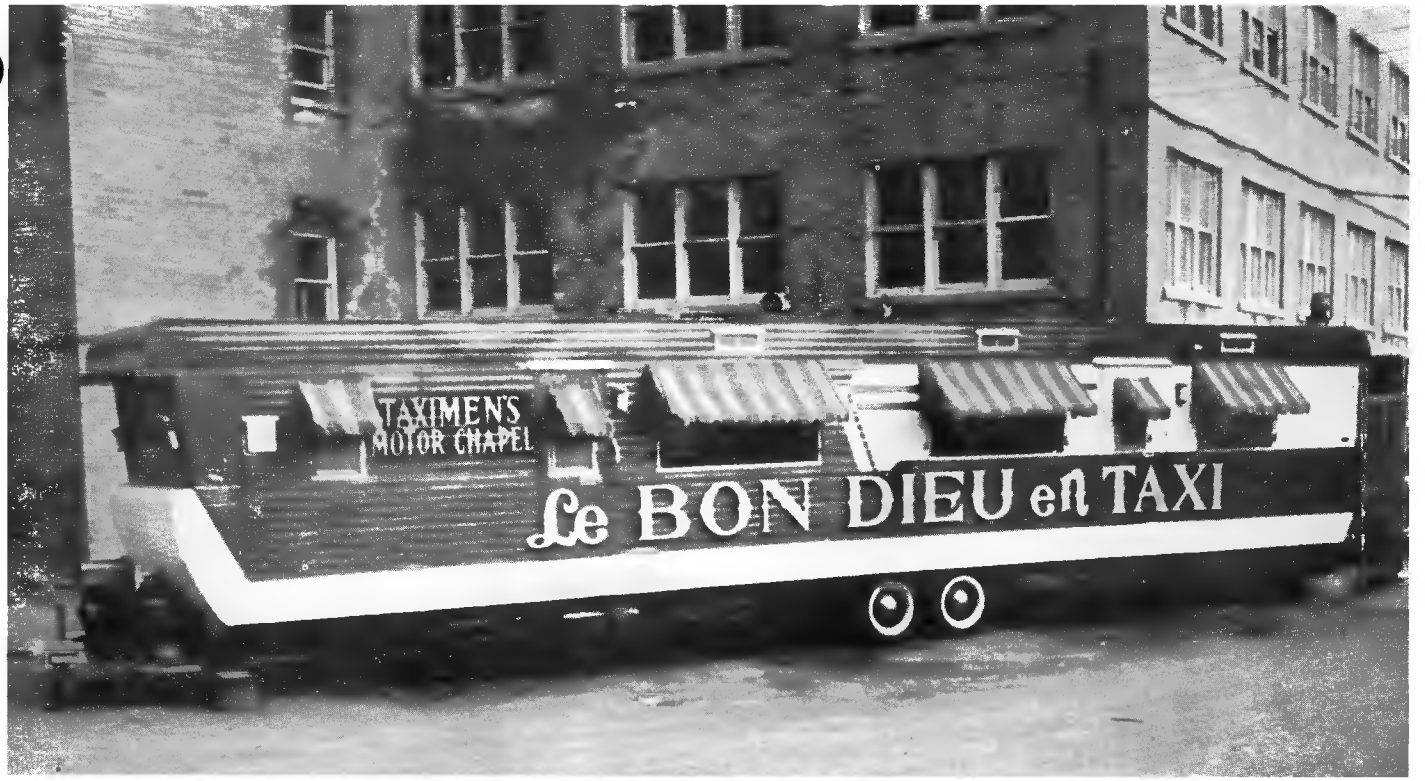
Workers on construction and mining projects whose onsite stay is limited find this type of housing particularly suited to their means of livelihood.

In spite of the restrictive size of their homes, trailer families must enjoy their mode of living and be convinced they have a housing bargain, because one of every two trailer sales in Canada is to people trading in their used mobile home for a newer and more elaborate one.

Even when the land cruiser becomes semi-permanent, its mobility can be turned to occasional economic advantage. If the opportunity for more lucrative employment arises in a different locality, the trailerite has no long-term mortgage to sell. He merely spends five minutes disconnecting the services, cushions the china cabinet with a couple of pillows, remembers to round up the children and is off to greener fields.

Interior of one of the larger mobile homes.

Photo—Ron Nelson, London, Ont.



Photo—Andre Beauregarde

Motor Chapel, Montreal.

Perhaps a mobile home's greatest advantage is for use on construction projects and mining jobs. Much of the temporary labour needed in building the St. Lawrence Seaway was housed in trailers. As well as providing comfortable family living, the influx of mobile homes helped to avert overcrowding and rent-gouging — two evils generally associated with boom towns.

The uranium mining area of Elliot Lake demonstrates the mobile home's potential for use in the development of Canada's virgin wilderness. With the opening of the mines, the population soared to nearly 25,000 in the town and surrounding area. Some 40% of these people reside in mobile homes. To accommodate the workers without the use of mobile living quarters would mean lack of family life, people crowded into sub-standard dwellings, more buildings than the town might reasonably support over the long term. It is an ideal solution to have the portion of the population, who are only temporary residents, live in dwellings which can be moved.

Mobile homes can withstand the most severe winter conditions. At Tok, Alaska, where on occasion the temperature drops to −65° there is a large colony. The Canadian Army has used them successfully for Arctic manoeuvres and during construction of the DEW Line they proved invaluable.

The Public Housing Administration in the United States has stockpiled 1,000 units to be rushed to disaster areas in the event of hurricanes, tornadoes or floods. The American civil defence organization is contemplating using them for emergency housing in case of atomic attack. In recent tests undertaken in Yucca Flats trailers withstood blast effects as well as the traditional types of housing.

One of the biggest and certainly the longest trailer constructed in Canada has been completed by the General Coach Works of Canada Ltd. The vehicle is 55 feet long and 10 feet wide and was designed by Father Claude Langlois for use as a mobile chapel by the taxi drivers of Montreal, whose irregular hours do not permit normal attendance at church. The chapel is known as "Le Bon Dieu en Taxi" and is presided over by Reverend Paul Acquin. It will accommodate 60 persons seated or 125 standing.

Mobile homes are praised by economists for adding mobility to the labour force, deplored by sociologists for their cramped quarters and the semi-nomadic existence they encourage, and disliked by most municipal authorities. Whatever their merit, they are preferred by a substantial segment of our population and have become part of the Canadian scene.

Photo—Max Fleet

South Hill Village, Don Mills, Toronto.

Canadian Housing Design Awards

DESIGN AWARDS 1959—House Grouping

Since its formation in 1956 the Canadian Housing Design Council has had as an objective the improvement of house design in Canada. To bring to the attention of the public and builders the better designed houses being built in Canada, the Council has offered a series of awards for good design of single houses.

Mindful, however, that the repetition of well designed individual houses does not necessarily make successful groups of houses, the Council this year added awards for house grouping. The design of housing groups presents the opportunity of creating a recognizable space surrounded by ordered and related houses. The designers have the advantage of correlating all the elements which make a satisfactory composition, buildings and landscaping, space, roads, walks and curbs and the street furniture – utility lines, street lights and fire hydrants.

Since the character of a neighbourhood rests principally upon the space created when buildings are placed near one another, the proportions of the outside spaces were given as much care as inside spaces. The space created gave a sense of containment without completely cutting off the distant view. There was a definite relation between the housing unit and the group and between the height of the group and the length and breadth of the spaces. The housing was part of a pattern; colour and materials were part of the design; common features such as doors and windows were given consistent treatment. The roads appeared to serve, not dominate the scene. Each street was given a focal point. Carports or garages were used to link the units.

The judges' report emphasized the inherent value and the livability brought about by good design and layout.

A number of flaws were common to most of the groups which did not win awards. Arbitrary inconsistency of form was imposed on houses that were intrinsically alike. Some builders insisted on restless change in roof forms and colours on adjoining houses. Another flaw was neglect of appearance from one side of a house. The lowest, most retiring house was placed at the climax of a street view where the strongest building form should have appeared. In some cases no attempt was made to soften and subdue the harsh lines of roads, pavements and curbs. The split-level design was used on sites not appropriate for this type. The use of setback was misunderstood by some designers and was imposed with too much regularity or was too small in scale to achieve the desired effect.

South Hill Village, Don Mills, Toronto.

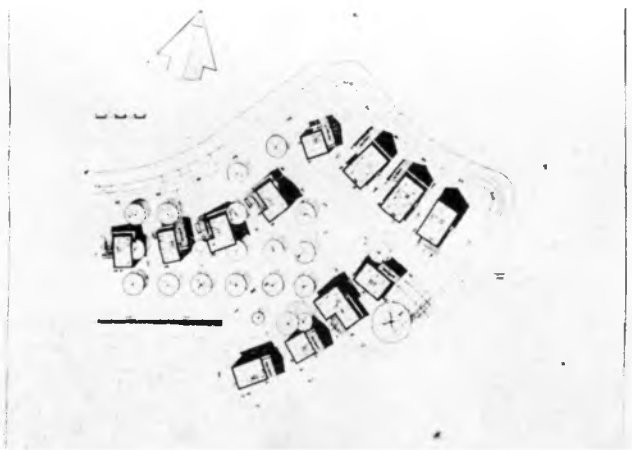
Builders Roy P. Rogers Enterprises and architects James A. Murray and Henry Fliess achieved a masterpiece of urban design in the group of 120 row houses and maisonettes built at South Hill Village, Don Mills, Toronto. Each building sets off the other to advantage; none has the showiness many developers think necessary. The heights of the various fronts respond to the slopes of the ground, to each other and to their neighbours. The land forms and the mature trees were respected as they were found and were given heightened value by being made part of the street scene. The treatment of the ground-planes between buildings was simplified and the edges of roadways were subdued so they do not detract from the buildings. A large number of car parking spaces was provided with an equally skilful and economical use of the land.

Oromocto, New Brunswick.

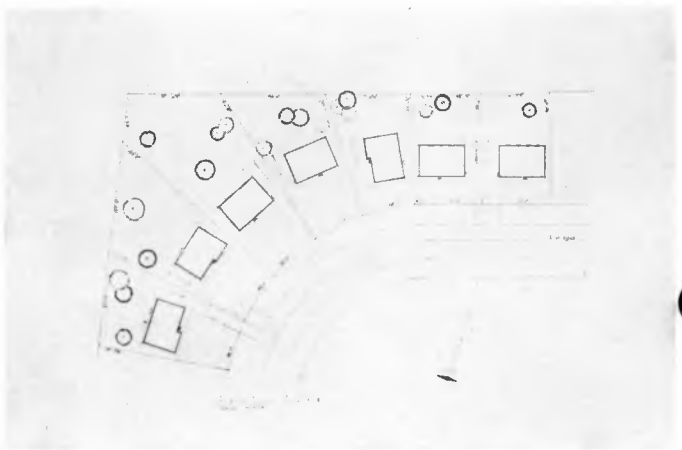
The group built in Oromocto, New Brunswick, by Brad Industries Ltd. and designed by W. G. Cook, was made up of 29 houses and presented a more complete arrangement of street and garden spaces and house grouping than the smaller groups. Simple, inexpensive elements and constancy to a single architectural idiom produced a unified composition notwithstanding the different sizes of the individual houses. Harmony was obtained by the consistent design in pre-cut elements such as windows. A more subtle basis of unity was achieved by the linking, in pairs by garages, in threes by a uniform setback, in a group by a common roof colour and in a street by supplying a beginning and an end. The treatment of the rolling landscape was sensitive. More contrast might be needed if such development were to be carried over a larger area.

Photo—Gilbert A. Milne

Photo—Max Fleet



Curran Hall Park, Toronto.



Farmcote Road, Don Mills, Toronto.

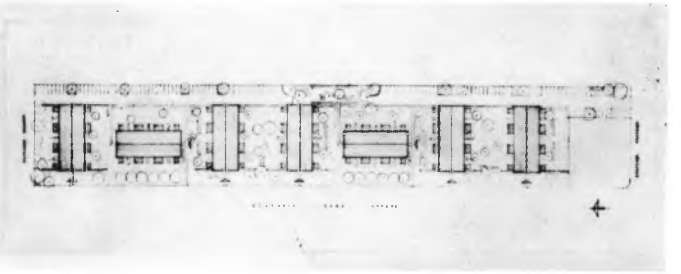
An outstanding achievement of the builders of Curran Hall Park at Scarborough was the preservation of the existing orchard. By skilful arrangement of the houses, almost four out of five trees were retained. An uninterrupted flow of grass from one house to the next along with the full grown trees give a mature view unique in a new development. The street appearance was less attractive and possibly suffered from the care given to the rear lawn and orchard. There appeared to be no good reason for the placing of the two-storey corner house askew on its lot and this marred an otherwise fine achievement. Curran Hall Limited, was the builder and the development was designed by Edward Ross, architect.

The group of seven houses on Farmcote Road, Don Mills, Toronto, is simple, disciplined and direct. The problem of siting around the outside of a curve was ably handled. A significant setback was used, removing houses off the curve from headlight glare at night. A strong, simple house shape with gable end to the street was placed at the end of the widened curve bringing the building line up nearer the road. The key house is distinctive but does not dominate the others, it acknowledges the height of their eaves by vigorous moulding across its exposed gable end. The street furniture, particularly the street lamps, add to the fine effect of the whole. The group was designed by architect Ralph M. Goldman and built by Perkell Bros.

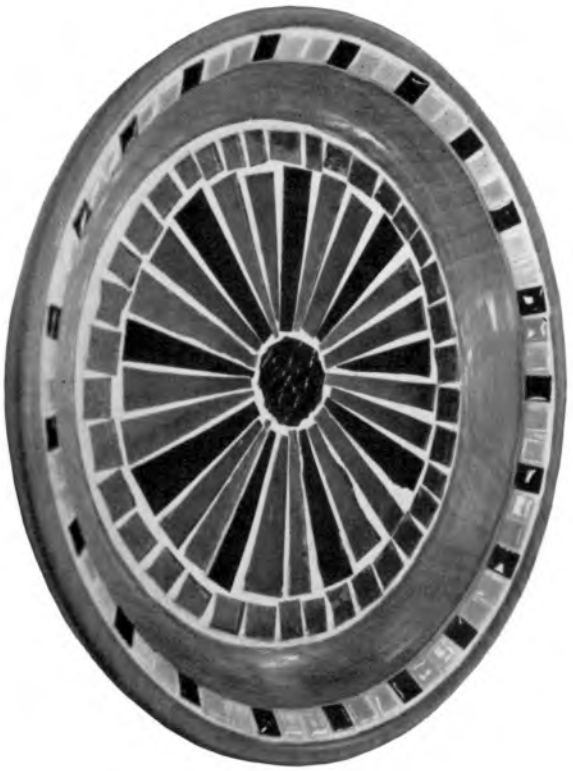
Parkway West, Toronto. *Photo—Max Fleet*

In the small group of houses on Parkway West, Don Mills, Toronto, the builder, Roy P. Rogers Enterprises and architects, James A. Murray and Henry Fliess, overcame an uncommon but difficult problem of siting. The houses overlook a ravine and are served by a hair-pin loop of road. The view behind the houses is unobstructed by utility lines although these mar the front. A good feature was the provision of car space under the main roof to eliminate the possibility of a haphazard arrangement of garages later spoiling the street front.

Cadillac Construction & Developments and architect Henry Fliess made skilful use of a difficult site in the rental housing on Victoria Park Avenue, Toronto. The strip of land strung along a busy road called for high density housing without tall buildings. The solution was achieved by building row houses set back-to-back so that the typical dwelling had three party walls. This permitted the dwellings to huddle on the site with as much space as possible between their fronts. There is direct access to the outside spaces from each dwelling — an advantage not enjoyed by apartment dwellers. The restriction of the outlook to a single direction from the house made the view of vital importance and the building elevations are all straightforward and worthy to look upon. Car parking areas and a central play-lot were provided to the rear of the site.



Victoria Park Ave., Toronto. *Photo—Max Fleet*



LA MOSAÏQUE

Bol à fruits diamètre 11 pouces. Acajou naturel, avec tessères céramiques incrustées et fond en mosaïque-vitrail.

par Victor Lecram

Avec le retour sur les arts anciens en application contemporaine, on a vu sur le marché, nombre de mosaïques faire leur apparition sous diverses formes. Les reliques du passé nous révèlent que la mosaïque à l'origine servait principalement à orner les pavés, les murs et les plafonds des édifices publics et des maisons des riches particuliers, dont les plus connues sont la mosaïque de Palestrine, la fameuse mosaïque de Pompéi, la mosaïque de la Villa Albani, et la mosaïque de Délos à Pompéi.

Aujourd'hui, l'emploi de la mosaïque s'est étendu à toutes les formes de décoration depuis de simples bols à salade en céramique à mosaïque incrustée, jusqu'aux façades entières d'un édifice tel que la bibliothèque principale de l'Université de Mexico, qui sont l'œuvre de Juan O'Gorman. Dans la décoration contemporaine, cet art s'est répandu et vulgarisé au point que de jolies pièces de mosaïque peuvent être obtenues en décoration d'un segment de parquet, d'un dessus de table, de bahut, ou d'autre mobilier.

Sans origine connue bien définie, on croit que l'art de la mosaïque est né en Asie; c'est cependant entre les mains des artistes de Grèce, de Rome, et de Byzance qu'il atteignit la perfection.

Le travail de la mosaïque est une œuvre de patience. On prépare un fond bien uni que l'on recouvre d'une couche de mastic plus ou moins épaisse. Sur ce fond, l'artiste trace les contours des figures qu'il veut représenter, puis prenant des petits fragments diversement colorés de marbre, de pierre ou de matière vitrifiée, il les implante dans le mastic. Les interstices sont ensuite remplis d'un coulis au ciment blanc ou teinté ou d'un autre produit pour servir de liant à la masse et produire un tout monolithe. Après durcissement, la face est ensuite polie avec des pierres au silex ou autre. Aujourd'hui, on a recours à de petits cubes de céramique taillés, de diverses couleurs et vitrifiés, posés sur un fond de béton puis solidifiés avec un coulis au plâtre ou au ciment.

Il y a nombre de pièces présentement sur le marché et beaucoup d'entre elles sont l'œuvre d'artisans habiles; mais les pièces en provenance de mosaïstes sont plutôt rares.

Récemment, un céramiste de renom, monsieur

Claude Vermette se lançait dans la mosaïque comme parement de bâtiment pour le climat canadien. Pour obvier aux températures extrêmes, ce spécialiste de la céramique a développé des carreaux qui résisteraient à l'effet du froid et de la chaleur tout en conservant leurs couleurs préparées spécialement à cette fin.

Aujourd'hui, beaucoup de personnes s'adonnent à ce "hobby" en réalisant un certain succès, et cette renaissance dans un art qui était tombé en désuétude, a réussi à populariser et mettre à la portée de plus de gens, ce qui était considéré autrefois comme un grand luxe dans l'art décoratif.

Comme dans tous les autres arts, il y a des abus sur le marché qui naissent uniquement du fait qu'une tendance vers un produit nouveau s'est développée dans la décoration. Même s'il y a de la camelote, on rencontre toutefois, des pièces sérieuses réalisées par des mosaïstes encore inconnus. Comme toujours à travers les siècles, le prix élevé auquel revient une belle mosaïque sera peut-être un obstacle au développement de cet art.

Récemment, parut une autre forme de vitrail-mosaïque dont l'application pourrait mettre à la portée des bourses plus modestes, des panneaux décoratifs en verre teinté ou peint.

Le procédé consiste à préparer les pièces de verre taillées au besoin sur les motifs comme dans le cas du vitrail, ou encore, taillées en petits carreaux réguliers, pour en faire une mosaïque.

Les pièces de verre sont ensuite montées sur une glace — l'épaisseur variant suivant la grandeur du verre — au moyen d'un adhésif élastique, et après durcissement, les interstices sont remplis d'un coulis.

Le verre est alors assemblé dans un cadre pour être suspendu devant une source quelconque de lumière; ou il peut être mis en position dans une fenêtre, une porte, etc. . . .

Il est possible de réaliser ainsi de jolies mosaïques qui se transforment en vitraux.

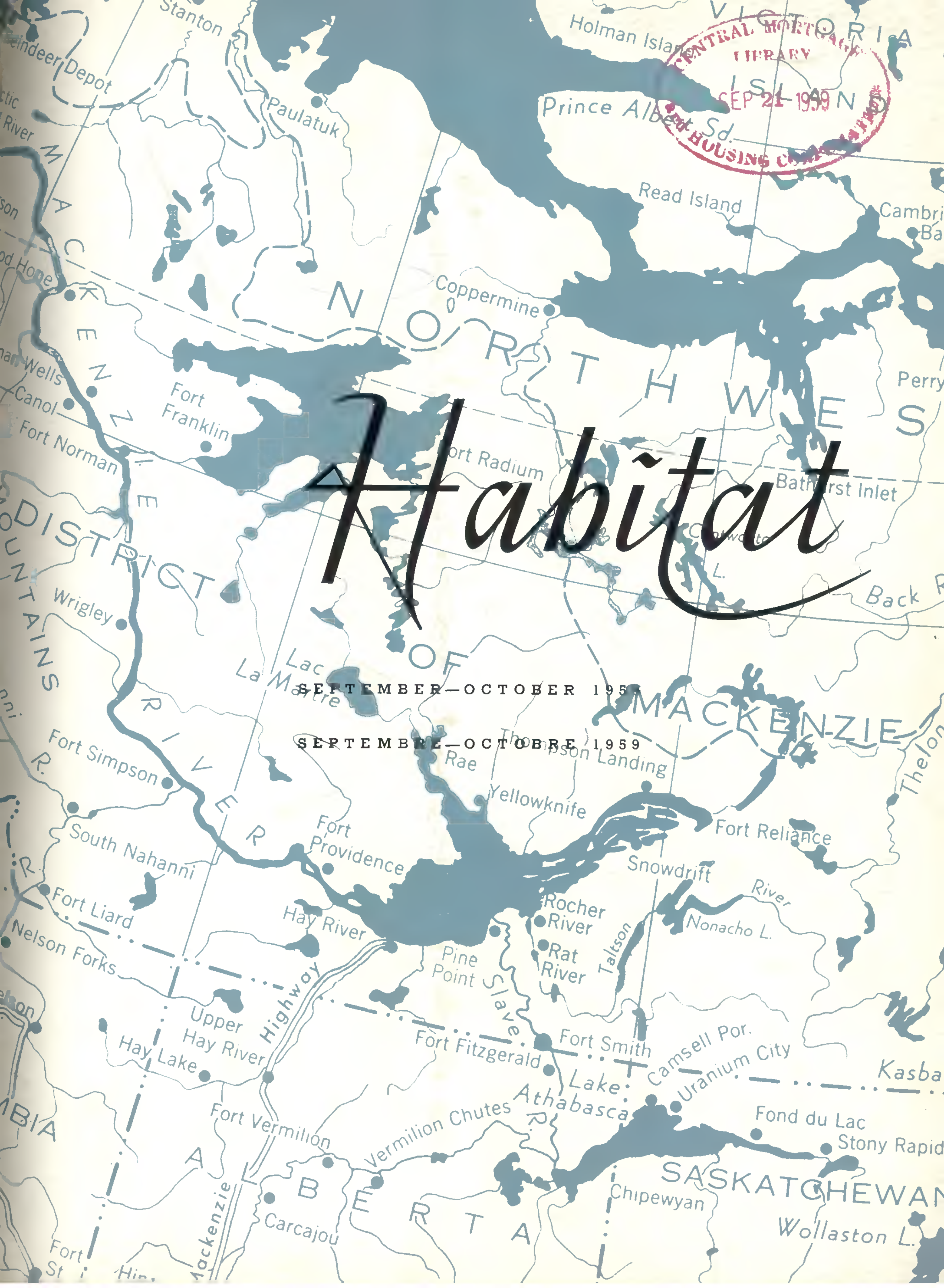
Pour qui saurait peindre sur glace, les couleurs peuvent être nuancées, et de ce fait, les dessins deviennent plus raffinés et détaillés. Ceci est une opération assez complexe en elle-même et elle a fait école sous Dihl, à l'époque du Premier Empire. La *peinture sur glace* se distingue de la *peinture sur verre* du XVe siècle en ce que la première emploie des couleurs vitrifiables sur le verre clair, alors que la seconde emploie ces mêmes couleurs sur du verre doublé. Dans ce dernier cas, on enlevait à l'eau et à l'émeri, jusqu'à la couche incolore, toute la partie du verre coloré indiquée par le dessin . . . on appliquait ensuite un émail d'or, d'argent ou d'une autre couleur sur le fond champlevé; enfin, on repassait la pièce au feu.

De nos jours, les architectes, dans la préparation des plans de nombre de maisons et les architectes décorateurs ont recours à la mosaïque sous toutes ses formes et aux vitraux pour réaliser des effets d'une beauté remarquable. Les matériaux les plus divers ont été employés à cette fin et avec les expériences qui se font présentement à cause de la nature de notre climat, on verra peut-être des oeuvres typiquement canadiennes par des artistes canadiens, orner nos maisons, nos édifices et nos palaces.

Et puis les sujets qui font l'objet de ces artistes canadiens auront pour le moins une inspiration canadienne. Sans avoir à rejeter les sujets d'inspiration étrangère, nous avons au Canada une faune et une flore ainsi qu'un folklore pour ne pas dire une histoire dont l'inspiration ne tarira à peu près jamais pour illustrer le progrès de notre jeune nation.

"Veronica"—mosaïque-vitrail polychrome 14" x 24". Aucun plomb. Montage sur verre à glace ¼ pouce.

CENTRAL MORTGAGE AND HOUSING CORPORATION
SOCIÉTÉ CENTRALE D'HYPOTHÈQUES ET DE LOGEMENT
OTTAWA • CANADA



Habitat

SEPTEMBER—OCTOBER 1959

SEPTEMBRE—OCTOBRE 1959


HUDSONS BAY COMPANY

The waterfront of the Old Town of Yellowknife, opposite, was photographed at 11 p.m. by the light of the "midnight sun".

Habitat

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contents

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THE HEART

Flying into Yellowknife, the largest community in the Northwest Territories, is almost like entering another land.

To get there you have to fly over hundreds of miles of almost uninhabited bush country. You have to cross Great Slave Lake, an expanse of water greater than Lake Ontario, and dwarfed in Canada only by Lakes Superior and Huron and by Great Bear Lake, a few hundred miles to the north of Slave.

Yellowknife is only 700 air miles north of Edmonton. But it is within 300 miles of the Arctic Circle and is literally in the heart of Canada's last frontier. Leave the town by air and within a few minutes all you can see is the vast wilderness of the District of Mackenzie. The nearest settlement, Fort Rae, is 50 miles away at the head of the north arm of Great Slave Lake. The surrounding countryside is a seemingly endless composition of lakes and rivers, interspersed with trees, moss-covered rock and muskeg.

Because the northern limit of Canada's treeline dips sharply north of Yellowknife, the trees – mostly pine and spruce – are small, almost stunted. The muskeg, a low-lying wet area found throughout the North, once was described as a lake with water "too thick to drink and too thin to build on".

In spite of the ruggedness, the visitor's reaction is one of surprise upon entering Yellowknife. For, as Mayor Ted Horton has put it, the town "must be darn near the most comfortable 'last frontier' any Canadian pioneer or trail-blazer ever suffered".

The town has all the atmosphere of the frontier. Its people, with a forthrightness common to the "free north" and with the knowledge that they *do* live in a frontier community, refer to the rest of Canada as the "Outside".

Yellowknife is a place where you meet Indians and prospectors, bush pilots and miners. But the setting is not what you might expect. You will sit down next to an Indian in a modern and attractive restaurant. The man across the hall from you in a first-class hotel might be a prospector, in town to replenish his supplies. A bush pilot might invite you to his home, a neat and compact house in one of the town's new subdivisions. The miners you see on the street might be on their way to the theatre, or to a ball game at the park.

The Outsider who hopes to find a small, rough-neck mining community will be disappointed. The townspeople recall the looks of amazement on the faces of some new arrivals who later admitted they had expected a shack town. For, with a population approaching the 4,000 mark, Yellowknife is a thriving and well-ordered community, a fairly typical Canadian western town.

The one big difference is its isolation. There are no roads or railways leading into Yellowknife and the summer visitor can get there only by air. Tugs and barges move across the lake to Yellowknife, but normally

OF THE LAST FRONTIER

by Michael Sullivan

these do not carry passengers. In the summer all freight has to be brought in by barge or by aircraft. After the freeze-up, trucks travel the winter road from Hay River, on the south shore of Great Slave Lake at the end of the Mackenzie Highway. But the winter road is no place for the tourist; it means skirting the shore of the lake and travelling over frozen muskeg. Occasionally trucks bring in private automobiles in convoy, but this is the exception rather than the rule.

Apart from its isolation, Yellowknife compares favorably with many towns of the same size on the Outside. Its wide main street — Franklin — would be a credit to many a larger community (yet, perhaps with tongue in cheek, some residents complain that it is wide enough only for parallel, not angle parking). Although there are not too many roads in Yellowknife, there are many cars and taxis in the town.

FOUNDED ON GOLD

The history of the Yellowknife area goes back at least to the 1890's, to the era of the Yukon gold rush. At that time men were prospecting for gold on the banks of Yellowknife Bay and the story goes that they became bored with their solitary camp life. When the cry of gold came out of the Klondike, they forsook the possibility of wealth on the shores of Great Slave Lake. The land they deserted later became one of Canada's richest gold producers. Had they remained they might have become wealthy men — and the town of Yellowknife might have been founded some 40 years earlier.

As it turned out, it wasn't until 1933 that the world first heard of huge gold deposits in the area. The find was made when a group of Government geologists surveyed the district. Their discovery sparked another gold rush and the first mine, operated by Consolidated Mining and Smelting Limited, went into business one year before the beginning of World War II. Production slowed during the war, but in 1945 there was another boom and today there are three mines operating in the area 24 hours a day, every day of the year. The mines are Con, Consolidated Discovery Gold Mine and Giant Yellowknife Gold Mines. In the last 15 years the combined production has jumped from $2,000,000 to upwards of $10,000,000 a year and it all goes to the Royal Mint at Ottawa — by registered mail.

You might think the name Yellowknife came from the gold on which the town is founded, but actually the name was given by earlier visitors who had no notion of the wealth below the ground. They called the area Yellowknife because of the copper tools used by the natives there.

Yellowknife is split into two distinct parts, the Old Town and the New Town. The Old Town, located on a peninsula and two islands in Yellowknife Bay, was set up more than 20 years ago. Centred around a rock — at first sight you get an impression of a little Gibraltar

Modern road-building equipment in a New Town subdivision.

This house, typical of the new Yellowknife, would compare with many on the Outside.

Yellowknife's new Roman Catholic church.

– it is a collection of warehouses and stores, docks, shacks and cabins that were mostly built by the pioneers in the 10 years following discovery of gold.

It is the centre of transportation, the place where you can hear the steady drone of float planes taking off with supplies for the prospectors scattered through the bush. On a summer day you can watch the barges move into the birch-lined Bay to unload their supplies at the docks. Together with its sizeable Indian population and the general bustle, perhaps the Old Town better portrays the glamor of the North.

But the rock left little room for planned expansion, and when the second boom hit Yellowknife after the war the Federal Government surveyed a new townsite on a ridge overlooking the Bay. The Old Town still remains the headquarters of bush pilots and barge men, but the New Town is the centre of business in Yellowknife today.

The New Town is the site of most of the new houses – attractive and sturdy houses which, although not as elaborate perhaps as those on the Outside, are built to withstand the harsh winters of the North. The municipality – Yellowknife is the first and only locally-governed town in the Territories – goes out of its way to maintain a high standard of housing and has adopted the National Building Code as part of its local legislation. There is a zoning by-law in preparation and the town also hopes to set up a park for the many trailers that move in.

The house-building industry in Yellowknife has its own unique problems. For example, on the Outside it generally requires only one or two loads of fill for the average lot. In Yellowknife, six or seven loads are normally needed and there have been occasions when this number has reached 20. The cost of construction is – on the average – probably lower than the prevailing rates Outside. This is a result of the compactness of design in houses in the North and the fact that building sites are generally less expensive. Prices of houses range anywhere from around $8,000 upwards.

But the biggest problem of all – and this goes for most goods – is freight. If a builder runs out of materials, it would take up to a couple of months to get delivery. As a result, many businessmen in Yellowknife carry a nine-month inventory. The problem of freight, however, is likely to be overcome when the Federal Government completes the hook-up to the Mackenzie Highway. The new highway is already under construction, running 20 miles out of Yellowknife, and the town hopes it will be ready for operation by next year. It will entail a 1,200-mile drive to Edmonton, but it will

also mean the end to long delays in getting much-needed supplies into the town. And once the highway is built, the people expect the cost of living in Yellowknife to drop considerably.

FAITH IN THE FUTURE

The attitude of long-time residents of Yellowknife is one of obvious pride in the community. This is reflected in the easy hospitality, the quick enthusiasm for everything they point out to a visitor and the matter-of-fact way in which they expect him to respond. They have a feeling – you notice it the moment you arrive – of confident optimism in the North. There is only one way to go, and that is ahead. Everything that is good today will be wonderful tomorrow.

They claim, and rightly too, that "we've got everything here you've got on the Outside".

The town has its own water and sewer services. In winter, when the temperature can drop to 60 below, the water is heated at a central plant and by the time it circulates and the unused water gets back to the plant it has dropped to near freezing point.

Apart from the mines there are a few light industries. Every type of business is also represented, including a "dairy" where powdered milk from the Outside is mixed and sold. There are three hotels, about six restaurants and a movie house.

The 40-bed hospital, with three resident doctors, is run by the town and until this year had its own form of hospital insurance. Yellowknife has its own radio station. Until last year CFYK was run by the residents themselves on a voluntary basis. Now the Canadian Broadcasting Corporation has taken over, but the station still retains much of its local flavor.

The town has a weekly newspaper – *The News of the North* – owned and operated by Mayor Horton. The newspaper's columns prove that many of Yellowknife's problems are the same as in Outside communities, although a great many other items deal with problems unique to the North.

It has an excellent school system: public and separate schools and the new Franklin School, a composite high school and vocational training institute.

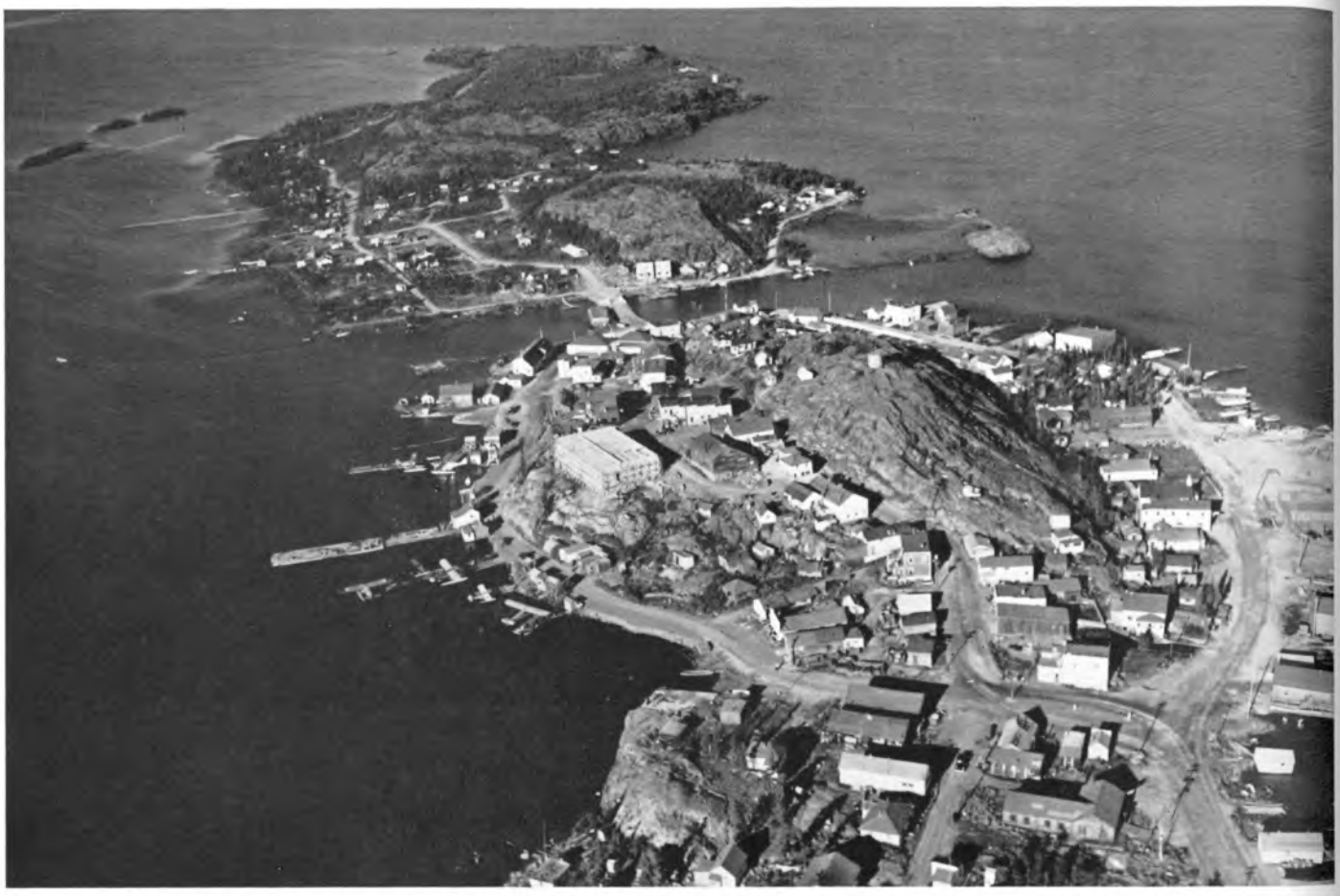
There are churches, ball parks and beaches, a golf club – probably one of the few in the world where in summer you can play all night because of the midnight sun. You can curl at the town's four-sheet rink, and play hockey or skate at the arena.

Earlier this year you could even listen to a symphony concert, when the Edmonton Symphony Or-

Yellowknife's Public School.

Housing for Federal employees.

The Gerry Murphy Arena.



The peninsula and one of the islands of the Old Town. *Photo–National Film Board*

chestra, with the aid of a Canada Council grant, flew up to Yellowknife for two performances.

In fact, there are only two things that Yellowknife cannot yet lay claim to – television and livestock. TV is a long way off, but at the rate multiwave relay stations are approaching the Territories, some people expect the town will be able to receive scheduled television programmes within five years. Already there is a move underway to get closed-circuit TV.

Livestock is another matter. In the past the town has attempted to raise a few head of dairy cattle but, with the climate and the condition of the ground, the odds were stacked heavily against success. It is not impossible to grow grass. There are small lawns in front of many of the houses in the town, lawns that have been laboriously built on fill trucked in to cover the rock – and that again offers proof of the townspeople's confidence in the future of their community. Many people also have small greenhouses made of plastic where, during the short summer, they grow a few of their own vegetables.

Nobody expects Yellowknife to blossom into a big city overnight. But they do expect to see steady growth. There are already signs of this – a seven-room addition to the public school scheduled for this year, a new wing being built on the Hudson's Bay Company's store, plans for a new Anglican church, the new housing and Federal buildings that go up each year, the annual increase in freight moving into Yellowknife and the gradual gain in population.

In the final report of the Royal Commission on Canada's Economic Prospects appears the following:

> *"It (the North) is still an empty country and, in spite of the population growth that we anticipate, will remain relatively so. In the whole of the Northwest Territories with its 1,300,000 square miles*

there are more than 15,000 people; and the military bases, mining camps, trading posts and administrative centres are hardly more than pin-pricks in the surrounding bush and muskeg and barrens. There will be important economic developments in this area in the years to come. But it would take the ruthlessness of a Peter the Great to plant any large centres of population there".

But Mayor Horton sums up the attitude of the people of Yellowknife with this answer:

"The few thousand people now living here – and many of them have become permanent residents – came with the idea of making a fast buck and then getting out – but they came, they saw and they were conquered.

"Increasing use of 20 and 30-year mortgage money for residential construction indicates the faith of the people in the future of the North. No one who intends to make northern residence a matter of only money will assume the obligation of a mortgage unless he intends to stay".

He added: "there's a sense of helping to make history here in the North and though Yellowknife is a comfortable and modern place to live, one is in daily – almost hourly – contact with people who have just come back from lands still virtually unmapped".

Editor's Note:

This is the first of a series of articles on communities in the Canadian North.

The road from the Old to the New Town. Parts of the Old Town are so rocky that hydro poles are set in cribs.

One of Yellowknife's modern houses under construction.

A late-night shot of part of the waterfront.

La rue des Ursulines date de 1697.
Photo—Office provinciale de Publicité

L'habitation à Trois-Rivières

par Yvon Thériault

L'habitation est le premier problème social dans l'histoire tri-centenaire de la ville de Trois-Rivières.

Premier dans le temps, selon l'allusion des Relations des Jésuites aux bâtiments érigés en 1640 —

"qui deça, qui delà, suivant l'affection et la commodité d'un chacun".

Premier bien social du colon, car l'Habitation dans son sens original est:

"*établissement passager que les habitants d'une colonie font chez les nations amies pour le commerce, quand ils y demeurent plusieurs années de suite*". (dictionnaire Trévoux).

Pierre Boucher, le factotum de l'unité trifluvienne en 1650, établira le premier cadastre qui conserve toujours ses droits. Il accordera des concessions de 120 pieds carrés avec obligation de bâtir dans l'année et de "fermer la ville d'une renclore de bons pieux dans l'an de sa concession, sous peine de nullité".

En 1704, après 70 ans d'existence, Trois-Rivières compte 49 maisons, y compris l'église paroissiale, la maison du gouverneur, le couvent des Récollets et 27 maisons particulières. La plupart de ces édifices, au dire de l'ingénieur Levasseur de Nérée, ne sont que "colombages et pièces de bois mises les unes sur les autres".

Il subsiste encore quelques maisons érigées sous le régime français à Trois-Rivières. Avant l'incendie de la moitié de la ville en 1908, une proportion imposante d'immeubles centenaires s'alignaient de chaque côté de rues étroites et poussiéreuses. La rue des Ursulines conserve cette allure ancienne avec son couvent de 1697, le vieux monastère récollet (aujourd'hui église anglicane), la maison de Gannes. Cette section de rue est l'une des plus vieilles du Canada et mérite toute l'attention d'un quartier historique véritable.

LE BOULEVERSEMENT INDUSTRIEL

Les années 1910-1930 ont profondément marqué le visage physique de Trois-Rivières. L'implantation massive de gigantesques industries attirées par le harnachement de la rivière St-Maurice a provoqué un entassement inouï. Des études rigoureusement exactes de l'urbaniste-conseil Benoit J. Bégin ont établi qu'en 1941, la ville de Trois-Rivières était la plus encombrée du Canada et peut-être de l'Amérique du Nord.

L'urgence de loger au plus tôt la population drainée par l'industrie a favorisé la construction d'horribles pigeonniers qui s'étirent d'une rue à l'autre sans autre séparation qu'une mince cloison de carton. Les restrictions du temps de guerre ont retardé la solution de ce pénible problème du logement à Trois-Rivières.

Aussi, n'est-il pas surprenant de constater dès 1946 un regain de vitalité dans le secteur domiciliaire. La décade 1941-1951 a enregistré la construction de 1,459 nouvelles maisons qui représentent 2,755 logements neufs. En l'espace de sept ans (1944-1951), le nombre de maisons uni-familiales est passé de 954 à 1,613 unités.

Aujourd'hui, près du cinquième de l'habitation trifluvienne est récente: 10 ans ou moins. Les vieilles maisons — surtout les parcs ouvriers — se décrépissent rapidement et deviennent des ilôts de taudis. La ville a cependant perdu des milliers de familles qui aujourd'hui habitent le Cap-de-la-Madeleine, tout en continuant de travailler à Trois-Rivières.

Le domaine bâti occupera avant deux ans tout le territoire de la ville, au rythme actuel d'expansion démographique.

LA DERNIÈRE DÉCADE

Depuis cinq ans (1954 à 1958 inclusivement), il s'est construit à Trois-Rivières, 1,506 nouveaux logements.

L'hôtel-de-ville a distribué 3,444 permis de construction dont la valeur déclarée à l'émission du permis s'élève à $29,618,150.

La période d'après-guerre a vu l'édification de quartier neufs: Normandville, Spémont, Coopérative Les Pins, Coopérative Ste-Marguerite, Secteur Ste-Marie. Un seul de ces noyaux paroissiaux (Normandville) groupe aujourd'hui plus de cinq cents maisons uni-familiales. La Coopérative Ste-Marguerite compte trois cents maisons bi-familiales. La nouvelle paroisse St-Jean de Brébeuf a été formée des 200 maisons de Spémont et des 125 du secteur Ste-Marie.

Toute cette implantation résidentielle s'est faite en périphérie de la ville, sur les côteaux. La plupart des maisons bâties depuis dix ans reflètent un certain confort, caractéristique d'une ville industrialisée. Le progrès technique du dernier demi-siècle, a certainement apporté une élévation du niveau de l'habitation. La ruée vers

Une belle grand maison dans le style ancien.

Photo—Léo Henrichon

Les escaliers des antichambres d'usines à la mode 1930.

Photo—Léo Henrichon

les tristes "antichambres d'usines" est passée. Le Trifluvien fier de son haut salaire s'installe dans un luxe relatif. Il a étouffé trop longtemps dans ses logements encombrés. Timidement, il se dirige vers des terrains annexés en douce. L'administration municipale ne boude pas ce progrès: elle arrive bientôt avec tous les services, même les trottoirs et les pavages. Les modes de représentation échevinale demeurent inchangés depuis 1852 (population 3,500). Heureusement, personne n'en a cure, et tout va pour le mieux dans le meilleur des mondes.

LE PROJET "LES PLATEAUX VERTS"

Les urbanistes-conseils Benoît-J. Bégin et Georges Robert ont récemment soumis à la ville de Trois-Rivières, un lotissement destiné à loger un "quartier résidentiel d'un standard élevé."

Parce que la ville occupe déjà la quasi totalité de son territoire actuel, ce projet de 600 lots est l'un des plus importants — et l'un des derniers aussi — de l'aménagement urbain. Le quartier d'habitation occupera un vaste amphithéâtre en bordure de la rivière St-Maurice. Les accidents de terrain-dénivellation, talus boisés, ravin de verdure — vont demeurés intacts. La science des urbanistes s'est même ingéniée à prolonger le magnifique décor de ce dernier coin de la Nature sauvage à Trois-Rivières. Une règlementation minutieuse préside à l'harmonie de l'architecture et de la nature, "souci constant des promoteurs du projet".

Les éléments du projet comprennent:

— 8 immeubles formant un total de 60 à 80 logements;
— 52 lots unifamiliaux d'environ 11,000 pieds carrés;
— 60 lots unifamiliaux d'environ 7,000 pieds carrés;
— 2 terrains de jeux;
— 1 parc promenade et une terrasse observatoire.

Les urbanistes Bégin et Robert ont prévu l'aménagement de 15.03 acres d'espaces verts, soit 23.10% du lotissement total. Ce secteur nommé "Les Plateaux Verts" s'intègre à une nouvelle unité paroissiale à l'extrême limite nord de la ville. Selon le rapport d'accompagnement du projet, cette future paroisse groupera une population de 3,500 habitants.

Le noyau paroissial comprendra:

— une église et son presbytère;
— une école de garçons et une école de filles;
— un gymnase et un terrain de jeux aménagé;
— un centre d'achat;
— une station de service;
— un jardin public;
— une hôtellerie pour vieillards.

La réalisation de ce projet d'urbanistes trifluviens marquera une nouvelle étape dans l'habitation locale: celle du raffinement animé par l'amour que nous portons tous à notre bonne vieille ville de Trois-Rivières. A moins que ce ne soit le début d'une cure de rajeunissement d'une cité de 325 ans (1634-1959).

Monsieur Yvon Thériault fut Moniteur au Centre d'Orientation professionnelle, Journaliste au quotidien Le Nouvelliste, ex-secrétaire et président du Syndicat des imprimeurs de T.R., directeur provincial de la Fédération des Imprimeurs de langue française du Canada. Il fut fondateur d'une société d'études, obtint un certificat de relations publiques, fut boursier du Conseil canadien des Chrétiens et des Juifs. Il est directeur provincial de l'ACU.

Photo—Geo. Heroux

PLANNING AS LANDSCAPE DESIGN

by Norman Pearson

The cities of today and the urban regions of tomorrow are greedy for space; and while there is enough space for all our purposes, our activities clash. That very conflict means our planning must be conceived as landscape design rather than as just a process of guiding land to its best use. Our planning is not a "co-operation with the inevitable"; it is not concerned with prediction and the fulfillment of prediction; it is concerned with control. How can we guide the sweeping changes of technology and the great tides of urbanism to best advantage?

Almost everywhere in North America the destruction of landscape goes on, and what rests is an unhappy mixture of badly related elements without meaning or satisfaction for our people. The terrible sixty years of deforestation in the marginal lands, which we have just begun to repair, was the contribution to the nineteenth-century outrages upon landscape. The dustbowls, the great urban sprawls, and the revolution in land use following the motor car bid fair to be the contribution of the twentieth century. The societies which can build a St. Lawrence Seaway or organize a Tennessee Valley Authority seem incapable of giving form to the metropolitan areas, and great opportunities for moulding a new landscape are ignored or mis-handled. Can we design a landscape? The question is rather what kind of surroundings do we want; what kind of relationship do we seek between people and their environment?

WHAT IS THE "REGIONAL CITY"?

What is the "regional city" so favored by the planners? Is it not merely the situation as it exists, projected to the years ahead in even worse examples than we know today? We all know that town and country are no longer separate entities; we know that people speak of the "mobile region" in Los Angeles, and that it is only a matter of years until the new highways spread the urban mess over huge tracts of land. There is no particular magic in the term "regional city" except in the size of the phenomenon. Cities grow into each other and become a new shapeless animal.

The striking point in all the literature on the subject is that it is in the main descriptive. Where sketches of the future Megalopolis are considered they seem rather to reflect the notions of Norman Bel Geddes' "Futurama" at the 1939 World's Fair or Le Corbusier's Urban Sketches for the 1920's than to be related to the needs and aspirations of urban man. What is important in the concept of the regional city is the potential: the idea

Mr. Pearson is Director of Planning of the Hamilton Wentworth Planning Area Board. He is a graduate of the University of Durham, England, where he majored in the Department of Town and Country Planning. After service with the Royal Air Force he joined the Planning Department of the London County Council. In 1954 he came to Canada and became a member of the Planning Department of CMHC. He has many published articles and in 1957 was awarded the President's Prize of the Town Planning Institute of the UK for his paper on "Shopping Centres in Canada".

Fort William, Ontario, situated to advantage on the Kaministiquia River with "Mount" MacKay in the background. This photograph was taken from above Port Arthur, the smaller of the twin grain ports.

Photo—Photographic Survey Corporation Limited

that, embodied in the sprawl, there is the possibility of a new and civilized environment. We have all the possibilities of providing material wants, but what of the necessities of decent surroundings? Did not Alberti say "the necessary things are those without which you cannot well pursue life . . . cities were created for no other reason than for men to live together in comfort and contentment."

COMFORT AND CONTENTMENT

Only public sanction and determined design will wrest a new civility from these messy surroundings. But before that task can be undertaken, in all our cities there must be a realization that we can and must design and control the landscape of the whole regions. We cannot simply describe the rot and ruin, but must actively deal with it; we must show what forms urban growth can take, what subtle and remarkable effects can be gained by care in location, site development, planning and treatment of space-relationships on a grand scale. And in the city's densely built areas we must show that the downtown is for people, that intimate and private spaces are as important as lively and active ones.

Where are the designs for a whole river valley, for the area around a St. Lawrence Seaway; where are the designs for Megalopolis itself? What do we expect of our planners, and what do they suggest to us, other than a patchwork of individual schemes and ideas (a shopping precinct here, a redevelopment scheme there, a critique of subdivisions or a plaint of interchanges)? We may see in the St. Lawrence Seaway a huge engineering project, new towns, relocated railways and roads, pioneer villages and all manner of technical ingenuity in moving houses and earth; but what results?

Is the new landscape anything to compare with the old? To be sure, the gas stations and hot-dog stands have gone, but so has the peculiar quality which distinguished the swamped areas . . . and in a vast Toronto or Montreal, it will take more than a great gesture of a City Hall or a well-maintained Mount Royal Park to maintain and augment urban quality. Parisians have an affectionate name for their great luminous metropolis . . . what do we call ours? They are more wen than wonder.

THE REGIONAL CITY EXISTS

The city of 1980 or any other convenient date is already implicit in what exists. But that is not to say we will see what we wish to see unless we set out to achieve it. What survey or statistic do we need to convince us that lakeshores need protection, that waterfalls are unique, that space is needed in the heart of the city (and that it may be more useful than the wilderness park far away from daily urban life)?

It is a terrifying prospect of potential catastrophe and a shock to the planning profession to hear the words of Henry Fagin, executive director of the Regional Planning Association:

> "*Somehow or other, despite thousands of man-hours spent on planning the regional aspects of important activities . . . somehow the thing as a whole is drifting this way and that without evidence of purpose and direction*".

If I see planning as landscape design on the grand scale it is because I feel that planners must help society make decisions on the purpose and direction of urban growth and the current revolution in land use. We are often asked whether land use patterns are predictable: perhaps we should ask instead whether they are controllable. We must predict to control: but the degree of predictability does not need to be remarkably refined to give us a very high degree of control; for control is an arbitrary choice or decision — the best-seeming alternative among many. And the problem of our surroundings is one of control . . . Who can suggest that the Ottawa Green Belt is in the best place or that it is the only choice available; or that it could have been predicted years ago? But who can deny that it will give Ottawa a definite form and that it will control the growth of the national capital in various ways?

If we are to give form to the surroundings we must as a society decide that control of that sort is a worthwhile activity. If we do decide in its favor we must solve the problems of how the control is to be made effective, and what pattern is to be followed to achieve our ends. We have all too few development plans for our surroundings, for matters of use, location, distribution and density. What chance do we have of achieving an over-all plan for the landscape?

Fontana Dam, on the Little Tennessee River in North Carolina, is TVA's highest dam, towering 480 feet.
Photo—Tennessee Valley Authority

Photo—Photographic Survey Corporation Limited

Toronto — an illustration of the magnitude of the present-day city.

PURPOSE AND DIRECTION

The purpose and direction which is needed can only come from the public authority: that is simply to say that if landscape has become a social problem it needs a solution in those terms. Before a public authority can produce a "landscape plan" there must be certain changes in our current practice.

- the planning agencies must employ landscape design specialists; and in their work with the public must emphasize the three-dimensional aspects of the process.
- in discussing schemes with developers the planning authorities should use site models and should also have models showing the setting of that particular site in the larger landscape.
- the planning survey should include a landscape analysis and a good photographic record; skylines, massing and grouping of plant material, viewpoints and natural and artificial effects should be noted.
- when any major public work (e.g. a new highway) is constructed it should be used to set a standard in more than engineering matters.
- in the development plans for the metropolitan areas there should be Federal and Provincial study of the green areas and major highway networks, as the crisis of landscape is a national emergency: the regional city does not necessarily need a new governing body if the Provincial and national authorities realize and assume their responsibilities.
- to allow proper flexibility in matters of landscape design on the intimate scale, there should be new legislation to allow "development control" by-laws rather than rigid zoning by-laws.
- the public authority should be required to plan and required to adopt a landscape plan as part of that official document which embodies policy. Such a

Photo—Photographic Survey Corporation Limited

Relocated railways and roads — St. Lawrence Seaway.

landscape plan should provide first, a basic concept of what general form the landscape might be guided towards; secondly, the framework within which design schemes for unit areas (e.g. neighborhoods or river valleys) might be devised; thirdly, the policies and possibility within those unit areas for direct negotiation with developers, and proper co-ordination with all civic departments so that there is a steady enrichment of our surroundings.

- to ensure an adequate supply of trained planners and landscape designers who understand each other's work, there should be established a full-time degree course in planning and a full-time degree course in landscape design at the same university (preferably in one of our metropolitan areas).

- to ensure critical appreciation and comment, agencies such as the Community Planning Association of Canada should be encouraged to establish groups like the "counter-attack on subtopia" movement Ian Nairn has begun in Britain, but with a positive function like that of the Civic Trust in the U.K.: to promote the good as well as rout the bad.

But these matters will not come about unless the professions concerned actively encourage, by precept and practice, a critical view and a wider appreciation of our surroundings. In the days when a feudal lord or a church dominated the landscape, there was effective control over the surroundings and a very limited perception of the delights of the landscape. When the Renaissance burst out to dragoon nature the critical audience was highly discriminating but the designers had to solve only a few purposes for a limited group; in the anarchy of the later European and North American societies the concept of design on the grand scale for all of society has often been forgotten and here in Canada rarely practised. But it is essential if we are not to lose the advantages our economic power has brought.

Elementary School, Ajax, Ontario.

Photo—CMHC

TRENDS IN EDUCATION

by Bruce MacInnes

Although the school traffic monitors in their white-belted omnipotence signify once again the opening of a school year, parents have anticipated its return for some time. The sigh of relief most mothers feel when once again their brood is handed over to the daily surveillance of the school authorities is tempered somewhat by the rounds of shopping that have preceded the opening.

In a country such as ours education is the business of people in all walks of life. We all attend school; later most of us have children in whose development we are vitally concerned.

Nearly everyone has formulated his own opinions on how the educational system should be operated. As Jimmie Durante has often stated, "Everybody's getting in the act." People who have not studied the subject make all-inclusive statements about what the schools should accomplish. Experienced educators and thoughtful persons realize that no one theory can be applied to all of the young. An uninformed person might say children should be thoroughly disciplined in school, or children should be allowed complete freedom. Neither statement is right or wrong — both are half-truths. A flexible formula must be found that can be adapted to different situations and different personalities.

Although we think of Canada as a young country, education was available shortly after the pioneers had settled the land and it is interesting to note that our development of education coincided with the development in older, more settled parts of the world.

During the pioneer period 1800-1840, life was rigorous and there was little opportunity for intellectual pursuits. Schools were regarded as places where those who might enter the professions or take positions in the government were trained. At that time no country in the

world had a system of universal education. In Upper Canada the District Public School Act of 1807, which provided grants of £100 a year to the masters of eight public schools, marked the commencement of public education.

By 1830, Upper Canada had about 400 elementary schools to serve a population of 200,000. At the same time there were about 50 secondary schools, of which 13 were public – the rest were private academies or schools run by religious sects. However the population was widely dispersed and consequently the schools were sparsely attended. The typical elementary school of the time was a log structure 18 x 30 feet equipped with rough benches. As a rule the school was in operation for six months during the winter.

The teacher was often an ill-qualified old soldier or a newcomer who could not find a better job. The schools had only one item of their curriculum in common – a plentiful supply of birch rods.

The years 1840-70 are known as the Period of Expansion in education. In Ontario the population grew from 456,000 to more than 1,620,000, while school enrolment increased from 96,000 to 446,000. It was during this period that Edgerton Ryerson emerged as the Father of the Ontario school system. As Superintendent of Education from 1844 to 1875, he – whether we like it or not – fashioned the school system as we know it today.

The typical common school of 1860 was an ungraded rural school, although a few graded schools existed in the cities. It was of frame construction and had progressed sufficiently to include blackboards, maps and desks instead of benches. By 1871 the school year had been extended to 11 months and the average child, who lived in a populated area, went to school for about five years. This would be nearly twice as long in months as that for the pioneer child.

The Period of Consolidation from 1870-1900 saw the school system emerge in the design moulded by Ryerson. Previously there had been many divisions of elementary schools into classes and grades, but in this period the four-book or eight grade system became the pattern. In the high schools a programme was designed to give a unified set of examinations and matriculation became the ultimate prize. In 1890 about half a million pupils were enrolled in all schools.

This period saw the beginning of the massive schools of brick or stone in the built-up areas. Many of these were so substantial that they are still in use. In one sense they were too well built; changes in the school programme have rendered them obsolete for modern educational purposes.

During the first 40 years of the twentieth century, elementary schools showed only a moderate gain in enrolment in relation to the total population. But the expansion of secondary education was rapid. In proportion to the population the average attendance of students in all types of secondary schools was three times greater in 1939-40 than at the beginning of the century. Much of this was caused by the Adolescent School Attendance Act which went into effect in September, 1921, and which raised the school attendance age – with a few exceptions – to 16 years. The Vocational Education Act of 1921 also opened up new vistas in secondary education. Thirty percent of all enrolments in secondary schools prior to World War II were for vocational training.

Notwithstanding all the progress that has taken place in the educational field, there are a few disquieting facts. The census figures of 1941 for the province of Ontario show that the number of people with from one to four years of schooling is 75% greater than the number with 13 years or more. There were about half as many pupils in Grade X as in Grade VIII, and there were about half as many in Grade XII as in Grade X. Although this period did produce great gains in methods – the calibre of teaching improved and textbooks became standardized – its contribution from an architectural standpoint was negligible.

Assiniboine School, Regina. *Photo–CMHC*

Department of National Defence School, Gagetown, N.B. *Photo—CMHC*

After the Second World War a Royal Commission on Education was ordered to study all aspects of education in Ontario. Its report, published in 1950, made some very important recommendations, which — if adopted — would affect the whole system and planning of schools.

The Commission's conclusions were that the educational system should be divided into three types of schools — an elementary, which includes kindergarten through Grade VI, a secondary, including Grades VII through X, taking pupils to the end of compulsory attendance at age 16, and junior college, covering academic courses from Grade XI through Grade XIII. It would replace the present system of two schools — grammar school, grades one through eight, and high school up to the university level.

In this new division the educational system would correspond to a greater degree with the normal development of children. It is understood, of course, that although there is a pattern in children's growth, there may be important variations, and the rate of growth may differ considerably. They will in general correspond however, and it is possible to establish stages of education to coincide with the periods of child development.

The average child passes through the following phases: infancy through the age of five, early childhood six to eight years, late childhood or pre-adolescence nine to twelve years, early adolescence twelve to sixteen years and late adolescence or young adulthood sixteen to nineteen. It can be seen that the system recommended in the report not only coincides with the mental growth of the children but also with the compulsory years of school attendance. The elementary six-grade programme would end about the age of 12, the secondary four-grade programme about the age of 16 and further education to be offered in junior colleges and technical institutes would end at the university age level. In this way those children leaving school after the compulsory age of 16 is reached would do so at the termination of a phase of their education, not in the middle of their high school curriculum as is now the case.

The Royal Commission felt that the 6-4-3 system while not extending the number of years of free public education, could be made to give a more comprehensive course of study. The Commission reported that in our elementary schools by reorganizing the curriculum and drafting new courses, pupils would be able to achieve the same standards at the end of the new Grade VI as they do now at the end of Grade VII and possibly Grade VIII.

The evolution of our educational system has seen the addition of many new courses of study while in many instances still retaining the same subject matter in existing courses. Also there is a prevalent custom of allowing children who receive good marks to skip one of the grades, generally the 3rd or 4th. At present a great many of the children complete Grade VIII in seven years.

The high school system has developed a tendency of extending the work of Grade XIII over two years or that of Grade XII and XIII over three years. This could be eliminated in the new system, thus shortening the period of public education by an entire year, exclusive of the third year spent in junior college which is first year university.

This would also bring the school programme more nearly in line with the courses of study in most of the

Photo—CMHC →

Point Grey Junior High, Vancouver, in foreground. Senior High School in background.

provinces. At present the provinces of Alberta, Saskatchewan, Manitoba, Quebec, Nova Scotia, Prince Edward Island and Newfoundland give a junior matriculation degree at the end of Grade XI. While British Columbia, Ontario, and in the last few years, New Brunswick, give theirs at the end of Grade XII. This creates a great deal of confusion on the transfer of a pupil from one province to another and there are increasing numbers of these transfers. If a child moves to the Province of Ontario from Quebec for instance, it is generally the custom to place the child one grade above his standing in the Quebec Schools.

The second recommendation was that the school system should be reorganized into regions and subregions, with the population distribution as a basis. The geographic size would be predicated by the amount of population. Ideally it would be from about 20,000 to 30,000 people with neighborhoods of 5,000. This would provide an entirely new concept for community planning.

Under this system a neighborhood would support a 12-room elementary school since about nine percent of its population would be in the five-to-twelve age group. Five similar neighborhoods would support a 40-room secondary school. This is the largest practical type of school to keep the facilities within manageable limits.

At the junior college level, which is past the age of compulsory attendance, the proportion of all people attending school is 1.7% of the total population. Thus the junior college is envisaged as the centre of a region of 70,000. It would be a 40-classroom school with an attendance of 1,200.

If the new system were adopted immediately and the existing elementary schools changed to grades 1-6 instead of 1-8, the elementary schools already built could take care of the demand for the foreseeable future. The existing high schools would take care of the junior college students and new building could be concentrated at the secondary level. It would give a breathing space for the building and planning of new types of schools.

Education is an expensive part of our way of life. There is no doubt that it will become increasingly so, as time goes on. Yet even from a purely selfish standpoint it may be one of the best investments we can make. Herbert George Wells has stated the case for education very bluntly . . . "Human history has become a race between education and catastrophe."

Demander ou Réclamer de Grands Logements ?

*par Maurice Lamarche S.J.**

Son Eminence le Cardinal Léger, invité à rencontrer le groupe de Québec de l'Association Nationale des Constructeurs, à l'Hôtel Mont-Royal, le 3 mars 1959, insistait sur le droit naturel des familles à un logement adéquat. A sa suite, le révérend Père Maurice Lamarche publiait dans "Relations" du mois de mars 1959, un article intitulé "Demander ou Réclamer de Grands Logements?" Ci-après, un extrait important de cet intéressant article.

S'il est nécessaire qu'il y ait proportion entre les devoirs et les droits, ne faut-il pas s'attendre qu'en retour la société va offrir à ces hommes des avantages vraiment hors de l'ordinaire? Quels avantages? Une minute de silence au Parlement en l'honneur des neuf garçons morts peut-être au champ d'honneur? Une plaque commémorative à l'entrée d'un parc public? Le discours ému d'un colonel ou du ministre de la Défense? Nous pensons qu'une famille a droit à des avantages plus sérieux et plus solides.

Elle a droit aux quelques solides avantages qui suivent (ce ne sont pas les seuls):

1. Cette famille a droit de vivre.

2. Elle a droit de vivre en conformité avec sa nature.

L'ordre veut que chaque être doué de vie, vive en conformité avec sa nature. L'ours est supposé vivre en ours. Le serin en serin. Lorsqu'on affirme qu'une famille humaine a droit à la vie, on ne veut pas dire simplement que cette famille a le droit de n'être pas mise à mort. On ne veut pas dire non plus que cette famille a droit à n'importe quelle sorte de vie, par exemple une vie d'ours. Il est bien évident que c'est à une vie vraiment humaine qu'elle a droit. Une société qui reconnaîtrait à chacun de ses membres le droit à la vie, mais qui, en théorie ou en pratique, refuserait d'admettre le droit à une vie humaine, serait une société de sauvages. Elle aurait besoin de missionnaires pour lui apprendre la civilisation.

Disons donc que la famille pauvre de 13 enfants a droit à une vie humaine.

3. Ayant droit à une vie vraiment humaine, cette famille a droit à ce qui est strictement indispensable pour vivre humainement. Sans avoir de télévision, sans aller passer les mois d'hiver en Floride, sans assister aux parties éliminatoires du Forum, on peut vivre une vie humaine. La famille de 13 enfants ne peut donc pas exiger qu'on la conduise en Floride ou qu'on lui fournisse des billets de hockey. Pourrait-on, pour la même raison, affirmer: "Cette famille ne peut pas exiger que, dans la cité, il y ait un logement pour elle"?

SON DROIT AU LOGEMENT CONVENABLE

Est-il vraiment possible (au Canada surtout) de mener une vie humaine si on n'a pas de logement du tout? Le logement ne passe-t-il pas avant la nourriture? Rendu à la montagne, le skieur se loge d'abord, loge ses skis, son sac de couchage, ses boîtes de provisions. Ensuite seulement il songe à faire le souper. Lorsque ses 32 scouts sont logés, lorsque chacun a son coin sous les tentes, le chef scout respire et pense à admirer la splendeur du paysage.

Il est fort probable qu'en mettant le pied sur la terre d'Amérique, Christophe Colomb n'a pas mis ses menuisiers à élever une salle de concert. Il a sans doute donné des ordres: Voyez à ce que tous les hommes soient logés. La grande angoisse de l'émigré qui arrive au Canada n'est pas de penser: "Où vais-je aller manger?" mais "Vais-je réussir à me loger?" Lorsqu'on lui remet la clé d'un appartement, il pousse un soupir de soulagement et se dit que le pire est fait. Au Canada, on ne se passe pas de logement. La famille pauvre de 13 enfants a donc droit d'exiger que dans la cité il y ait un logement pour elle.

On suppose que les responsables se rendent à ses légitimes réclamations et lui offrent en effet un logement: un logement d'une seule pièce mesurent 10 pieds carrés. Cette famille doit-elle accepter? Non, elle doit refuser. Dans une seule pièce de 10 pieds carrés, une famille de 15 personnes mène une vie de troupeau, une vie-mort. Or, c'est à une vie humaine que, de par son titre de membre de la société humaine, obligée au besoin de donner sa vie pour cette société, c'est à une vie humaine qu'elle a droit.

Elle doit donc refuser et dire: "Nous exigeons un logement qui puisse contenir décemment et honnêtement non pas 1 personne mais 15 personnes. Nous ne vous demandons pas de nous le donner gratuitement. Mais nous exigeons que dans la cité il y ait de tels logements et en nombre suffisant pour que toutes les familles de 15 personnes puissent en avoir un."

Il nous semble que la légitimité d'une telle attitude ne saurait faire de doute pour quiconque a réfléchi.

*Le Père Maurice Lamarche revient ici sur un problème social qui lui tient au coeur: le logement des familles nombreuses. Il le traite de la façon concrète dont naguère il enseignait la philosophie morale, au collège Jean-de-Brébeuf.

Pourquoi, dans une même société, certains membres se verraient-ils refuser le droit aux choses les plus strictement indispensables, alors que d'autres pourraient exiger des avantages beaucoup moins nécessaires?

Dans les rues qui longent son palais, le riche ne prétend-il pas avoir droit à la propreté? S'il constate que les voisins lancent par la fenêtre les restes de la table, il ne manque pas de protester. Et puis il appelle la police. Et que fait la police? Se contente-t-elle de reconnaître théoriquement le droit de ce citoyen: "Vous avez raison. Votre droit à la propreté de la rue est incontestable. Personne ne peut vous empêcher d'y voir. Comptez sur nous: pendant que vous allez ramasser ces déchets, nous allons vous protéger"? La police ne se contente pas de ce rôle négatif. Elle se charge d'aller voir les coupables et de les mettre à l'ordre. Ce même citoyen exige le silence autour de sa résidence. Lorsque d'aventure, au beau milieu de la nuit, le vendeur de fruits ose crier le nom et le prix de ses produits, la police est encore avertie, et elle prend les mesures qui s'imposent. Dans une ville civilisée où il y a de l'ordre, le citoyen a droit à la propreté des rues, au silence des rues, aux trottoirs et à quantité d'autres avantages. Mais est-il admissible qu'on puisse avoir droit à ce que, dans la cité, il y ait du silence et des trottoirs et qu'on n'ait pas droit à ce qu'il y ait des logements? Le trottoir est-il aussi indispensable que le logement? La famille de 15 personnes n'a-t-elle pas plus besoin d'air et d'espace dans son logement que le couple sans enfants n'a besoin de silence et de propreté en dehors du sien?

Si on veut refuser au père des 13 enfants le droit à beaucoup d'espace et d'air dans son habitation, donc le droit à une grande habitation, qu'on nie également au propriétaire de la belle résidence le droit à la propreté de la rue et au silence. Si on prétend que la police est obligée de voir à la fidèle observation des légitimes règlements du silence, qu'on reconnaisse de même que les gouvernements sont tenus de fournir aux familles nombreuses et pauvres l'espace, l'air et l'hygiène auxquels elles ont droit.

Une ville contenant une population de plusieurs millions d'hommes et qui n'aurait point eu souci de construire de logements pour ses familles nombreuses serait plus mal organisée et plus arriérée qu'une autre ville d'égale importance en laquelle les seuls chemins seraient d'étroits sentiers entre les troncs d'arbres et les souches!

RENSEIGNEMENTS PONTIFICAUX

A ceux qui professeraient une thèse contraire et diraient: "Il est sans doute infiniment souhaitable qu'il y ait dans la cité de grands logements capables d'abriter convenablement des familles de 12, 13 et 15 enfants. Mais ces familles-là n'ont pas vraiment droit à de tels logements. Il est donc à propos de suggérer modestement aux responsables des différentes administrations de construire de grands logements mais on ne peut pas exiger qu'ils le fassent." A ceux-là, il pourrait être utile de rappeler certaines directives pontificales très précises.

En 1948, s'adressant à un groupe de dames de l'Action catholique italienne, le pape Pie XII disait: "La justice sociale demande entre autres qu'on procure au peuple des habitations nécessaires." Le pape ne parle pas de condescendance, de pitié. Il dit qu'il s'agit d'une question de justice. Si on ne fournit pas les logements voulus, on n'est pas seulement sans cœur, on est injuste. La justice sociale, d'après l'enseignement du pape, ne demande pas seulement de construire des logements, mais les logements nécessaires, c'est-à-dire appropriés. Pour une famille de 15 personnes, le logement nécessaire, approprié, c'est le logement grand. Loger dans 3 pièces une famille à qui il faut au moins 6 ou 7 pièces est aussi inhumain et cruel que de forcer un homme qui prend un habit 40 et des souliers 10 à porter un habit 30 et des souliers 7. Si, après 5 ou 6 ans d'un pareil refoulement, cet homme n'est pas devenu un révolté et un délinquant, c'est qu'il a un bien bon caractère . . . à moins qu'il n'en ait pas du tout.

En 1951, parlant à des pères de famille, Pie XII revenait sur cette obligation de justice: "Les lois doivent assurer aux hommes, après l'indissolubilité du mariage et la protection de la vie avant la naissance, l'habitation convenable."

Après avoir lu cette déclaration de Pie XII, le père de famille de 13 enfants, dont nous parlions tout à l'heure, pourrait aller trouver son gouvernement municipal et lui faire de sages remontrances: "Les lois doivent assurer aux hommes une habitation convenable. Donc les lois doivent m'assurer à moi et à mes enfants cette habitation convenable. Or, il m'est impossible présentement de me trouver une telle habitation. Il n'y en a pas. Quand allez-vous y voir?"

L'abbé Pierre a bien compris la pensée du chef de l'Eglise.

> *Ce n'est pas vrai, écrivait-il, qu'un problème comme celui-là, le problème du logement pour celui qui travaille pour pouvoir mettre sa femme et ses gosses à l'abri, ce n'est pas vrai qu'un tel problème soit un problème de bienfaisance, un problème de charité et de bon cœur. Le logement du travailleur, ce n'est pas une question de bienfaisance. Il faut que nous le comprenions, c'est une question de justice, c'est une question sacrée, et nous sommes des lâches si nous en faisons une question de bienfaisance.*

CAMERA ON CANADA

CMHC staff photographer David Butler recently toured communities in Ontario. A few of his pictures are shown on the opposite page. The Queen and Prince Philip, passing Laurentian Terrace, Ottawa, were captured on film by staff photographer Wolfgang Grambart.

1. *Elgin Street, London*
2. *Air Force Station, Centralia*
3. *Champlain Avenue, Sandwich West, Windsor*
4. *Sunnyside Subdivision, Marvin Drive, St. Catharines*
5. *Franklin Street, Brantford*
6. *South High Street, Port Arthur*

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Ciad Mile Failte

by Joan Murie

Imagine colorful clan tartans dominating the scene and lilting, wailing bagpipes resounding throughout gently-rolling meadows and evergreen-studded hills. Picture the sword dance and Highland fling, caber tossing and other Highland games and sports.

Sounds like a typical day in the Highlands of Scotland, doesn't it? Actually this picturesque tableau is much closer to home . . . at the village of St. Ann's on Cape Breton Island to be exact . . . where the only Gaelic College in the world marked the 20th anniversary of its establishment this past summer.

With the traditional Gaelic greeting, "*Ciad Mile Failte*" (A Hundred Thousand Welcomes), Scots, young and old, from all parts of Canada and the United States, are welcomed to St. Ann's where they may learn the folklore and tongue of their forefathers.

The St. Ann's story started in 1820, when the Reverend Norman MacLeod came to Cape Breton, the first Presbyterian minister to make his home there. He was the inspiration for the Gaelic Foundation which has grown so rapidly.

A college dedicated to the preservation of Gaelic culture had long been a dream of Cape Bretoners whose origin was in Scotland. The dream became a reality in 1939 when the doors of a simple, log building were opened to students of Gaelic customs and language.

One of the persons responsible for fruition of the dream was the Reverend Angus MacKenzie, present director of Gaelic College. He suggested to other interested persons that a concerted effort be put forward to found the college. This suggestion led to his being chosen chairman of a committee to foster foundation of Gaelic College.

A Cape Breton Island Gaelic Foundation was established. Its objectives were: "*To preserve and foster the customs, traditions, culture and particularly the language of the Gaels. In brief, to promote all things Highland Scottish.*"

A site for the college was then chosen and a 100-acre tract of land, on which it is located, was given to the Foundation by Victoria County Municipal Council. Ground was cleared on the site of what was once the homestead of Norman MacLeod, an early Cape Breton farmer, and a log structure, 60 feet long and 20 feet wide, was built. It contains two rooms, one serving as a museum and the other a lecture hall.

The building was completed July 26, 1939, and opening ceremonies were attended by a group of dignitaries, among whom were the late Hon. Angus L. MacDonald, then Premier of Nova Scotia, himself gifted with Gaelic. Although the log building is considered a temporary arrangement, it has not yet been replaced by a permanent structure.

An extensive expansion program is currently underway with the directors aiming at a target of $82,800 in their 20th anniversary financial campaign. They point out that average attendance at the college has grown from 35 students in 1939 to 110 in 1959, with a total of over 2,000 enrolled over the 20-year period. More than 40 per cent of the students are from outside Nova Scotia and some travel from as far as California to attend the intensive summer courses.

The curriculum has expanded to include all the worthwhile elements of the Celtic culture and comprises Gaelic language and song, Highland and Scottish folk dancing, bagpipe playing and drumming, clan lore and the wearing of the Highland dress and the handweaving of clan and family tartans. An important factor in at-

tracting students from far-away places is the policy of bringing top level instructors from Scotland to the College. Seumas MacNeill, principal of the College of Piping, Glasgow, directs the school of piping at St. Ann's, and James L. MacKenzie, Aberdeen, Scottish and World Champion Highland Dancer, is in charge of the summer school class in Highland dancing. Mr. MacNeill regards the Gaelic College as "one of the most progressive of all bodies concerned with the teaching of piping".

The directors stress that the Gaelic College is a summer school and not a summer camp, and although the students enjoy themselves, the basis of the whole organization is instruction and not pleasure. The school lasts an average of five weeks each summer and has a tremendous advantage in the inspiring beauty of its surroundings. While all the countryside of Cape Breton is beautiful, St. Ann's Bay boasts some of the finest scenery of all.

Each year the college is the scene of the Nova Scotia Gaelic Mod, a highlight of Gaelic celebrations in Nova Scotia. The Mod, which attracts from six to ten thousand people, is opened annually by one of the world clan chieftains. This year the World Chief of Clanranald, Ranald Alexander MacDonald of Scotland, was guest chief at the Mod, and August 7 was set aside as Clanranald Day.

Cape Breton Island is well inhabited by Gaelic Scots, and when founder Angus MacKenzie first arrived he found the islanders proud of their Scottish heritage. Half the island folk could speak Gaelic but few could read it. In the Sydney area there are so many MacDonalds, MacIsaacs, McKinnons, MacNeils, MacPhersons and so on, that they are often identified on voters' lists by nicknames such as "Red John", "Black Angus", "Long Mal" and "Big Hughie". In the picturesque town of Baddeck, about 15 miles from St. Ann's, the name MacLeod predominates, closely followed in numbers by the MacKinnons, Campbells and MacAskills.

The people of Cape Breton Island cling to the old Gaelic customs. They sell fine tartans in the stores and the weaving would do credit to the Isle of Harris itself.

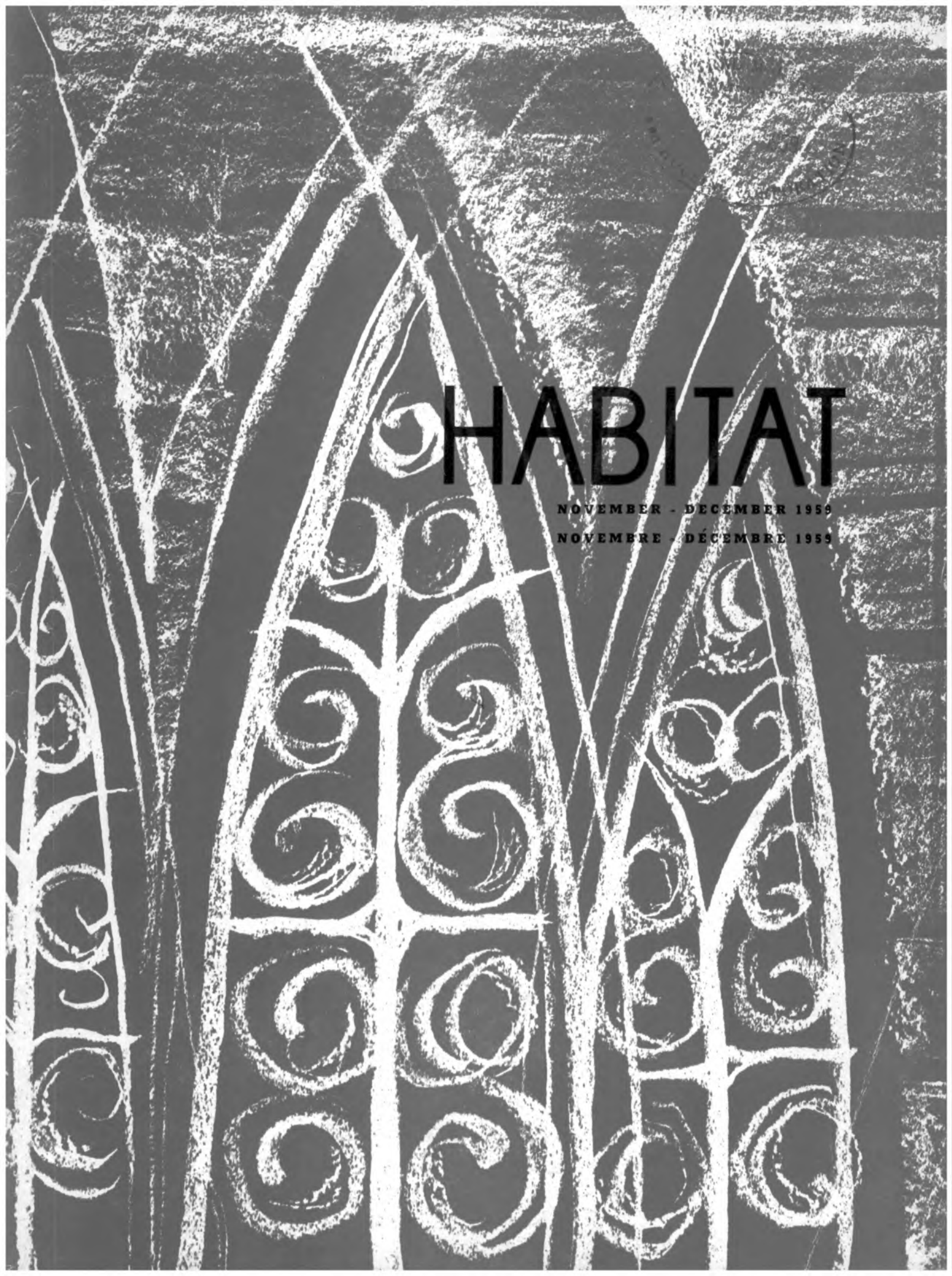
But more important, these Scots who read their Bible with "the Gaelic on one side and the English on the other for the heathen", have something in their Gaelic College that is, after 20 years, unique.

This embryo pipe major faithfully practises her chanter, her sights no doubt set on a place with the "Macdonald Hundred" Pipe Band based at the Gaelic College. She is under the tutelage of one of Scotland's foremost pipers, Seumas ***MacNeil.***

Photo—National Film Board

Central Mortgage and Housing Corporation
Société Centrale d'Hypothèques et de Logement

Ottawa, Canada



HABITAT

NOVEMBER - DECEMBER 1959
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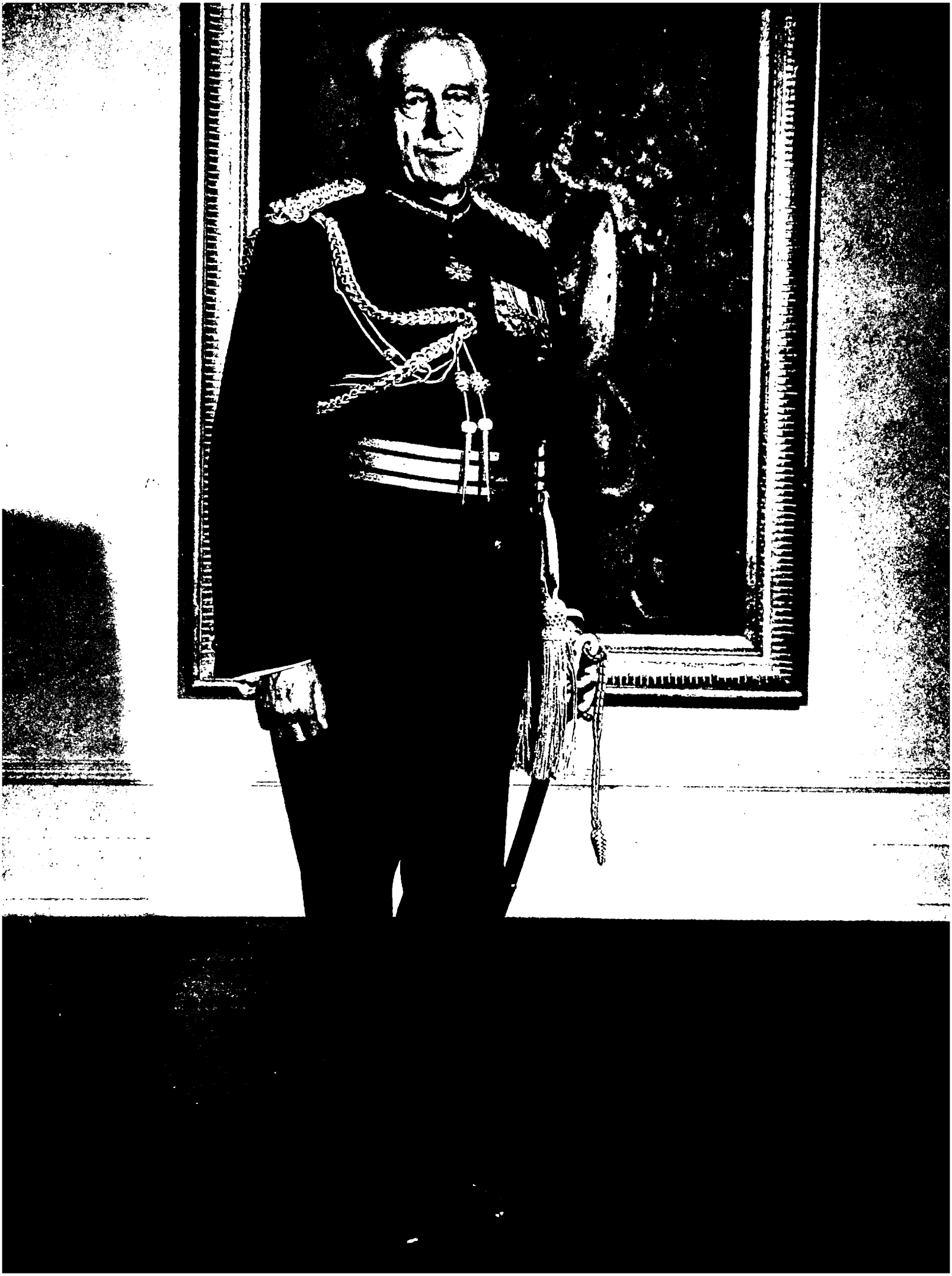

His Excellency Major-General George P. Vanier, D.S.O., M.C., C.D., Canada's 19th Governor General.

Photo—Cliff Buckman Photo Features, Ottawa

HABITAT

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25 YEARS OF HOUSING LEGISLATION

by Bruce MacInnes

NEXT year marks the silver anniversary of the entry of the federal government into the housing field on a continuing basis.

On July 5, 1935, Parliament passed the Dominion Housing Act. Of course, the government had previously made an occasional venture into housing, but the 1935 Act was its first major housing legislation. The policies outlined in the slim three-page document were to have far reaching effects on the housing scene in Canada during the next 25 years.

Consider the background against which the Act was established. In 1935 unemployment caused by the great depression of the 1930's was at its peak. The previous three years had seen a slump in the house building volume and deplorable living conditions existed in the slums. A sample survey of 1,300 slum dwellings in Toronto showed that four out of five houses had no central heating and more than half had no baths. One out of five homes had an outdoor toilet. Overcrowding was rampant.

House building is one of the bulwarks of the economy, so in a concerted effort to raise the standard of living and at the same time infuse some buoyancy into the economy the federal government decided to take direct action. First it set up a Housing Committee to study and report on the inauguration of a national policy of house building.

The urgency of the matter is reflected in the Committee's report. It found that a national emergency would soon develop "unless the building of dwellings be greatly increased and that the requirements for low-rental housing would not be met by private enterprise". It felt provision should be made for long-term mortgages and that the principle of mortgage banks, already in operation in other countries, be investigated with a view to their effect upon the lowering of housing costs.

Following the Committee's recommendations, Parliament passed the Dominion Housing Act and established a new pattern of lending.

The changes made by the Act were revolutionary compared with the traditional thinking of Canadian mortgage lenders before 1935. They brought about a loan term of 10 years with a contract to renew for a further 10. By today's standards this may not seem much of a concession, but when one considers that before 1935 loans were generally made for five years, the advantages to the borrower are obvious.

The new Act also introduced blended monthly payments of principal and interest and the payment of taxes in advance so that there would not be a lump sum to pay at the end of the year. These again are commonplace today, but prior to 1935 the borrower generally was called upon to repay his loan on a semi-annual or annual basis and he had to make his own arrangements for tax payment.

Another change that permitted a wider cross-section of Canadians to own their own homes was the higher ratio loan established by the Act. Before 1935 the average loan was about 50% of the value of the home, which meant that the borrower had to have a substantial sum at his disposal before he could entertain the idea of buying a home. Under the Dominion Housing Act the lending institutions were authorized to make loans, jointly with the Crown, up to 80% of the value.

The lending programme was made attractive to the lenders by the fact that the government guaranteed the loans. It shared two-thirds of the losses of ordinary loans in the early stages of amortization and one-third later on. On housing for lower-income groups and in the smaller communities the Crown's share amounted to between 70% and 80% of losses during the entire term of the loan.

Compared to the post-war expansion in housing the results of the Dominion Housing Act were not staggering – over about three years the Act produced 4,900 units. It was, however, the first major housing Act in the country's history and was the cornerstone for all future federal housing policy.

NATIONAL HOUSING ACT, 1938

The Dominion Housing Act was replaced by the National Housing Act, 1938. While this Act still had the objective of reducing unemployment, it was also aimed at improving housing conditions generally and encouraging home ownership.

The new Act incorporated most of the provisions of the Dominion Housing Act with several important additions. Under the 1935 Act, the lending institutions naturally found it easier to make loans in centres where they had offices, so in order to encourage the lenders to make loans in the smaller communities the NHA provided for an expense allowance to approved lenders. It also introduced a new type of pool guarantee, instead of individual guarantee, whereby the government was prepared to pay a certain percentage of any losses to an approved lender.

The National Housing Act took further steps in the field of low-cost housing, both for home ownership and for rental. In the realm of home ownership the Act made provision for payment by the Crown of municipal taxes on houses of less than $4,000 on a sliding scale. The formula was that the government would pay all the first year's taxes, half of the second year's and a quarter of the third year's. In matters of low-rental housing, direct loans were offered at low interest rates to limited-dividend corporations and to local Housing Authorities.

Unfortunately the Second World War intervened before the low-rental programme could get started, but it was to prove its workability in later years. The home-owner provisions were more successful and more than 21,000 loans were made under the 1938 Act.

The war did not altogether push housing into the background – in fact, a committee on Housing and Community Planning was formed under C. A. Curtis, Professor of Economics at Queen's University. Its deliberations, known as the "Curtis Report", were published in March, 1944. The report was a searching and comprehensive study of the entire housing problem and the government was swift to act on many of its recommendations.

NATIONAL HOUSING ACT, 1944

In August, 1944, Parliament passed the National Housing Act "to promote the construction of new houses, the repair and modernization of existing houses, the improvement of housing and living conditions, and the expansion of employment in the post-war period". Most of the features of previous Acts were carried over into the new Act, but there were some important changes.

A term of up to 30 years for home-ownership loans was introduced. Higher ratio loans were allowed. The borrower, who previously was given the right to repay his loan in full at the end of the third year, now was permitted to make lump sum payments on this or any subsequent anniversary date. Low-cost housing loan ratios were extended to 90% in all cases and the term set at a maximum of 50 years. Special provisions were made for loans to co-operative housing groups.

Until the end of 1945, the successive Housing Acts had been handled by the National Housing Administration, part of the Department of Finance.

On December 18, 1945, an Act was passed forming a Crown Company – Central Mortgage and Housing Corporation. The form of Crown Company rather than a government department was taken because, as was stated at the time: " . . . these operations are of a commercial or quasi-commercial character. Under the National Housing Act the government is in business. Bargaining and negotiations are involved. Risks have to be appraised".

Central Mortgage and Housing Corporation, which started operating early in 1946, was provided with $25 million capital from the Consolidated Revenue Fund and was empowered to build up a reserve fund, out of operating profits, up to $5 million. Provision was made that when this maximum reserve figure was reached excess earnings would flow to the federal treasury. CMHC was the first housing agency created by the federal government – its principal function was to administer the National Housing Act.

In the post-war years, as building materials became available, housing completions started their upward trend. There were some setbacks. In 1946 rising costs threatened to reduce the effectiveness of the National Housing Act so lending values were raised by 10%. Similar adjustments were found necessary in subsequent years. By 1947 the total number of housing completions was 73,218, but only about 9,000 of these were for private rental units, then greatly in demand. In the spring of 1948 Parliament passed an amendment to the Act which guaranteed rentals for a period of up to 30 years. Under this plan more than 20,000 moderate-rental units were constructed. By 1950, the government's role in housing could be classified as a major operation. Of the 89,015 housing completions in that year, 36,397 came under the NHA.

The year 1947 saw several amendments to the NHA. In the early post-war years the demand for mortgage money was tremendous, enabling the lending institutions to select only the more attractive mortgages. Although the NHA provided for 25-year loans (and for 30-year loans by another Amendment in 1947) they tended only to approve loans on a 20-year basis. Moreover, in spite of previous inducements, it was still administratively difficult for them to lend in remote areas. Therefore, the Act was amended, authorizing CMHC to make direct loans if, in its opinion, joint loans were not being made available in any area. It was an important amendment because it enabled Canadians to qualify for NHA loans regardless of isolated locations.

By 1948 it was possible to study the broader aspects of housing and the first slum clearance grant was made under the NHA for Regent Park in Toronto.

During and after the war the federal government had the abnormal relationship of dealing directly with the municipalities for emergency housing. It was now time to draw up a long-term programme and it was fundamental that the federal government should deal principally through provincial channels. The NHA was amended in December, 1949, to provide for Federal-Provincial co-operation in the housing field. Under this amendment, subject to provincial concurrence, the projects might be land assembly, construction for sale or construction for rental at economic or subsidized levels. The amendment laid down that the federal government would provide 75% of the capital cost of a project and would bear 75% of the losses or reap the same proportion of profits. The remaining 25% would be provided by the province, which might elect to obtain all or any part of its share from the municipalities.

The war in Korea broke out on June 25, 1950, and it had a major effect on housing in Canada. Employment increased, some materials were in short supply and the demand for housing became strong. In order to fulfil its defence obligations, the government felt obliged to put a brake on the volume of housing. To accomplish this, the amounts available to home-owner applicants were reduced. Direct loans for rental insurance were suspended.

These measures had the desired effect and housing completions in 1952 fell off to 72,218 – their lowest point since 1947. Fortunately the Korean crisis was short, but the price spiral was to continue its upward climb.

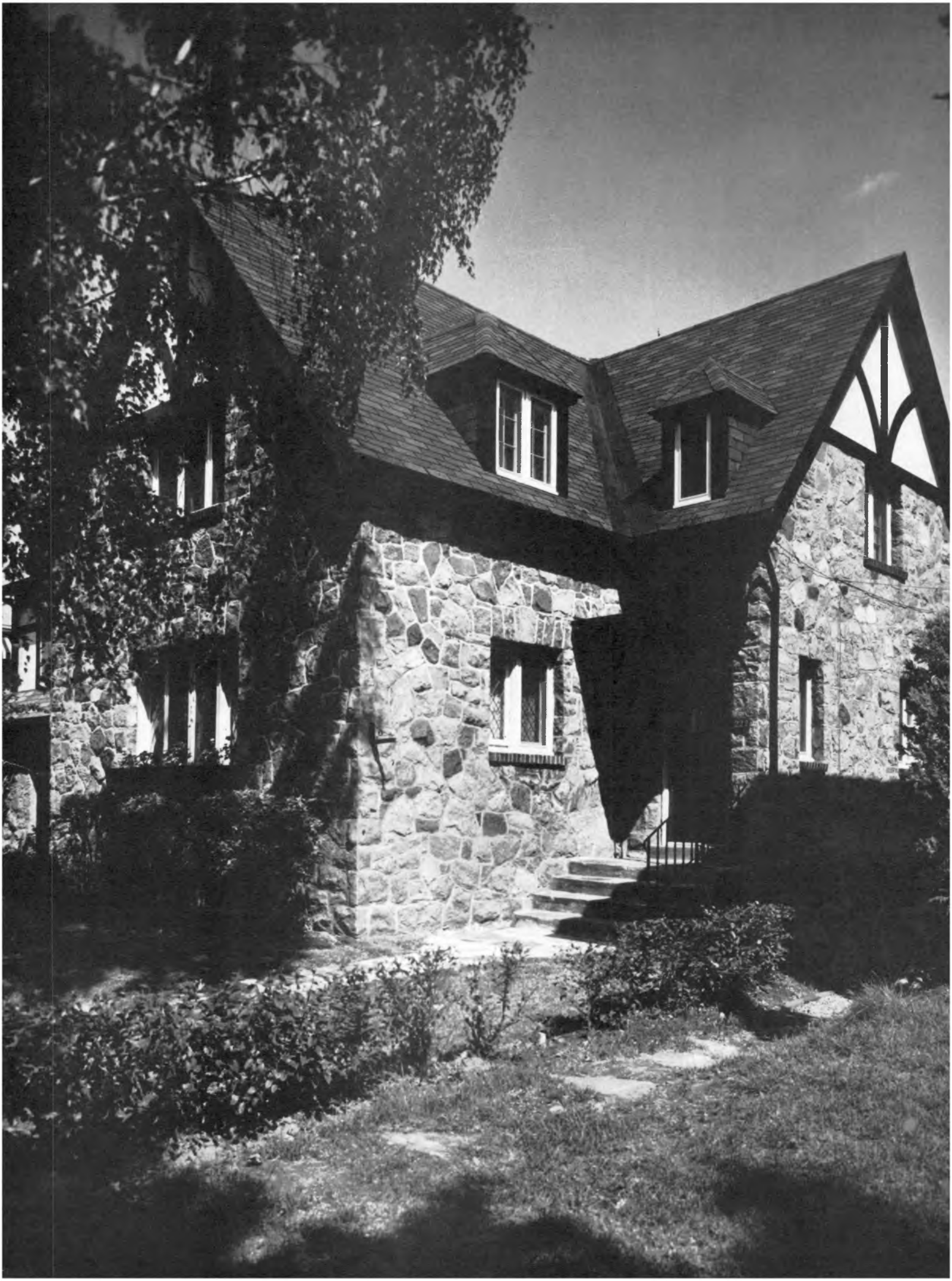
In the period directly after World War II, adequate mortgage funds were available from the lending institutions and the housing legislation was aimed at offering favourable terms to the borrower to allow a wider participation of all income levels in home ownership. By the early 1950's, it was apparent that the lenders were finding it difficult to keep pace with the growing demands on their funds.

Large-scale builders planning subdivisions, required long-range commitments and the shortage of mortgage funds was curtailing their ability to launch major projects. Persons planning homes in the small towns were also running into mortgage difficulties.

Some corrective measures were necessary. As a temporary measure and to ease the flow of mortgage money, agency loans were introduced in the summer of 1952. These were loans made with government money but administered by an approved lender. This type of loan was generally extended to persons residing in centres with less than 55,000 population and had a good effect on the mortgage market for a time.

In September, 1952, the interest rate on mortgages rose to 5¼% and the supply of mortgage money continued to remain tight. A basic change in policy was

The first house financed under The Dominion Housing Act, 1935 was built by Wilfred Cude, famed National Hockey League player. The house is in the Town of Mount Royal, Montreal.



needed to enlarge the group of approved lenders as a larger share of government funds was not the answer.

NATIONAL HOUSING ACT, 1954

The 1954 Act added a great new source of funds to the residential mortgage market in Canada, by enabling the chartered banks to invest in mortgage loans. At the same time it dropped the system of joint loans under which the Crown had been a participant in each loan and replaced it with a system of insured mortgage loans. Under the insured loan programme the approved lenders, which now included the banks, would make the full loans with their own money and these loans would be insured against loss by an insurance fund set up by CMHC. The fund was to be built up by the payment of insurance fees by the borrowers. If the lender acquired title to the mortgaged property, he could transfer the property to CMHC and receive from the fund 98% of the principal owing plus an allowance for defaulted interest and legal costs.

Another innovation introduced by the 1954 Act was that interest rates were prescribed as maxima, where previously they had generally been fixed rates. Any lender could, if he wished, charge a lower rate. The banks, in fact, did drop their interest rate to 5% from the ceiling of 5¼% early in 1955.

The 1954 Act gave the home-owner borrower the statutory right to a 25-year loan term. This could be extended to 30 years with the consent of the lender. The maximum term on rental mortgages was 25 years. Other changes brought about by the Act allowed approved lenders to sell mortgages originated by themselves to other corporations and individuals provided an approved lender continued to administer the mortgage. The Act specified that interest rates for insured mortgage loans would not exceed the Government of Canada long-term bond rate by more than 2¼% at the time the rates were prescribed.

With the advent of the National Housing Act, 1954, the volume of NHA loans rose; housing completions increased to record-breaking levels in the years 1954 and 1955. In the period 1946 to 1955 some 867,000 houses were completed.

By 1957 mortgage money was once again in short supply and the interest rate had risen to 6%. Housing completions fell off 18,417 units from the previous year. Completions under the NHA were off almost 50%. During the year the Act was amended to provide higher loans for home owners and builders building for sale to home purchasers. Under the amendment, loans for single-family houses could be calculated on the basis of 90% of first $12,000 (formerly $8,000) of lending value plus 70% of the balance.

Parliament again amended the National Housing Act early in 1959. The terms of mortgage insurance on NHA loans were changed to provide for a settlement including 100% of the unpaid principal of the mortgage rather than 98% and the allowance for legal costs was raised from $125 to $150.

Nearing the Silver Jubilee of the first major housing legislation, it is interesting to review the many and varied changes that have taken place on the housing and mortgage scene. In this article it has been possible to touch on but a few of them and to give an indication that the successive Acts have proven to be extremely flexible instruments, adaptable to changing times and conditions.

It is unlikely that those who planned the Act in 1935 foresaw its potential growth and the stature it and its off-shoots would attain. From a modest beginning federal assistance in the field of housing has grown steadily in importance. Over the 25-year period nearly 30% of all housing built in Canada has been aided in one way or another by one of the Housing Acts. In 1958 alone this proportion reached nearly 50%. Home ownership has been placed within the potential grasp of most Canadians. Much rental accommodation has been built and a start has been made in the razing of slum areas and their replacement by modern dwellings. But much still remains to be done.

With a potentially higher marriage rate in the 1960's housing demand will continue apace. More changes in legislation, more sources of funds, a more flexible type of financial instrument – all may be needed to meet the challenge. Indeed, it is likely that those who survey the scene at the Golden Jubilee may be viewing as many far-reaching changes as have been witnessed in the last quarter-century.

The end of the Mackenzie Highway, 380 miles north of Grimshaw, Alta.

THE END OF THE ROAD

by Michael Sullivan

The Hay River starts its winding course in the interior of northern British Columbia, then meanders through the top lefthand corner of Alberta into the Northwest Territories before flowing into Great Slave Lake. At the mouth of the river, stretched along the shore of the lake and on an island in the delta, lies the settlement of the same name.

A dozen years ago Hay River was a mere village with a population of not much more than 200. The majority were Indians, trappers and fishermen who lived in cabins on one of the small islands. The only white people were at the Hudson's Bay Company trading post and at the Anglican Mission, a building which dates back to the nineteenth century.

But then the Mackenzie Highway was pushed through from Grimshaw, Alberta, some 380 miles to the south and this was the signal for rapid development in Hay River. In the first place, the highway set the community up as the centre of surface transportation in the District of Mackenzie. It also provided an outlet for the commercial harvest of Great Slave's fish population.

These twin industries have meant a great deal to Hay River. Over the years the town has become a stable community with a population close to 1,500. It has

Don Stewart's house at Hay River rests on steel pilings sunk to bed rock 52 feet below the surface.

all the amenities that take the edge off frontier living, including a first-class school, an eight-bed hospital with resident doctor, a modern 10-room hotel and a motel. Four major oil companies have bulk oil stations there and seven fish companies are based in the community.

Like many communities in the North, Hay River has its natural problems. The major one is flooding. The community lies only 25 feet above lake level and in spring, with the coming of the first thaw, the town is cut off completely by flood waters sweeping down the channels of the river. At this time the only communication with the Outside is by boat. There have been attempts to build bridges, but these have proved unsuccessful because of the driftwood and ice swept down with the current.

In the past the floods have even threatened the town's business section – large chunks of ice, as long as 15 feet, once swept along the streets. The town has solved this problem by bulldozing a path alongside the river and at breakup time dynamite is now used to clear a channel for the water.

Another problem is permafrost, which can be found everywhere in the area just below ground level. This applies particularly to building. Don Stewart, owner of the local theatre, thinks he has the solution. Last summer, Mr. Stewart built a home on steel pilings, sunk through the permafrost to bedrock at the 52-foot level. It is a new method of construction in the North and one that provides more stability than the usual log pilings.

The builders bored through the permafrost with a ¾-inch steam pipe. It took five days to drive the six-inch steel piles down to rock. If the experiment proves successful – as Mr. Stewart is convinced it will – it may possibly open up a new era of housing in the north country.

MACKENZIE LIFE-LINE

The first indication last summer that Hay River was a base for riverboats was the superstructure of a four-deck tug parked almost alongside the main street and rising high above the town. It was the Y Tee Husky, the latest addition to the fleet of the Yellowknife Transportation Company.

The Husky – the name the Eskimo gives to himself, just as the Indian calls himself a Brave – is yet another part of the fabulous story of the North. Last July it was still under construction, scheduled to go into operation before the end of the month. The whole tug had been built previously in Edmonton, then completely stripped and shipped to Hay River, there to be rebuilt. It seemed characteristic of the North that anyone would entertain such a project.

Main street in Hay River.

The Y Tee Husky, latest addition to the fleet of Yellowknife Transportation Company.

The growth of Hay River is linked, to a large extent, with the growth of Yellowknife Transportation Company. Stan Gilbert, manager of the company's operations in the community, says: "Right now business is very good and there are signs that it will continue – but it's anybody's guess. Our guess is shown by the Husky."

The Husky is the biggest and most powerful tug in the North, capable of pushing eight to ten barges each carrying up to 2,000 tons of freight. It has a market value of around $700,000. Designed by naval architect Derick Cove of Vancouver, it carries a crew of 15, including a pilot. Most of the pilots working for the company are part Indian. Mr. Gilbert says he "wouldn't trade them for anyone. They've been brought up on the Mackenzie and know the channels and the submerged rocks like the backs of their hands."

The company and, incidentally, the growth of the town started in 1946 when Earl Harcourt, a man with a life-time of experience in the North, went into operation with a few wooden tugs and barges and three new steel barges, each capable of moving 500 tons of freight. In the first year the company moved nearly 5,500 tons. An indication of the progress made is that in 1959 nearly 50,000 tons were moved on the company's six tugs and 20 barges during the short four-month summer season.

Mr. Harcourt, who holds a master's ticket that he still uses in an emergency, is another of a large band of men who have complete confidence in the possibilities and the future of the North.

"Right now the extent of the harbor here is only utilized to 50% of its capacity," he said. "The other side of the river is all reasonably deep, leaving plenty of room for expansion."

He has no doubt that Hay River will expand as it is the "only sensible location" for a port on Great Slave Lake. Moreover, water transportation is the oldest method of transportation in the North and it is still the cheapest. Costs average 3c a ton mile.

"It's expensive living in the North, and this is principally because of transportation costs. It's not the rates that boost the expense, it's the long distances that have to be covered. It costs $38 a ton to move freight from Hay River up the thousand or so miles of the Mackenzie River to Inuvik."

But with the expansion in volume the company has managed to reduce its charges considerably. Five years ago it cost $60 a ton to transport freight to Aklavik. Now the rate is $40 a ton. "During that time wages have gone up, as have construction costs," Mr. Harcourt said. "We couldn't have done it except for the increase

Overland transportation came to Hay River with the completion of the Mackenzie Highway.

Waterfront activity at Hay River Docks.

in volume. That's an indication of the growth of the North."

Tugs and barges are the life-line of the Mackenzie River system, a life-line operated with precision from the main base of operations at Hay River. A radio-telephone network covering all bases from Edmonton, headquarters of the company, to the Arctic Ocean, as well as the tugs themselves, keeps traffic flowing. Each tug reports its position four times a day and gives weather reports for the area where it is located at the time. Radio is also used to advise captains of freight pick-ups.

Mr. Harcourt's own vision looks to the Arctic islands for even greater growth. In 1958 he commissioned the tug Arctic Rover in Vancouver and, on its maiden voyage, the Rover carried 2,000 tons of freight to Spence Bay on the Boothia Peninsula in the central Arctic. The trip, covering more than 10,000 miles, took 79 days and because of the short season the tug could only make the one trip. She was the first Canadian tug to make the voyage.

On her first trip the Arctic Rover, owned by a subsidiary company, Arctic Shipping Limited, took one barge to Spence Bay and left it at Tuktoyaktuk, on the way back. Later the barge was moved down to Hay River to be filled again with freight for the Arctic islands.

INLAND FISHING PORT

The riverboats are not the only vessels that use the harbor at Hay River. The town has a successful fishing industry and you can see many of the small craft offshore – there are many more far out in the lake. The stubby, broad-beamed boats are built especially to survive the choppy rollers that can spring up during lake storms. These waves may not get as high as those in saltwater seas, but the consensus of the fishermen is that their choppiness would likely break up any ocean vessel of the same size.

The Hay River area is known locally as the "Chicago Fish Market", since virtually all the catch is sent to Chicago. The townspeople vouch for the fact that fish express trains get priority – even trans-continental trains can be held up half an hour or more while the fish express goes through.

The fish, mostly trout and white fish found elsewhere only in the northern stretches of the Great Lakes, are netted. They are a high protein fish, fish that en-

abled the early explorers to go up the Mackenzie without suffering from scurvy.

At the moment nearly 100 fishing boats operate on Great Slave Lake during the peak season and there are 12 floating packers, equipped to dress and ice the smaller boats' catches for days at a time.

There is virtually no likelihood that the lake will ever be fished out. The Department of Fisheries has set a quota of 9 million pounds a year and it keeps a close check in regulating licences, permissible fishing areas and size of catch. Department officials use scientific fish tracing methods to provide a guide to any fluctuation in fish movement. They say the fish, unless harvested, will go to waste. Intelligent fishing will actually increase productivity.

In the unlikely event that the lake is ever fished out, it will not mean an end to the industry. The Northwest Territories is a land of countless lakes, all heavily populated with fish. At present only a tiny fraction of the lakes are fished but the Department intends, through research and investigation, to open up more and more as time goes on.

Fishing goes on throughout winter and summer in areas chosen by Department officials on the basis of their findings. In winter fish cabins are set up as much as 75 miles away from the base at Hay River. Nets are let down through holes in the ice and fishermen remain on the lake for weeks at a time. Supplies are carried to the cabins by "bombardiers", beetle-like motor vehicles with tracks. These also return to base with the catch.

The townspeople say that one of the prime needs for the fishing industry at Hay River is a large cold storage plant for the native fisherman who cannot afford his own refrigeration facilities. They feel that if a co-operative were started, it would allow a little more free enterprise by the natives themselves. Enlarged storage facilities would provide a more stable rate of catch, since marketing would not be handicapped by poor road and weather conditions.

Many communities in Canada consider themselves fortunate to have one industry to support them. Hay River, with two, has come a long way since the days twelve years ago when the inhabitants lived in cabins and tents. The people point proudly to the population increase over the years. They are confident that the "busiest inland fishing port in North America" can only move ahead along with the general development of the North.

Wooden sidewalks, a common sight in Hay River.

SCIENCE et HABITAT

par Jacques Simard

Le Nouveau Larousse Illustré définit le mot "habitat" d'une façon non équivoque comme étant "l'ensemble des conditions physiques et géographiques dans lesquelles vivent les espèces animales". Cette définition est suivie d'un exemple bien choisi qui ne peut laisser aucun doute sur le sens du mot: "les marais de l'hémisphère boréal sont l'habitat des pélophiles, bléthises et autres insectes de la tribu des élaphrinés".

Je me souviens qu'à l'époque où je lisais tout ce qui me tombait sous les yeux au sujet de l'urbanisme, avoir étudié avec étonnement d'abord, puis enthousiasme ensuite, un papier d'un certain anthropologue américain.

On lui avait posé la question: Est-ce que la famille humaine peut se développer aussi bien dans un milieu à haute densité que dans un milieu à basse densité?

J'imagine que ce savant n'avait pas un fort budget de recherches car il décida astucieusement d'utiliser les mouches pour son étude sur les densités. Vous comprenez? L'homme est un animal, la mouche est un animal – ab aequo!

En tous cas, les résultats de son enquête furent remarquables. La courbe de mortalité des mouches fut trouvée parallèle à celle de la densité.

Quant à la natalité brute, la promiscuité des individus aidant, elle fut constatée supérieure à la moyenne; mais la natalité nette s'avéra inférieure. En effet, les moucherons ne pouvaient survivre au piétinement et les tracés de distribution des aliments (trafic) furent trouvés si emmêlés que les petits et les faibles mouraient d'inanition.(1)

Que les commanditaires de cette remarquable enquête aient tout de même construit leurs blocs d'immeubles n'infirme pas les conclusions scientifiques de notre savant, et si je cite ce travail, c'est que je peux faire progresser cette recherche sur l'habitat. Je crois aussi pouvoir conclure avec plus d'emphase encore étant donné que mon sujet est toute de même plus animal qu'une mouche. En effet, il s'agit d'un canard.

Monsieur Simard, en plus de la formation traditionnelle, est également diplômé de Harvard's Graduate School of Business Administration. Il a étudié l'urbanisme avec le professeur Spence-Sales à l'Université McGill. Il a été directeur exécutif de l'A.C.U.

Photo–Newton

Coin-Coin salue la visite.

Le caneton s'installa dans la famille une veille de Pâques. Il avait échappé au coloris rose ou vert avec lequel notre civilisation décore les poussins et canetons en cette saison.

Robuste, il affectionnait les chandails des enfants où sans doute il se sentait protégé comme dans le duvet d'une mère cane. Et c'est ainsi que graduellement notre canard baptisé, comme vous le pensez bien, "Coin-Coin", s'installa dans l'habitat inusité d'une famille humaine, convaincu sans doute que nous étions tous des canards.

Vous en doutez? Coin-Coin nous suivait partout de sa démarche clopinante et la sacrée bestiole protestait à grands coins-coins si on la semait en route.

Les canards aiment l'eau, c'est connu. Mais remarquez combien cet animal s'était départi de son habitat normal. Si les enfants allaient au bord de l'eau, Coin-Coin les accompagnait et pataugeait sans s'éloigner, tenant un œil sur la compagnie et rien ne l'eut fait prolonger son séjour à l'eau si ses compagnons remontaient la berge. Au bain, c'était différent. Coin-Coin devenait alors une vraie peste, plongeant pour mordre les orteils des uns et des autres, tirant sur les cheveux qui flottaient, s'empêtrant dans les manœuvres des nageurs à l'apprentissage. Son plus grand plaisir était de se faire lancer en l'air, pour s'abattre sur l'eau de ses ailes inutiles, plonger et venir quêter un nouveau lancer.

Coin-Coin n'avait pas ses aises dans la maison, non. Mais il y avait toujours quelqu'un pour lui ouvrir la porte, ne fusse que pour voir son air consterné quand les pattes lui partaient de chaque coté sur les planchers cirés. Rien ne le rebutait cependant pour se joindre à la compagnie, et sa façon de se dandiner avec importance fit s'exclamer un membre de la famille en visite, fort surpris d'ailleurs de l'intrusion: "Mais il me fait penser à Tante Flavie!" Pas de commentaire.

Coin-Coin bien adapté dans son milieu eut son heure de gloire. Les enfants lui avaient appris à saluer. Eh

(1) Le savant consciencieux faisait remarquer aussi qu'un moucheron tombant la distance équivalente de trois étages ne s'écrabouillait pas pour si peu, vu son équipement ailé particulier. (N. de l'A.)

oui! il suffisait de pencher le buste pour que notre canard, s'allongeant le cou, ouvrant les ailes, saluât gravement. A un "garden-party" mémorable, Coin-Coin passa son temps à saluer la compagnie tout heureux sans doute de cette affluence de "canards" respectueux.

Mais ce talentueux canard n'avait pas fini de nous surprendre. Un bon jour, les enfants qui s'étaient empressés de libérer Coin-Coin de son appentis où une patte sur "la Presse" il passait la nuit la tête sous l'aile, firent irruption dans la maison en criant: "Coin-Coin a pondu un œuf et il y a quelque chose d'écrit dessus!"

Pendant que j'ajustais mentalement mon comportement à l'idée inattendue que Coin-Coin était une cane, du fond de mon savoir montaient de vagues images d'augure, d'auspice, d'oies du Capitole, d'oiseaux chers à Thétis, etc.

Etait-ce possible que cet oiseau de basse-cour, retrouvant dans notre habitat la considération que les grands de l'empire de Rome leur vouaient, se mit tout à coup à prédire l'avenir? Hallucinant.

Impossible pour nous à cette époque de comprendre le message. Mais aujourd'hui, — non c'est incroyable. Jugez vous-même.

Il y avait sur l'œuf de Coin-Coin écrit en Bodoni, 6 points, sauf quelques lettres illisibles: "gaz . . natur . . "

Coin-Coin continua de pondre régulièrement mais ses œufs étaient analphabètes. Ce fut une ère de gros gâteaux jaune serin.

Puis vint l'automne et la rentrée des classes. Coin-Coin en fut visiblement affecté et graduellement il (elle) se réfugia à l'eau où ses appels nostalgiques eurent un effet qui dut le surprendre car (nous habitons dans un sanctuaire d'oiseaux) les canards sauvages de passage curent tôt fait de lui rendre visite.

Mais voilà! Ces lointains voyageurs qui ressemblent si peu aux grands "canards" qui peuplaient son habitat, n'étaient pas des compagnons pour Coin-Coin. C'est ainsi que les visiteurs, pivotant le derrière en l'air pour manger, se faisaient *bouffer le chou-fleur* par notre canard agressif qui perdit ainsi ses camarades.

Vint l'hiver. Le choix était simple: canard à l'orange ou la ferme. Se plaçant dans l'optique du canard, la famille opta pour la ferme. On ne devait plus revoir Coin-Coin. A la ferme, ses manières distantes et hautaines le tinrent à l'écart du groupe et un jour d'équipée solitaire, Coin-Coin ne revint plus; quelques plumes dans un fossé et, dans le taillis voisin, un renard qui sans doute, se léchait les babines.

Ne vous laissez pas prendre par l'histoire si humaine de Coin-Coin; ou plutôt plaçons Coin-Coin dans le contexte humain.

Ce canard extraordinaire faillit réussir à s'adapter à son changement d'habitat; il eut même ses heures de gloire dépassant à tout point les avantages possibles dans un groupe de canards. Mais notons deux choses importantes: il n'eut pas de descendants et il perdit la vie faute de comprendre son vrai milieu.

En serait-il ainsi des hommes? Transposés dans un habitat impropre en souffrairaient-ils? Il y a tout lieu de le croire. En effet, une détérioration inquiétante se manifeste au niveau de l'adolescent, de la famille, de l'homme social et politique. Je sais bien qu'il est convenable de se fermer les yeux pour dire que la jeunesse n'est ni mieux ni pire qu'autrefois; que la famille conjugale a gagné en liberté ce que la famille partriarcale a perdu en homogénéité; que l'homme social et politique doit payer la rançon de son équipement moderne et fastueux.

Ne serait-ce pas justement cet habitat moderne et mécanique, fastueux et faux qui est à la base de cette détérioration?

On cherche en vain dans nos agglomérations contemporaines cette urbanité (le mot a même perdu son sens) qui était le propre de la "urbs", la ville. Et comment dans nos machines à habiter, dans nos monstrueuses machines à cohabiter, développer le respect de la personne? On n'y récolte que l'anonymat et ce paradoxe de vies associales dans un grouillement égotiste d'êtres faits pour vivre en société.

Et quel beau champ d'action présente ce peuple amorphe et désintéressé à la technique poussée du manieur de masses et du politicien sans principes!

La nostalgie existe bien d'un habitat humain — lâchons le mot, à l'échelle de l'homme. Mais la satisfaction n'est pas dans un Levittown — ou dans un suburbia quelconque; non plus dans les montagnes distantes où l'isolement et la nature sauvage sont violés par une autoroute et la horde spoliatrice qui y roule.

Il n'y a certes pas de recette facile et le danger est toujours là d'imposer son vouloir à ceux dont on aspire justement à sauver la liberté.

Mais tant qu'on ne se penchera pas avec attention et sympathie sur les besoins de la personne humaine, elle sera écartelée jusqu'à ce que sa merveilleuse faculté d'adaptation soit épuisée.

Conservons la métropole, certes, "ce point de concentration maximum de puissance et de culture d'une communauté", mais que nos agglomérations répondent aux impératifs de la personne humaine; en un mot, villes satellites, à la taille de l'homme.

Notre canard périt d'avoir été plongé dans un habitat qui dépassait sa taille; n'en serait-il pas ainsi de nous?

. . . . *leur bouffant le chou-fleur.*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CENTRAL MORTGAGE & HOUSING CORPORATION

Residents of Winnipeg greet Her Majesty Queen Elizabeth and H.R.H. Prince Philip, July 1959.

Photo—Portigal and Ayers, Winnipeg

Book Reviews

CANADIAN MORTGAGES by H. Woodard

Published by William Collins Sons & Co. Canada Ltd.

Canadian Mortgages which makes its appearance November 25, 1959, is the first comprehensive treatment of the Canadian mortgage business to be published in this country. It outlines the history of mortgage lending in Canada, explains the technical terms used and describes the land tenure system. Although of necessity it deals with the laws affecting mortgages it is not a legal text and its style will appeal to the layman as well as to the seasoned administrator. An interesting feature of the book is its treatment of National Housing Act legislation in which the author draws on his experience in Central Mortgage and Housing Corporation.

William Collins Sons and Co. Canada Ltd. is the publisher.

In the pages which follow appear reviews by men closely associated with mortgage lending in practical or academic fields.

Mr. Woodard has had a long and active career in the mortgage field. He has been with Central Mortgage and Housing Corporation since its formation in 1946, first as Assistant Secretary and since 1956 as Financial Adviser. Mr. Woodard was born in Esh Winning, County Durham, England. He attended Durham University and in 1926 took up residence in Canada. He was associated with The British General Fire Insurance Company and then joined Sun Life Assurance Company of Canada. From 1944 until he joined the Corporation Mr. Woodard was Supervisor of the Mortgage Department.

Photo—Horsdal

Jules E. Fortin, Secretary-Treasurer, The Dominion Mortgage and Investments Association.

The mortgage business in Canada has become "big" business. It is a business which requires a great deal of painstaking administration and a basic knowledge of the many aspects of the law affecting mortgages, some directly and some indirectly. In his book *Canadian Mortgages*, Mr. Woodard has covered the subject in a comprehensive way emphasizing essential points of mortgage lending procedures and administration. The book is not intended to be a legal textbook but it gives a great deal of information on points of law basic to real estate mortgage lending. There is a real need for a book of this kind as there is a dearth of readily accessible information on this subject in Canada and Mr. Woodard's book is a valuable contribution which should prove useful. Mr. Woodard's book is all the more authoritative because of his long experience in the mortgage business, initially with a private institution and more latterly with Central Mortgage and Housing Corporation. He has written an informative book in an interesting way making it easily readable.

Mr. Fortin is executive head of The Dominion Mortgage and Investments Association. The Association provides facilities for assisting its members — life insurance, loan and trust companies — in problems affecting their investments in Canada. In his thirty-six years with the Association, Mr. Fortin has gained wide knowledge in the field of investment and is well known in financial circles. He is recognized as an authority in the mortgage investment field.

D. H. Koyl, F.R.I., President, The Canadian Association of Real Estate Boards.

Here at last is a major document that takes the mystery out of the Canadian mortgage picture generally, and Central Mortgage and Housing Corporation particularly. A mystery that has plagued the real estate broker and mortgage correspondent over all these years. This volume is certainly more than a step by step guide for beginners, it is a readable and useful document for the expert and novice alike.

This book is a complete study of a vital subject. It will surely become a top reference work for all those even remotely concerned with the mortgage field. This book is full of information on the mortgage business in Canada from coast to coast. The author obviously has many years of experience in his field and this means that 18 chapters and the additional sections abound in authoritive information on the mortgage business in Canada.

Canadian Mortgages is full of principle and practices applied and clarified. The book is easy reading, it is certainly recommended reading for all those concerned with Canadian mortgages.

Some will perhaps commence reading this book with some trepidation, that perhaps it will only be concerned with Central Mortgage and Housing Corporation. However, a pleasant surprise awaits the reader for he or she will find that this book covers the entire mortgage field in Canada in an easily readable manner. The author set out with a purpose of setting into layman's language all the necessary opinions and discussions on mortgage lending in Canada, he has succeeded, eminently well.

This is a straightforward document covering the mortgage field in this country from the earliest day until today, each chapter carries you through the various facets of the mortgage itself, its nature and type, to its pitfalls and then expresses the author's opinion on needs in the mortgage field, completing the well rounded document with some very profound notes to the beginner in the field. Which all adds up to a book that should become a text for those interested in greater education in the mortgage business.

All in all *Canadian Mortgages* is a rounded presentation written by a stimulating author. In the words of the author – "Education is . . . necessary as to the elements of real estate transactions." This author has filled a vacuum in Canadian business education, it is certainly recommended reading for all the Realtors of the country, all the mortgage correspondents and appraisers.

An outstanding compilation that I have no hesitancy in recommending for inclusion in the library of all who are interested in real property.

Mr. Koyl is manager of Koyl Agencies, Limited, where his business career began in 1937. Mr. Koyl is also President of the Canadian Association of Real Estate Boards for 1959, having served as regional vice-president from 1954 to 1956, as chairman of the historical committee in 1957 and as vice-president in 1957 and 1958. He is a charter member of the Canadian Institute of Realtors in which he holds the degree of Fellow. Mr. Koyl is a member of the Board of Trade and of various service organizations.

Photo–Charmbury's, Saskatoon

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W. Andrew MacKay, B.A., LL.B., LL.M., Faculty of Law, Dalhousie University.

Canadian Mortgages by H. Woodard is designed as a handbook for ready reference particularly by the beginner in the business of administering mortgages. It is purposely broad in scope and does not purport to be an exhaustive treatise upon any or all aspects of the mortgage business. This breadth of treatment has inevitably resulted in a lack of detailed treatment of various topics, which, while it does not detract seriously from the value of the book, does mean that persons who seek guidance on particular aspects must continue to consult the experts. Thus, the lawyer will find the discussion of legal aspects entirely too superficial or sanguine; for example, the chapter on "Land holding and its Registration" ignores the historical background of difficulties in this compli-

cated phase of Canadian law, and the chapters on "Mechanics Liens" and "Foreclosure and other Remedies" also tend to over-simplify the intricacies of the law. The veteran mortgage administrator may find fault with a tendency toward the generalization of administrative practices and with the assumption upon which the work seems based, despite the author's occasional reference to difficulties created by conditions of economic recession, that we will enjoy continuing prosperity which will create few serious problems for the mortgagee. No doubt others, expert in particular phases of mortgage transactions, may find treatment of their interests somewhat superficial.

The book is written for the layman. Technical terms used are all adequately explained and from beginning to end the text is easily read. Since each chapter treats a different subject matter there can be little quarrel with their arrangement which does not, in all cases, fall in line with what might be considered the normal progress of a mortgage transaction. For example, chapters on insured mortgages, title and equity insurance appear at the last of the volume rather than in connection with other chapters relating to the position of the parties who have entered into a mortgage transaction.

Perhaps the outstanding feature of the book is its excellent treatment of the developments within the mortgage market in Canada over the last quarter century. The chapters on "Historical Review" and on "Insured Mortgages", summarize these, but in fact the theme throughout is to illustrate mortgage practice in the light of recent developments. If anything, the author underemphasizes the role of the federal government and CMHC in these developments which have not only changed the market place but have had such an impact upon social developments in Canada. The excellent treatment of current mortgage practice makes the book of interest to lawyers, investors and even experienced mortgage administrators who should find in it much of value to them, despite the lack of exhaustive analysis in their fields of particular interest. The layman, whose first and only contact with the mortgage business may be when he commits his future earnings over a long term to repayment of the debt necessary to finance his family home, will find this a useful book for his general information. In short, the work should be of interest to a much wider audience than that for which it is primarily designed. The author and CMHC are to be congratulated for providing the first general reference book on the mortgage business in Canada.

Professor MacKay, a native of Halifax, holds degrees of B.A., LL.B., and LL.M., from Dalhousie University. He is Associate Professor in the Dalhousie Law School, lecturing in mortgages, legal history, and constitutional and international law. Professor MacKay was with the Department of External Affairs from 1954 to 1957 and during part of that time was on loan to the Royal Commission on Canada's Economic Prospects where he held the post of Assistant Secretary.

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H. L. Robson, B.A., LL.B., Senior Assistant Secretary-Treasurer, The Canadian Bankers' Association.

Drawing upon a wealth of experience and knowledge gained during an extensive career in the fields of private and public mortgage lending and administration, Mr. Woodard has made a welcome contribution to the rather limited reference sources available to the student and the practicing mortgage man. There has, in fact, long been a place for an authoritative text on the administration aspects of mortgages and Mr. Woodard's work *Canadian Mortgages* will be very favourably received. Its usefulness to those concerned with mortgage administration is assured.

As is explained in the foreword written by President Stewart Bates of Central Mortgage and Housing Corporation, this is a non-legal text; the book has been sponsored by the Corporation, of which the author is an executive officer, but Mr. Bates makes clear that the author has not only been free to draw widely upon the experience and the records of the Corporation, even the decisions which have shaped our national housing legislation, but there has been no restraint upon the projection of his own thoughts, interpretations and opinions. All this makes the book the more interesting although some

of the author's projections may, as he himself would no doubt allow, be approached in some quarters with reserve. However, it is of value that the veil is thus lifted to an extent that affords the reader an opportunity to understand factors in the decisions on our national housing legislation. A notable instance concerns the introduction in 1954 of mortgage loan insurance. It should be mentioned, though, that the book is not confined to mortgages which come within such legislation, but deals also with the conventional mortgage and the chattel mortgage, with appropriate references to the provisions of provincial legislation to be observed in every land and chattel mortgage transaction.

From the standpoint of this reviewer it seems fair comment that the banker's eye will be attracted to evidences here and there of something less than a full appreciation by the author of a basic element in bank lending – liquidity. A mortgage transaction entered into by a bank is still a bank loan, and a meltable security will ever be a prominent concern of the banker. On page 21 the author lays some stress on the interest attraciton of mortgages: "With a mortgage interest rate, initially common to both classes of lenders, it must have been fairly obvious to the banks that the mortgage field offered long-term investment opportunities at relatively high yields." Interest is not the whole story. The reader will find a useful treatment of this liquidity point in the references to statements of Messrs. G. F. Towers and T. H. Atkinson (in evidence before the House of Commons Banking and Commerce Committee during consideration of the bill leading to enactment of the National Housing Act, 1954) at pages 368-9 of *Chartered Banking in Canada*, by A. B. Jamieson (1955 revision).

After opening with a general note on the nature of the mortgage, the book devotes 28 pages to an informative historical review of the Canadian instrument. It then goes on in an orderly fashion to deal with land tenure and registration systems, nature and effects of a mortgage, administration and collection practices, priorities of claims against title between the mortgages and other creditors' interests, insurance, special features of mortgage financing, the remedies of foreclosures, etc., and closes with some personal reflections drawn from the career of the author: his own thoughts on future trends and developments, and an epilogue of notes to the student embarking upon a mortgage administration career.

Mr. Woodard has been able to put together in a readable style an imposing fund of information and opinion. The writing of such a text book makes heavy demands on skill in the organization of its material. It is inevitable in a number of chapters that we find the text returns to discussion, in another context, of phases of the mortgage transaction dealt with at earlier stages and the usefulness of the book is enhanced by inclusion of an index. An appendix giving the text of key documents pertaining to the insured mortgage loan under the National Housing Act, 1954, rounds out a fine achievement.

Mr. Robson is a graduate of the Manitoba Law School. After a short period in private practice he spent nine years in the legal department of one of Canada's chartered banks. He then entered the service of The Canadian Bankers' Association in which work he has been closely associated with banking and mortgage legislation.

Photo—Hayward Studios Inc., Montreal

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Philip H. White, B.Sc., M.Sc., F.R.I.C.S., F.A.I..
Faculty of Commerce and Business Administration, University of British Columbia.

Primarily, this is a book on mortgage administration and is intended to serve as a reference book for those engaged in such work as well as a text-book for those undergoing training. It does not profess to be a legal book, but it has relevance for students in schools of law and commerce and business administration.

Conventionally, a review should proceed with a comparison with other books in the same field, but since this is the first book of its kind, inability to follow this pattern is an immediate acknowledgement of part of Mr. Woodard's achievement. Although it breaks new ground, the book has attained its objective and must be regarded as a considerable success.

Anyone writing a book about Canadian practices is faced with an immediate problem, namely, whether to consider the subject on a geographical basis by reference to the provincial scene, or to treat it as a whole and to comment on provincial variations as occasion demands. The second course has been adopted and as a consequence general principles of the important facets of mortgage administration are clearly identified. Having regard to the purpose of the book, there is little doubt that this approach is to be preferred.

An agreeable by-product of the author's great experience in his subject is fluency and balance. The book is well written, does not labour the obvious, and is even leavened by humour. It begins with a historical review, describes land tenure, registration and the nature of a mortgage; it then proceeds to discuss the methods of making mortgage loans; mechanics' liens; repayment plans; mortgage deeds; insurance; taxes; mathematics of amortization; treatment of arrears; mortgagees' remedies; and mortgage and title insurance. Finally, there is some extremely useful advice for the beginner including the excellent suggestion of a personal card index system – which is also relevant to many areas other than mortgage administration.

The purpose of the book dictates that its nature should be descriptive rather than analytical, and although Mr. Woodard is not averse to examining policies critically – there is an impressive discussion of mortgage insurance – the main theme is inevitably how things are or should be done rather than questioning the validity of the practices described. For example, although current appraisal practices are summarized, it would be of considerable interest to have the views of the author on the problems of appraisal in relation to mortgage lending, particularly concerning the administrative need for some form of quasi-mechanical appraising by such means as grid rating. Critical evaluation of the appraisal methods described is not within the scope of the book, but the adoption of lending value rather than market value as the basis on which a loan is made is a policy decision which warrants examination. It is arguable that where lending value is less than current market value and a loan is made as a proportion of lending value, the mortgage introduces, consciously or unconsciously, an additional safety factor which, if necessary, could be provided in a more direct and easily understood way. Variations in the terms of the mortgage due to differences in risk is another area of policy decision which the nature of the book precludes from detailed investigation. This kind of discussion, however, is of great value in developing a student's understanding of the work he is being trained to do, and since a second edition will certainly be required, it is hoped that room might be found to enable a wider approach to be made.

Bearing in mind the formidable task which a book of this kind represents and the wealth of information it already contains, it is with some hesitation that any reference is made to matters which have not been included. The book is intended for those working in the institutional lending field and consequently is concerned mainly with first mortgages, but it would have been an advantage if subsequent mortgages could have been treated more comprehensively, especially mathematical aspects of bonuses and discounts. The bibliography might also have included further references particularly in regard to papers and articles. Generally, libraries are not especially well provided with material in this field and without the guidance of such men as the author, it is difficult for the student to know where he can profitably pursue his studies.

But such points of detail as have been mentioned must not be allowed to obscure the fact that this is an excellent text book and one which will be continually referred to for many years to come. The author has performed a great service to his profession, and he is to be warmly commended for it. A word of thanks is also due to Central Mortgage and Housing Corporation for their initiative in sponsoring the project which fulfils a need of an important sector of the business community.

Professor White has been a member of the Faculty of Commerce and Business Administration, University of British Columbia, since coming to Canada from England in 1958. At the University he has established various undergraduate and extra-mural courses in the general field of real estate and appraisal. Professor White was educated at the University of London and from 1952 to 1958 headed the Valuation Department, College of Estate Management, London. Professor White's publications include texts on expropriation appraisals, taxation appraisals and appraisal tables.

Court House, Kingston.

Canada's Age of Elegance

by J. A. S. Evans

In 1796, the Province of Upper Canada was still a raw, unpopulated place. The little town of York was a poor, comfortless community, but it had a legislative assembly and, north of York, the mansion of Castle Frank was being built for the Lieutenant-Governor, Col. John Graves Simcoe. His wife describes the place in one of her letters. It was "built on the plan of a Grecian temple, totally of wood, the logs squared and so grooved together so that in case of decay any log could be taken out. The large pine trees make pillars for the porticoes which are at each end 16 feet high."

Castle Frank burned down in 1829, after standing abandoned for years. Its "Grecian" architecture was before its time, for the Greek revival did not reach Canada until about 1840; but elsewhere, enthusiasm for classical art had been growing throughout the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. In the eighteenth century, the buried city of Pompei on the bay of Naples began to be excavated. At first, it was little more than a treasure hunt, but still these excavations started to capture the popular imagination.

Greece itself was still under Turkish rule, and European architects had very little first-hand information about Greek architecture. Thus far, they saw their classical art through the eyes of Rome, and although Roman architecture borrowed heavily from the Greeks, it had a distinctive character of its own. In the mid-eighteenth century, two British architects, Stuart and Revett, went to Greece and made detailed drawings of as many ancient buildings as they could. Modern archaeologists have proved Stuart and Revett wrong on some of their measurements, but their drawings are still referred to by students of Greek art.

It may seem odd to us, but the political ideologies and the religious temperament of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries played their part in the Greek revival. This is not as strange as it may seem. Throughout history, totalitarian states show a preference for grandiose architecture: witness ancient Egypt, or Mussolini's Italy, or modern Russia. Baroque architecture in southern Europe went hand-in-hand with the counter-Reformation, and Gothic architecture sprang out of the deep piety of the Middle Ages. In the nineteenth century there were several reasons why classical architecture had its appeal.

The United States had just completed its revolution and found itself a republic in a world of monarchies. It was natural that Americans in the late eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries should look back at the one great example of a republic which had preceded them: the republic of Rome. So when Thomas Jefferson drew the designs for the University of Virginia he used classical architecture. The Greek columns and classical porticoes in Washington, to say nothing of numerous state capitals, express the same feeling. After all, Athens was the world's first democracy and Rome was a great republic.

But classical architecture spoke with two voices. Both Athens and Rome may have begun as democratic republics, but both had built up empires. Rome in particular symbolized the imperial idea and when classical architecture was applied to Canadian public buildings, it was the imperial idea that was dominant. British North America was not a republic like the United States; it was a monarchy and part of an empire. It is perhaps no accident that the classical revival in Canada starts after the 1837 revolt of Mackenzie in Upper Canada and Papineau in Quebec and is petering out by the time of Confederation in 1867 and the Canada First movement which followed Confederation.

Some of Canada's best examples of classical architecture are in Kingston. The Kingston city hall was built in 1843-4, with George Brown as architect, and although its portico has been taken down it still has a kind of mutilated grandeur. St. George's Anglican cathedral in Kingston dates from about the same time. Alwington House, once the Governor-General's residence when Kingston was the capital of Canada, was one of our earliest examples of classical architecture, but this mansion was destroyed by fire in 1958. But there are still a few elegant mansions of classical design along the Kingston waterfront, and the Kingston Court House, built in 1855, still faces the City Park, with its portico complete.

Niagara-on-the-Lake has a unique piece of classical architecture. Canadian classicism on the whole derives from Britain, but the church of St. Andrew's in Niagara-on-the-Lake might have stepped out of a New England town. But classical designs had little appeal for church architecture in Ontario. Perhaps they had pagan overtones which churchmen could not stomach; more probably the trouble was that Gothic architecture was indelibly associated in the popular mind with the Christian religion. At any rate, by

St. Andrew's Church, Niagara-on-the-Lake, Ontario.

Elements of Classicism, City Hall, Kingston, Ontario.

Historic St. Paul's Lutheran Church, Galt, Ontario.

Old Victoria College, Cobourg, Ontario.

the 1850's, Gothic church architecture is taking over. By 1857, when David Allen designed St. Andrew's Presbyterian Church in Guelph, Ontario, Gothic churches were being built all over Upper Canada. Even square Methodist chapels might have pointed windows taken out of the Gothic tradition. South of Guelph in Puslinch township, near the route of Highway No. 401, there is a curious Methodist chapel of this sort called the Ellis Church. It is stone-built, completely square and unadorned, but on the sides and front it has great pointed, Gothic windows.

Gothic architecture gained ground in the field of private dwellings too, though this time it was a kind of Victorian Gothic, which was often combined with classical elements. One of the commonest types of farm-house built in southern Ontario in the late nineteenth century was essentially classical. The house was square, with the front door in dead centre and the windows arranged symmetrically on either side. The only Gothic element was a "gothick"; the roof over the front door was raised to a point to make room for the window which lit the upstairs hall. Sometimes – not always – this window was also pointed.

But by the 1890's Victorian architecture had taken over in Canada. A few public buildings still used the classical designs; the Kitchener city hall was built in the Greek revival style at the beginning of the twentieth century. Classical columns still appealed to the world of finance. Banks were still built in classical styles; evidently financiers appreciated the stability and solidity of Rome. Since the depression in the 1930's banks have shown a distinct trend towards modern architecture.

But many of the characteristics of Greek revival remain and deserve to remain. Its symmetry, its love of balance and clean lines and its use of sculpture to set off buildings are well worth incorporating into modern architecture. And the nineteenth century remnants of classical architecture in Canada deserve our care. There are not too many examples left: they are worth looking after.

Mr. Evans has taught classics at Waterloo University College, Waterloo, Ontario since 1955. He is also managing editor of the Waterloo Review. Mr. Evans has written for periodicals in Canada, the United States and Australia. He has done graduate work at Yale University and at the American School of Classical Studies in Athens where he was Fellow for the academic year 1954-55. The author took the photographs which illustrate the article.

CANADIAN PLANNERS LOOK AT URBAN RENEWAL

The second Urban Renewal Seminar sponsored by Central Mortgage and Housing Corporation was held in Ottawa September 9-11, 1959. It brought together planners and architects who have been involved in the work of urban renewal in the major cities in Canada.

In the three years intervening since the first seminar considerable progress has been made. With Federal Government assistance under the National Housing Act twenty cities have undertaken studies of housing and living conditions within their boundaries and five have reached or completed the action stage of redevelopment of blighted areas. Many others have become aware of the need for adaptation to new forms of development and the new demands created by a changing society.

Much of the seminar was given to consideration of the practical problems encountered at various government levels in preparing, organizing and implementing redevelopment programmes. Out of the experience of the planners attending the seminar came an assessment of the content of urban renewal surveys and studies.

The term, "Urban Renewal", is associated by many solely with slum clearance, explained J. F. Brown, Redevelopment Officer, Ontario Department of Planning and Development, but it is important that as its use becomes general it is interpreted in the broadest sense, meaning all those measures which affect the urban community as a whole. M. B. M. Lawson, Director City of Toronto Planning Board said, "We must realize we are dealing with a process of constant renewal of the entire city in all its parts". "Urban Renewal", in the view of G. Sutton Brown, Director of Planning, Vancouver, is not only a social instrument for relieving poor housing conditions but also an essential element of city growth; it should be as natural a part of the city's normal function as a paving programme.

The importance of integrating renewal action and urban planning was emphasized by S. H. Pickett, Adviser on Urban Renewal, CMHC. Mr. Pickett said, "The project approach where planning and design stop at the boundaries of the site is never likely to be fully successful . . . for the mutual effect of the project and its surroundings on each other will be detrimental to both and may prejudice continuing action".

The manner in which this concept of renewal underlies the planning for Vancouver and Toronto was explained by the planning directors of these cities.

Vancouver has a 20-year Development Plan, which establishes the extent and the need for redevelopment. The study which preceded the plan was carried out by the civic administration. It defined the areas for redevelopment, determined the best use of the land in relation to the city's development plan and set up a programme for clearance of blight over the 20-year period. A 5-year capital budget for the city includes allowance for the cost of acquiring and servicing property preparatory to redevelopment under the terms of the National Housing Act.

H. S. M. Carver, CMHC; Professor James Hodgson, Laval University, Quebec, and Professor G. A. P. Carrothers, University of Toronto, hold an informal discussion between sessions.

In Toronto, in order to cope with the sheer mass of material involved, the Planning Board has divided the city into 25 planning districts. City-wide concepts are presented in a generalized plan and these are elaborated in specific plans for each district. Districts with urgent problems can be given priority but redevelopment is not an isolated project unrelated to the whole. The same system has been adopted by the Metropolitan Planning Board so that the total picture for the Toronto area forms a logical whole. This system has grown out of the urban renewal study made in 1955.

Various methods of handling redevelopment programmes were examined. It was the general conclusion, however, that each municipality must work out the means best suited to its traditional framework of civic administration. In Vancouver, for example, the implementation of the plan is the responsibility of the Planning Department, a part of the regular civic administration. In Toronto, the implementation of the plans, once approved, shifts from the Planning Board to a Department of Buildings and Development established especially for this purpose within the municipal administration. Experience is yet too limited to determine that any one form of organization is better than another. The tendency not to set up separate agencies for redevelopment was considered by most of the planners a healthy one.

Although this has the political advantage of separating elected officers from difficult problems American experience shows that a great deal of energy is spent in running the agencies.

The planners agreed that public support is absolutely essential to the success of any plan. For the planner this means public discussion, obtaining support of officials, of utility companies, of business men and politicians, of public and private organizations and of the press and radio.

The complexity of urban renewal studies and of applications for Federal assistance was the subject of considerable discussion. The reasons for amassing a large volume of supporting material are many – it is addressed to widely different interests, many agencies are involved, broad coverage is needed and it ensures that the city has thoroughly studied its needs. E. A. Levin of CMHC's architectural staff helped clarify the 'study' through the presentation of a hypothetical urban renewal study. Using slides selected from the published reports he illustrated the range of content which the Corporation thinks adequate in these studies.

Dr. E. G. Faludi, a private planning consultant, favoured more specific direction by CMHC; other planners felt it more advantageous to allow each municipality to arrive at its own assessment within certain general boundaries. A. E. Coll, Director of Urban Renewal and Public Housing Division, CMHC, admitted that difficulties result from the absence of precise definitions in the Act in regard to the terms relating to urban renewal, but he agreed with the framers of the Act that a doctrinaire attitude on the part of the Government would restrict the freedom of the municipalities in appraising their needs. The general aim – what is wrong with the city and what should be done about it – is clear.

Gerald Sutton Brown, Director of Planning, Vancouver, B.C., addressing the seminar.

The need for more research on welfare problems was stressed. A plea was also made for more research on the part of CMHC. Mr. Sutton Brown pointed out that the Corporation represents the main hope of the municipalities that there will be original research and an examination of world experience as a guide to the redevelopment of Canadian cities.

In assessing the future of urban renewal, Professor Carrothers, of the Division of Town and Regional Planning, School of Architecture, University of Toronto, forecast an increasing concern with the problems of the urban environment, and an accelerated program of research. He expressed the view that provinces which have been preoccupied with agricultural problems will play a more significant role in urban renewal in the coming years. Professor Anthony Adamson, also of the University of Toronto's School of Architecture, summed up the municipalities' problems as essentially financial.

From the left, M. B. M. Lawson, Toronto, A. R. Davey, Windsor, George Rich, Winnipeg, and Professor Carrothers, Toronto.

Problems which have emerged out of the work already done on urban renewal were discussed. Among these is the need for assistance in the period between the study and the renewal action. Experience has shown that development in surrounding areas may take place in the interval which is not in harmony with the general plan. There is need for financial assistance over the long term; as fast as one area is cleaned up blight breaks out in another. National Housing Act legislation is not geared for continuous assistance.

It was also suggested that cities should give more attention to the core. Because of the tremendous investment in existing establishments the city should capitalize on these assets. Welfare problems around the inner ring have instigated most of the renewal action. Cities have attempted to do everything in the name of housing because the assistance provided in Federal legislation is designed to improve housing.

Also taking part in the discussions were Planners Murray Zides, St. John; George Potvin, Toronto; Ralph Borrowman, Ottawa; George Rich, Winnipeg; Patrick Horsburgh, Hamilton; Professor James Hodgson, Quebec; and H. S. M. Carver, Peter Dovell, and G. Sunderland of CMHC.

Photo—S.C.H.L.

ÉMAUX SUR CUIVRE

par Victor Lecram

Les boutiques d'art et les bazars offrent au public nombre de pièces, qui, employées avec discrimination et bon goût, donnent la note distinctive, voire même artistique, à une pièce emménagée de meubles suivant les règles de l'art. L'art de la décoration intérieure se vulgarise au point que les marchands de mobiliers en tiennent compte autant que les occupants d'une maison.

Les émaux sur cuivre abondent sur le marché. Aussi voit-on plus souvent dans les foyers, des ouvrages en émail sur cuivre tels que cendriers, bonbonnières, bols à salade, sous-verres, plaques murales, peintures et même des gobelets.

La popularité des émaux sur cuivre, tant en bijouterie qu'en pièces purement décoratives, a encouragé nombre d'artisans et de hobbyistes à produire des articles qui inondent le marché présentement. Parmi tous ceux-ci cependant, les pièces réellement dignes de mention sont rares.

Lors d'une récente exposition sur le continent, certains émaux fabriqués au Canada ont reçu les éloges des critiques, voire même jusqu'à dire que cet art ancien est né de nouveau au Canada et les continentaux pourraient tirer profit de la technique dont ces pièces font preuve.

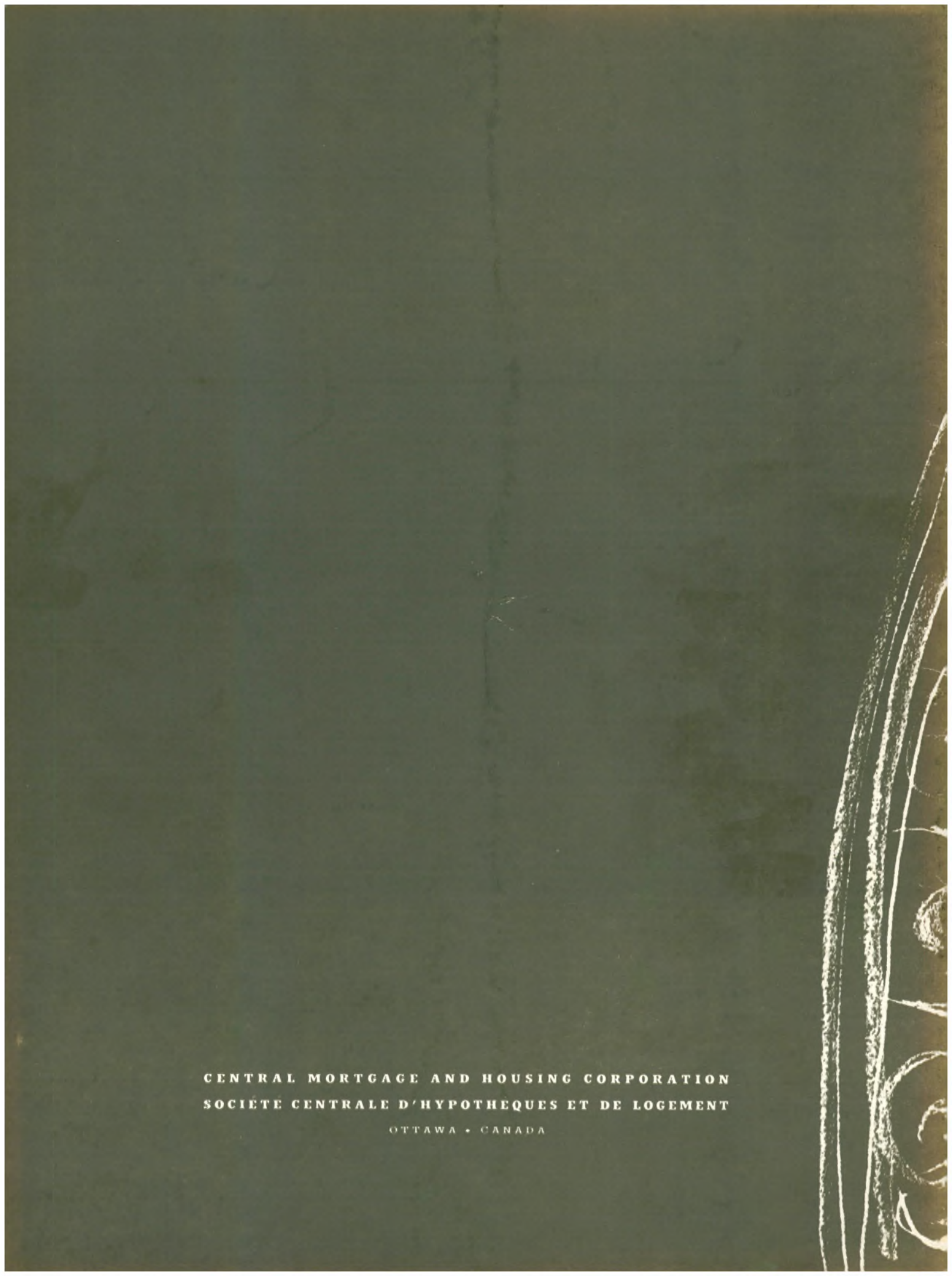
En effet, nous avons à Québec, un émailleur du soit-disant sexe faible, dont la pureté d'exécution et le génie de la composition feraient l'envie de maîtres dans cet art.

L'émail sur cuivre consiste à enduire une forme quelconque en tôle de cuivre, d'une substance composée de silice, de carbonate de potassium et de fondant. Cette substance normalement incolore est teintée en bleu avec de l'oxyde de cobalt, en vert avec l'oxyde d'étain, etc., etc., etc. Cette substance est habituellement sous forme de poudre qui traverse un tamis de 80 m. au pouce. La poudre d'émail est posée sur la surface du cuivre décapé puis retenue en place avec un agglutinant. Lorsque les deux surfaces de la pièce de cuivre sont recouvertes d'émail appliqué à froid, la pièce est portée au four, dont la chaleur varie de 1400° à 1900°. Par l'effet de la chaleur, l'émail se ramollit et se fusionne au métal. Les dessins sont faits par l'emploi de stencils ou pochoirs ou par l'application de l'émail délayé dans l'huile de lavande ou dans l'agglutinant. Contrairement à la peinture à l'huile, les couleurs de l'émail ne s'obtiennent pas par le mélange. On peut parfois obtenir une variation des couleurs opaques par la superposition d'une autre couleur opalescente ou transparente. Il est possible de réaliser même des peintures en émail sur cuivre, mais il faut bien connaître ses couleurs et savoir quel effet un feu peut avoir sur une couleur particulière. En considérant une pièce, la complexité du dessin vaut moins que la pureté d'une ligne, et l'homogénéité d'une couleur. Dans un four à point, le temps de cuisson est d'environ sept minutes pour chaque couche de couleur. Certaines couleurs sont plus lentes à se fusionner; l'épaisseur d'une couche peut ralentir le temps de la cuisson. Il arrive qu'une couleur soumise à plusieurs feux change suffisamment pour ne plus s'appareiller à une couche fraîche de cette même couleur. Il faut donc tenir compte de ceci dans la préparation d'une pièce.

Photo—S.C.H.L.

En émail sur cuivre, il peut se produire des effets plutôt intéressants par suite d'oubli ou de caprice de l'émail en poudre. Par exemple, sur un fond blanc, quelques minutes de cuisson en trop permettront à l'oxyde de cuivre de s'unir à l'émail pour donner un effet marbré antique séduisant. Il arrive parfois qu'une surface en rouge prenne une teinte légèrement orange brûlé à la rive. Le noir surexposé au feu, prend parfois une transparence d'outremer.

Dans la préparation d'un petit plat aux couleurs vives, celui-ci a été exposé au point que les teintes on coulé les unes dans les autres pour donner, en finale, une pièce d'automatisme à la Borduas. Par contre, d'autres pièces ont été absolument gâchées par la formation de crevaces dans l'émail ou encore par la formation de vide laissant un cuivre brûlé.



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