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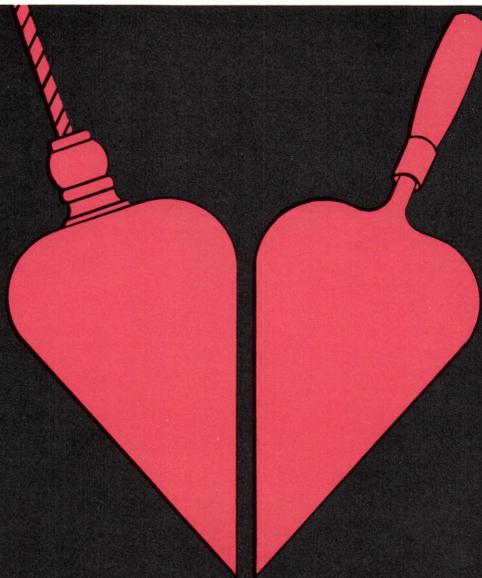
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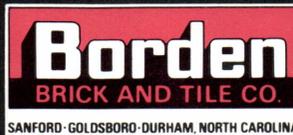
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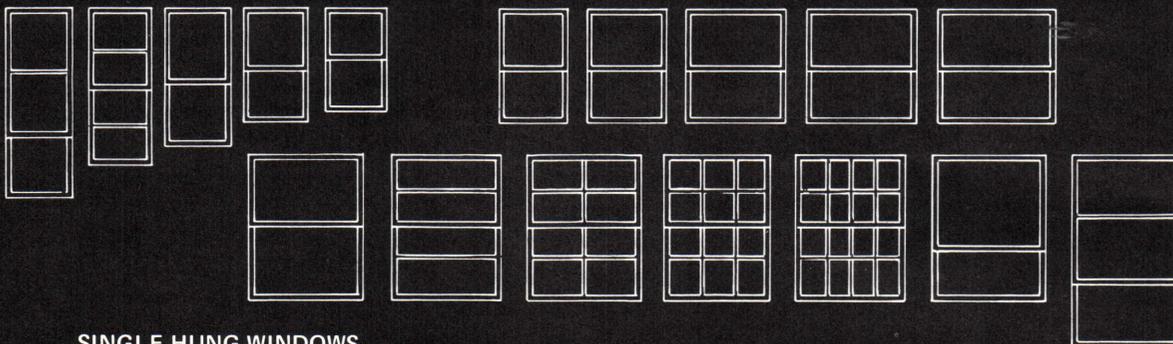


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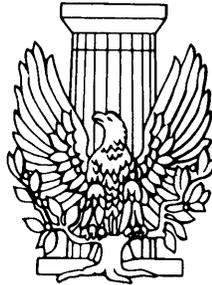
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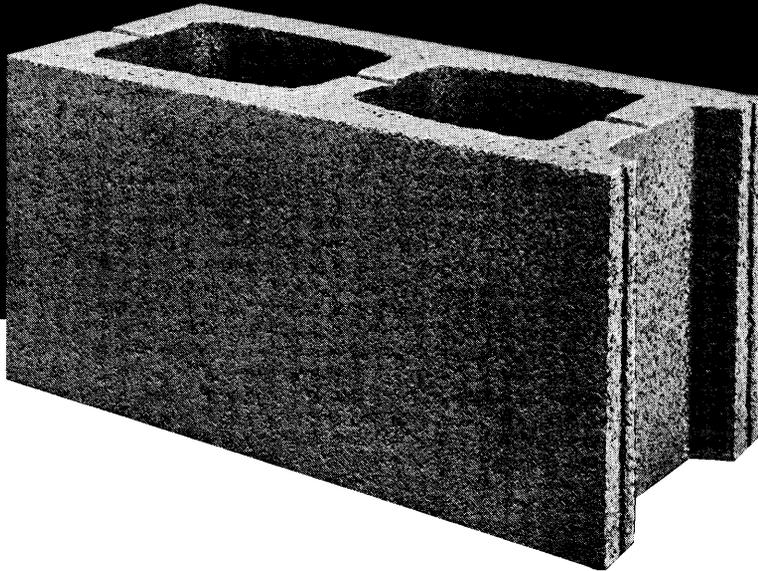
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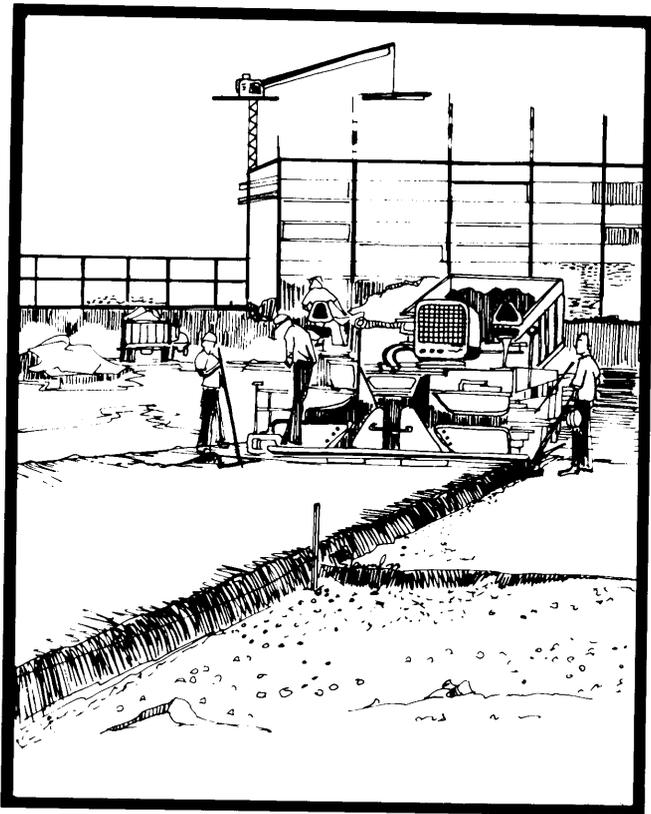
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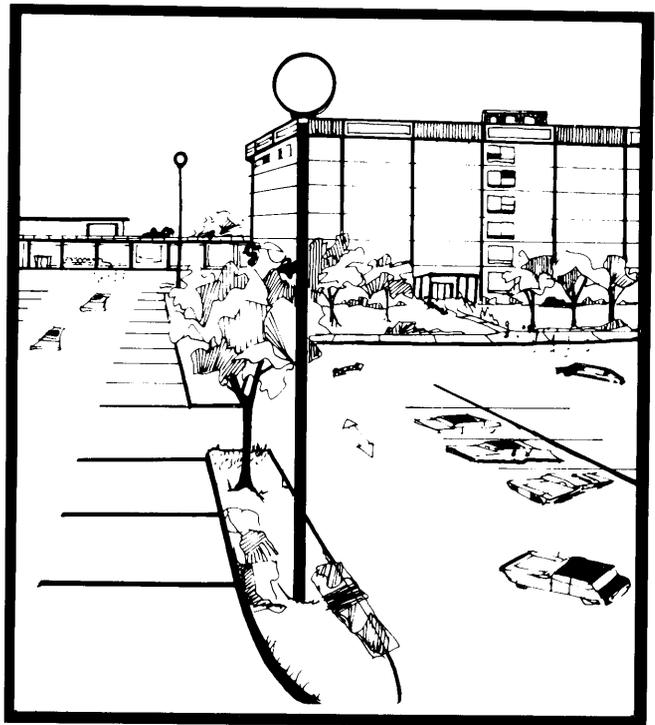
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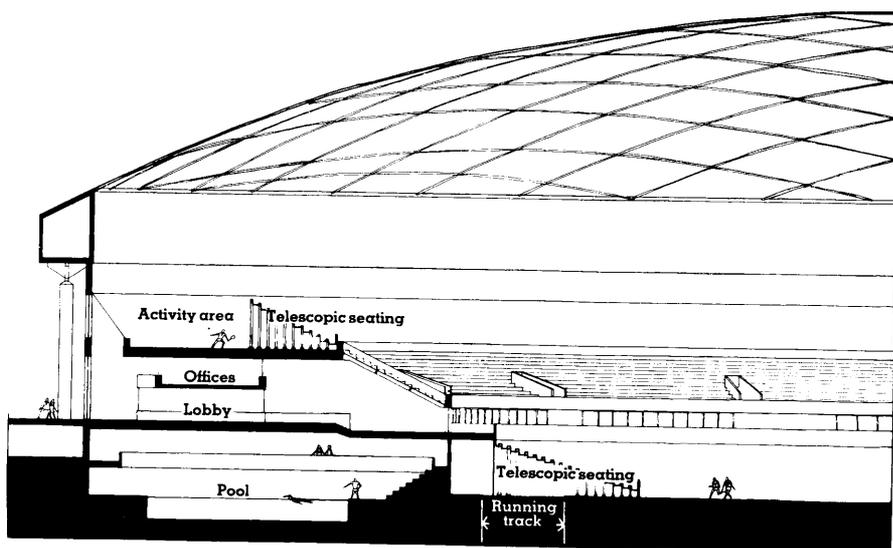
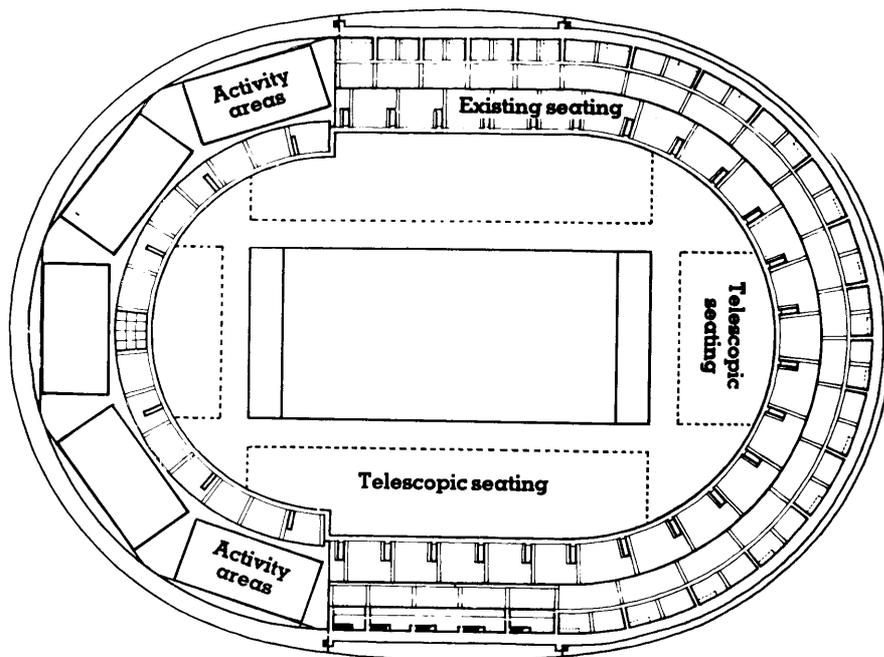


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TRENDS IN PHYSICAL EDUCATION AND RECREATIONAL FACILITIES

Condensed from a report from Educational Facilities Laboratories

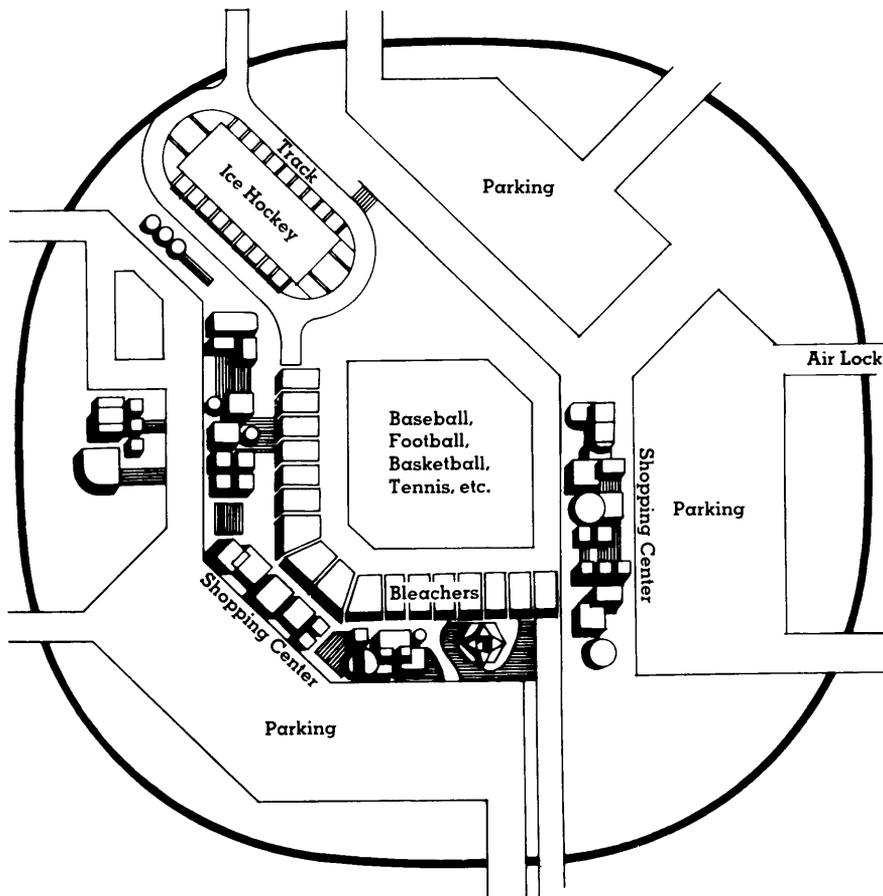


Along with the changing life style which is being experienced today, has come a change in attitude toward sports styles. Many more people are now interested in participation in some type of individual sport recreation as well as viewing team play. So, accompanying this attitude change is a new outlook in athletic facilities.

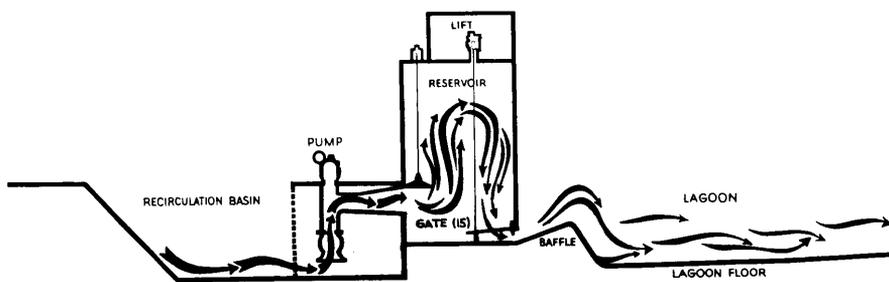
Where interest in viewing such sports as football and basketball seems to have dwindled at the high school level, facilities for these sports must still be provided. Some school administrators, seeking to give more diverse use to their stadiums, have included roofing these arenas in their building programs. This, of course, is a costly investment, but a new type of roof membrane held up by air pressure may soon be available to minimize expense. To offset such an expense, the roofed area must be used more than seasonally and for multiple functions. Seating may be installed to contain spectators for a variety of sports and entertainment events, or, without seating the area could be used as a giant fieldhouse for student recreation.

Individual participant sports, such as golf, tennis and swimming, are becoming more and more popular at the educational level. And, whereas at one time physical education for girls was limited, they now demand, and have, equal programs with boys. This factor, along with increased interest in physical fitness requires increased school budgets to meet these demands.

The educational level is only the training ground for a life time of physical fitness programs. Every person experiences some contact with a recreational facility at sometime in his life. Major professional sports are big business and fa-



Covered structures for sports facilities are more necessary in hostile climates than in benign regions. Not surprisingly, one of the first real proposals for a breakthrough in the size of air structures is for 40 acres of encapsulated space in Alaska. This would enclose sports facilities, a shopping center and parking spaces for visitors.



The first surfing pool in the U.S. was built at Tempe and is used by Arizona State University. Water surging from the base of the reservoir wall creates waves at 50 second intervals.

cilities for handling sports events have presented tremendous architectural challenges which in turn have produced structures of outstanding quality, such as Houston's Astrodome.

A bonanza to team sports was the invention of artificial turf—a minimum of maintenance and daily practice without harming the playing surface thereby eliminating practice fields. However, no statistics are available to substantiate whether athletes perform more effectively on artificial turf.

As a space conservancy, an Oregon University installed a urethane surface on a roof to serve a double purpose of waterproofing and tennis courts. By imaginative use of air structures two unused piers at the foot of the New York financial district were converted into year-around tennis courts. Conventional materials on a regular site for this operation would have been prohibitively costly. Lightweight air structures are ideal for rooftop enclosures for various athletic uses. Two additional examples of imaginative adaptive use are exemplified by the installation of a complete athletic field atop the Philadelphia Friends School and the conversion of a baroque movie theater to a gymnasium by Long Island University.

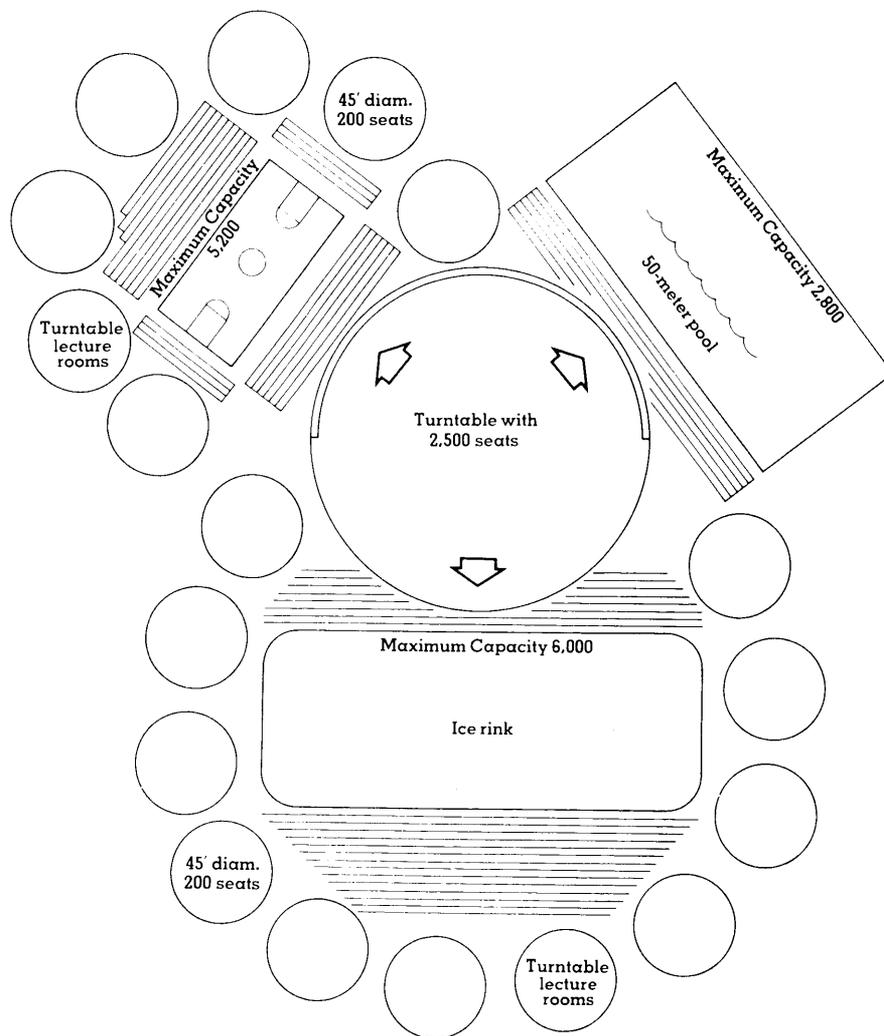
Swimming pool design and construction has advanced so dramatically that simulated waves for surfing are generated in one large pool in Japan. The pool is shelved at one end to allow waves to run out so that small children may experience the water as if at a real beach. The first surfing pool in the U.S. is at Tempe, Arizona, and may become the prototype for many more in the central United States.

Normally, one would consider sports in Alaska to be limited by extreme climatic conditions. However, an ambitious program is under consideration there to develop a 40-acre

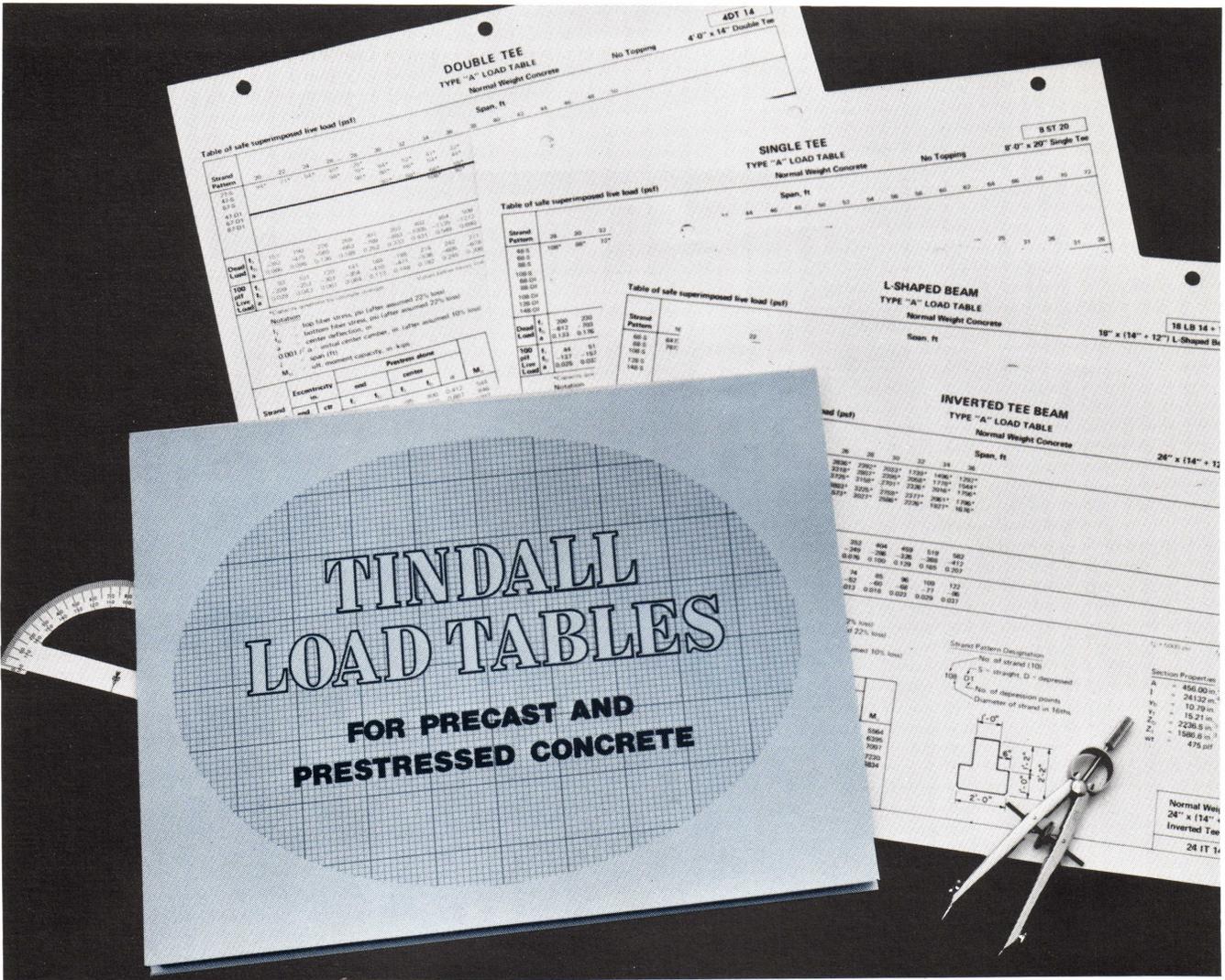
air structure to enclose sports facilities, a shopping center and parking space. Colleges, schools, professional and recreational teams would use the sports areas and because of the protection afforded by the air structure the buildings could be less durable and less costly. Like Revenue Sharing, recreational facility sharing is becoming a popular and feasible concept on the local scene. The instance, by pooling resources a city parks department and local school board could jointly develop a playing field for night time and weekend use by the public and daytime school use, thus saving taxpayers a double cost for the same facility. In many communities joint ownership and double use particularly of swimming pools has become a reality and in many instances these pool facilities are convertible from indoor to outdoor use by a removable inflated air pillow. In one mid-west community all athletic and recreational facilities by a local college are rented from local government agencies, YMCA, and country clubs.

Multiple uses of auditorium space can now be accomplished by installation of turntable seating. When the turntables face front the seats are part of the auditorium, but reversed they become self-contained classrooms. This principle could be applied for a variety of uses.

Faced with ascending construction costs many combinations of uses for structures along with consolidation of various groups for specific purposes can assure better quality design and construction of recreational facilities. A major development in the use of a comparatively inexpensive large air structure was pioneered at the U. S. Pavilion at the 1970 World's Fair in Osaka, Japan. These factors should go a long way toward making our nation's recreational facilities more accessible to more people.



A recent development in auditorium design enables a school to divide the large space into small spaces by installing some of the seating on turntables. A wall is installed at the rear of the turntables containing rows of auditorium seats. When the turntables face front the seats are part of the auditorium; when they are reversed the walls separate the seats into self-contained classrooms. Designers have now proposed adapting the same principle to physical recreation facilities so that the turntables provide classrooms or grandstands.



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Compensation

By C. Day Woodford
Reprinted From California
Council AIA Newsletter

Professional architectural service is the heartbeat of any construction project. It's the quality of that service that makes a project live or die.

It's the time when research and decision can spend money wisely or waste it. It's the quality of study and planning that helps the project shape the environment toward design excellence, orderliness and stability.

Determining compensation for these complex architectural services is a question of considerable concern and confusion for the public and for the profession.

Past history has established a percentage of the construction cost as the most common means of arriving at a fair figure of compensation for the architect. This method became a standard procedure when construction costs were fairly stable, when building codes and rules were simple and when regulatory agencies were not popping out of the woodwork like termites.

It also prevailed when architects' costs were fairly standard and when required services were not complicated by the scientific, union-dominated, court conscious world we live in today.

Projects today vary from complex centers valued at hundreds of millions of dollars requiring studies in sociology, security, radiation, city traffic patterns and on and on, to single purpose projects that are small in size and require relatively uncomplicated technical services.

All these projects have a single construction cost but the cost has no direct relation to the amount of architectural service required for any particular project. Why should we determine one cost, based on another, when they are not related?

Compensation has to be measured by the amount of time it takes to render the service required and desired, at a price commensurate with properly paid employes and associates, reasonable and adequate overhead and fair and equitable profit.

Only by determining compensation in this manner can the quality of architectural service be maintained. If compe-

tion for professional services develops on a price basis, as some federal agencies seem to think it should, it would have to result in furnishing less and less service for less and less compensation. Costs remain the same and quality be damned.

Why then, if time to render a service is the only direct relationship to the cost of that service, are architects' charges still based on old out-of-date percentages of construction cost?

The answer, of course, is the natural resistance to change that exists in the human being.

A complete change in thinking is required by not only the using public, the architects' clients, but the architect as well.

In establishing a timecost requirement to furnish architectural services for a given project, the first inclination of the client will be to compare this figure with a historically used but incorrect percentage of the construction cost.

It's his only knowledge of what, in his mind, is the price for professional service. An upgrading of percentage can be understood and even accepted when facts are presented and substantiated.

The architect's costs are going through a period of great change. Costs of consultants (mechanical, electrical and structural engineers) used to take 30% of the architect's compensation. Today, because of increased requirements in these fields, the consultants' cost is 40% to 50%.

Historically, ours is an underpaid profession. College graduates with five to 10 years of experience do not earn as much as construction workers.

Concerted efforts to upgrade salaries and provide benefits that are standard in almost every other field of employment are the major activities and concern in the profession today, and these will increase architectural service costs.

Costs of construction have risen as well but in a 20 - year period where building costs rose 45%, architects' costs rose 85%. Insurance alone is almost 1,000% more than it was 10 years ago.

These are costs of professional service that have no relation to construction costs.

As a professional, the certificated architect has many demanding obligations. He must preserve the confidence of his client and represent truthfully and clearly his capabilities and qualifications.

He must strive to advance the science and art of planning, designing and building; and to promote the improvement of the quality of our physical environment.

The architect, by law, must promote public health, safety and welfare. At all times he must act in a manner which will bring honor and dignity to the profession of architecture.

The method of relating compensation to construction cost must be changed to uphold these impressive obligations and to establish fair and adequate compensation for architectural services.

The California Council, the statewide organization of the American Institute of Architects, has been studying this perplexing problem for several years and has now released an excellent document entitled, "Comprehensive Architectural Services." The document outlines a complete and uniform approach to establishing a time requirement for a given building project.

The document is divided into eight main phases of architectural service which in turn are separated into a total of 71 categories. Very few projects need service in all 71 categories nor does each category required need the same amount of time for each project.

As each project is analyzed for time required in each of the 71 categories to furnish architectural service on a quality basis, it is apparent to anyone involved that there is no longer any direct relationship between the cost of construction and the architectural service required.

At least it's a road in the right direction, even though it's a rough road full of collapsed bridges and detours. It's a road that has to be traveled and when the architect takes the road, will his client follow?

Urban Sprawl Is Not A Law Of Nature

The typical suburban subdivision of single-family lots taking up every acre of the developer's site may be on the way to extinction. And the sooner the better, says AIA, which cites this kind of development as one of the major causes of chaotic, environmentally destructive urban sprawl.

"They're enormously wasteful of land," says Archibald C. Rogers, FAIA, of Baltimore, first vice-president of the Institute. "They're the major reason why our metropolitan areas are gobbling up millions of acres of unspoiled land ever farther out from the central cities. And they do not produce good living environments."

As a result, many communities are turning to an alternative development that makes better use of the land, preserves open space for use by the residents of the development, and provides such amenities as community centers and recreational facilities that are not found in conventional subdivisions.

Cluster Instead of Sprawl

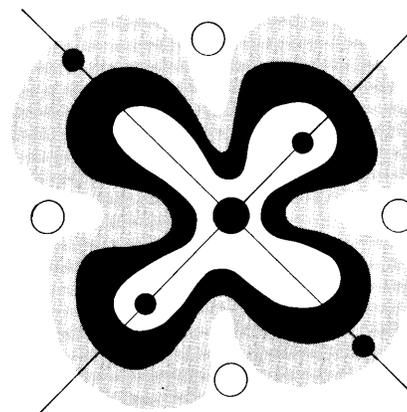
Called "PUDs" (for Planned Unit Developments), they are being adopted for use in a growing number of communities across the country. Their basic difference from conventional development is that, rather than being sprawled across the site, the housing is clustered together, usually as townhouses or garden apartments. Thus the rest of the acreage can be devoted to open space and other public amenities.

Often a PUD can accommodate more housing units than conventional developments on the same amount of land, and many of them cost considerably less to build per unit. Yet their residents enjoy many more amenities than their counter-

parts in conventional subdivisions.

Some PUDs have been designed to accommodate retail stores and offices that provide convenience shopping and employment for their residents.

One of the nation's largest PUDs, the Village of Cross Keys in Baltimore, is an almost self-contained community of townhouses, apartments, commercial shops, offices, indoor/outdoor recreational facilities, and even a 150-room inn—all on a 72-acre site.



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Developed by The Rouse Company, which is also creating the new town of Columbia, Md., Cross Keys has three swim clubs, four indoor and one outdoor tennis courts, sauna baths, and a community center containing a library, poolroom, arts and crafts room and meeting rooms for the use of its 900 residents. Cross Keys also includes 20 retail shops and 138,000 square feet of office space on its rolling, wooded site. The buildings are clustered in groups, with large open areas—gardens, woods and greenways—woven through the village.

Bigger and Better PUDs

Recognizing the promise that PUDs hold for producing better environments, the American Institute of Architects has proposed a national urban growth program in which the PUD concept would be expanded to incorporate even more public amenities.

These larger-scale PUDs, which the AIA calls "Growth Units," would house from 500 to 3,000 families and incorporate such facilities as schools, day-care centers, and other public services.

"Our environmental problems are so critical," says Rogers, "that we believe the federal, state and local governments should immediately take the responsibility for encouraging the building of Growth Units on a national scale. In our view, it is the only way that this nation can begin to bring some sense of order to the environmentally destructive chaos that has pervaded all of our metropolitan areas."

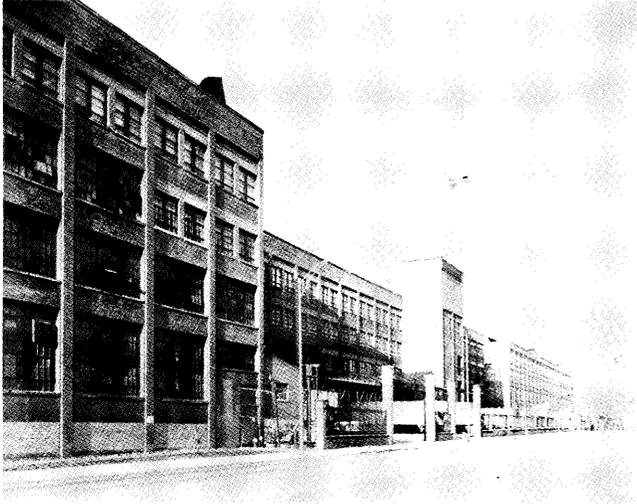
Under the AIA proposal, the federal government would join with state and local governments to purchase one million acres of land within the 65 largest metropolitan areas on which to build Growth Units. Each Growth Unit would be small enough to retain a neighborhood scale, yet large enough to support the community amenities and public services that the AIA sees as essential ingredients of any truly nourishing environment.

By later leasing or selling some land to private developers for housing and commercial facilities, the governments could recoup the original cost of the land as well as a large proportion of the costs of preparing the land for development.

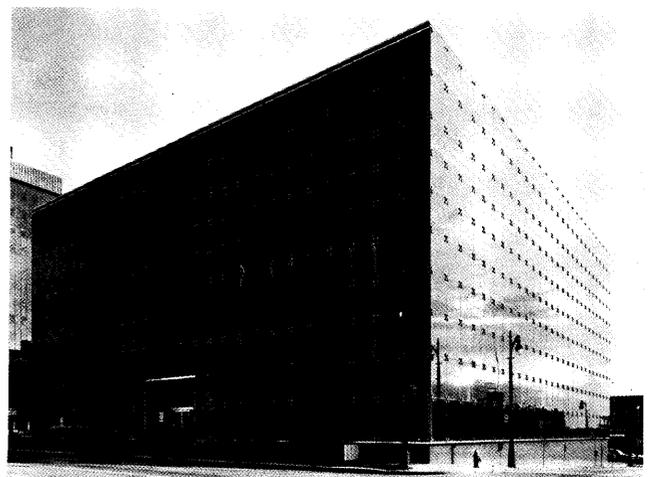
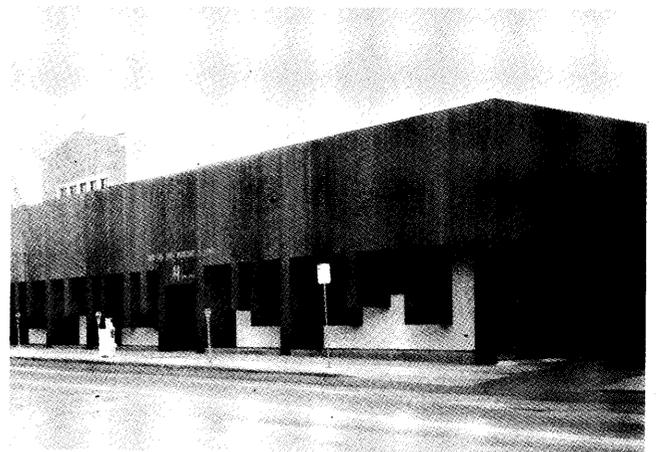
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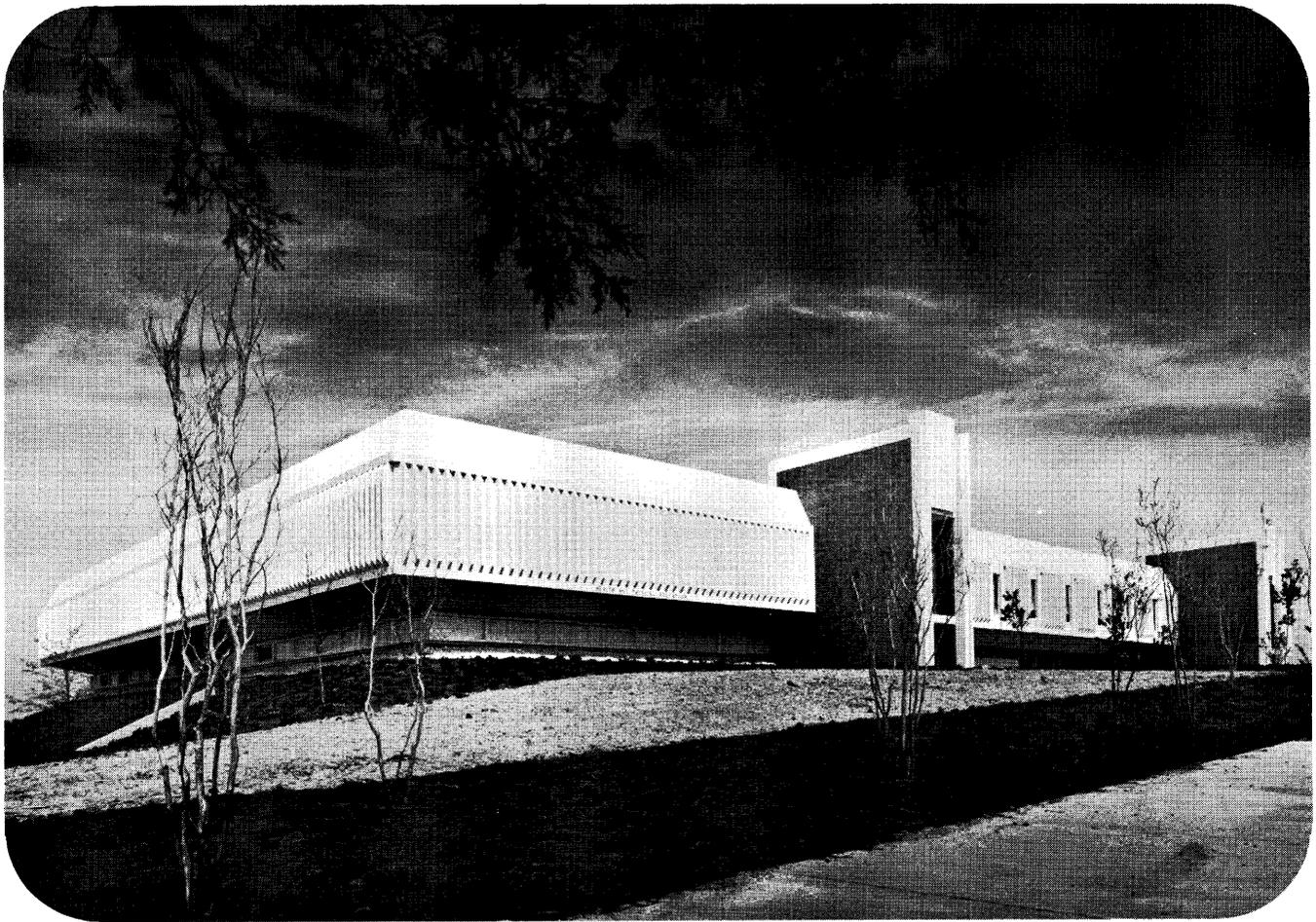
In many instances ugly, obsolete structures have too much value to be destroyed, but a thoughtful cosmetic face-lifting can create a totally new and better image—A few imaginative examples:

BEFORE



AFTER





Dan Wallace Photographs

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PLANNING — THE BRITISH DO IT DIFFERENTLY

by Robert E. Stipe

The following is an edited version of an article which appeared in Popular Government (October 1972) published by the Institute of Government, UNC-Chapel Hill.

This talk was given as a summation of a week-long trip to England sponsored by the National Trust for Historic Preservation and the National Association for Counties and attended by Commissioners and Planners in Virginia counties adjoining Washington, D. C. directly in the path of that expanding metropolis. The comments attempt to sum up some of the major differences and similarities in American and British approaches to planning programs.

Reprints of the complete article may be obtained from Mr. Stipe at the Institute of Government, Chapel Hill, N. C. 27514.

The British planning system is one of the most intricate and complex in the world. It is detailed and precise in its application, and for every rule there is an exception or qualification. There are, between England and America, basic differences in our governmental systems, differences in the organization and administration of our respective "planning machines," differences in public attitudes toward planning and development problems, differences in our economies and taxing systems, and differences in just about everything else that one can think of. In many cases, the differences can open our eyes to new ways of thinking about planning and development control and provide us with a measure of inspiration. There is much of value to be learned from the British approach to planning.

England (excluding Wales and Scotland) is slightly less than 50,000 square miles in extent—about the size of North Carolina. North Carolina has a population of about five million people and England has about 55 million, or roughly ten times the number of people occupying the same amount of land. And yet in England there seems to be even more open countryside.

One answer is the vast differences in our settlement patterns. Urban population densities in North Carolina and Virginia, I suspect, run roughly three or four families to the acre. In British new towns, on the other hand, population densities can run up to 120 persons per net acre. This difference

is maintained as new development takes place: Whereas Britain probably converts about 40,000 acres per year from rural countryside to urban use, it packs into that acreage, many more homes, businesses, factories, and so on than we normally would.

They also draw a much cleaner distinction than we do about when and where new development should take place. In England the dividing line between city and country tends to be clean and sharp. New development in Britain is *not* allowed to sprawl. It is limited in some cases by Green Belts within which development is strongly discouraged. The result is a "tidy" development pattern, and, presumably, a much greater economy in providing public utilities, services, and facilities. At home, currently, we see more people using more land; but the British have more people using *less* land.

In the economic layering of our respective populations, interestingly, there are some similarities. In the Manchester region the less-affluent working class tends to inhabit the central city, and Britain also worries that the middle and upper classes are moving out to the suburbs and the countryside too fast, but the urban out-migration appears not to be as large a problem. Britain has a housing problem, but the problem is not so much compounded by racial differences. The non-white population in England is perhaps .3 per cent of the total; in the United States it is roughly 13 per cent. In terms of the larger metropolitan setting of some of our counties, we have

a thorny problem to deal with for which British experience will count for little.

Next, we and our English cousins have some very different ways of living and thinking about life. Tradition and a sense of oneness play a great part in British life. This fact manifests itself in a strong sense of place, a sense of belonging, a sense of stewardship about the character of an area, and consequently a more widespread and deep-rooted sense of "caring" about how things develop. We have become rootless and mobile and as a result we have become quite literally careless about the quality of development. The British sense of stewardship, on the other hand, has osmosed into the governmental planning system and into the control machinery in such a way that a very high corporate sense of priority is placed on the amenities.

But the British life style is changing. Shopping centers and discount houses outside the town center are a big planning issue in England at the moment, and the British are becoming increasingly dependent upon the automobile. Considering that Britain already has one of the highest densities of road traffic in the world and that its roads were in some cases laid out thousands of years ago one wonders what environmental impact the growth of motoring and car ownership will have.

British planners, like their American counterparts, argue that the solution is more and better public transportation.

British development patterns and densities are such that this may still be a viable alternative in many areas, with enough public subsidy. But our planning is simply going to have to accommodate more and more cars, whether we would wish it so or not.

In one respect British tradition is very much like our own: each problem has to reach its own "critical mass" before it becomes realistic to deal with it toughly and effectively. British public opinion reached its "critical mass" just after World War II in regard to terms of townscape and landscape, preserving the amenities, historic buildings, and open space. That was when the public began to accept the need for stringent controls on land use and development. While in America we have begun to see dimly that we indeed have a problem we may yet be too far ahead of the general public resolve to deal very restrictively with many of these problems.

The British generally accept planning and the development control that goes with it more readily than we do. For example, British farmers and realtors will tell you that while they personally dislike some features of the planning control system, they have no doubts whatever about the absolute necessity for them.

The sense of place has given our British friends another advantage that results primarily from their happenstance location as an off-shore island adjacent to a larger continent. Because it is small, local decisions tend to have a greater national impact. Britain still imports about half its food, and it is essential as a matter of both local government policy and national interest that agriculture survive and productivity improve.

The smallness of the country and the stronger sense of community have provided us

with still another notable contrast, and that is a stronger feeling among the British for active participation in local government affairs. Perhaps it is the system itself that facilitates the involvement of the British citizen with his local government. For one thing, governing boards, whether city or county, tend to be much larger.

Those who have studied it tend to agree that the products of British planning are all results to be emulated here. These results that we admire so much are largely tied to the British system of planning control. The planning process, as a local government activity, is pretty much the same in both countries. It is basically a matter of defining development goals and policies for the city or county, articulating these goals through the use of written statements and maps of various kinds, and then implementing these plans through whatever legal, administrative and financial devices are at hand. The process is essentially the same in the United States and in England, but with significant differences — in how we organize to do the planning and in the legal or governmental tools we use to insure that development is "in accordance with a comprehensive plan."

In the United States the plans are usually prepared by independent boards or commissions of unpaid laymen whose responsibilities normally extend only to "advising" the city or county government on matters of development control. Historically, you will remember, we got into planning in America following a period of general distrust and suspicion of city government. We saw fit in most states to set up a planning machine that would be "above politics," one that elected politicians could not get their hands on.

The British organize things a bit differently. The local planning committee is almost al-

ways a subcommittee of the governing board itself. British planning committee members are accountable at the ballot box and a candidate's stand on a particular planning issue may well determine whether he is elected.

A related consideration is the extent and quality of technical advice that the British planning committee typically has available to it. Per capita, the British system is much better staffed with trained professionals than ours is. The top British professionals generally tend to be more concerned with development control and what happens "on the ground" and less interested in theory and research. In England, the planner still tends to have his professional roots in the design professions: engineering, architecture, surveying, landscape design, site planning, and related fields.

In America, development planning is generally regarded as a voluntary activity. The preparation of a master plan or comprehensive plan, whether required by law or not, is at least fashionable as a means of turning on the spigot to federal aid of one kind or another. In Britain, however, every square inch of the country is planned and there is no option to it.

Our more enlightened countries do have development plans, but generally American local governments are free to ignore them, whereas the British are not. In England there is normally no getting around the development plan. Even if an owner's property is specifically designated for such development in the plan, he does not have an automatic go-ahead — he still needs "planning permission." Before the coveted "planning permission" is granted, the details of his application must survive the most intense and careful scrutiny imaginable. In the United States we generally reach this level of environmental detailing only in relatively isolated

and geographically limited instances.

This high regard for "amenity" in planning is deeply rooted in the British system. Although to Americans the term may have only a rather hazy connotation of "pleasantness" or "character," to the British it implies a strong concern for the purely visual aspects or the "looks" of a particular project. Local planning authorities are *required* to designate conservation areas of high landscape or townscape value.

This same regard for natural beauty finds legislative sanction over larger areas as well. British national parks are basically in private ownership. The various British national parks and countryside legislation, stresses the conservation of natural beauty in rural areas through public control of private land, to which the public may have access only by agreement with private landowners.

Our legislation on the whole pays only passing attention to matters of visual conservation. British planning law and practice *supports* the notion that the private owner of a tree or woodland may be subjected to a "Tree Preservation Order." Once such an order is imposed by the local planning authority, the owner may not lop, top, or otherwise destroy the natural growth over which he would otherwise have complete dominion.

The typical British development plan also hits a level of detail that ours does not. Planning for amenity enters into British practice much earlier and in a much more precise and detailed way. American planning with respect to rural or farming areas tends to "color it green" to designate a sort of unspecified reservoir within which urban expansion or development can be tolerated anywhere and let it go at that. In England the use categories specified for rural areas are almost as numerous as they are

for urban areas.

The British development plan is usually the output of a planner, a professional, drafted with the guidance or advice of a planning committee made up of governing board members. In Britain there is generally very little, if any, public participation in the initial preparation of the plan.

This is a fundamental difference in our planning systems. Under the British parliamentary system, officials are elected and told in effect to "get on with the job." If the public does not like the result, there is always the next election.

British practice with respect to "public participation" is now changing as the result of new planning legislation. Efforts are being made not only to explain plans to the public once prepared, but sometimes even to draw the public into formulating development plans at an early stage. There is hot disagreement among British planners about whether "public participation" is really worth it all, and they still maintain a degree of freedom from "public opinion" that American planners, would generally envy. However grudgingly, the British public permits a certain amount of raw authoritarianism on the part of professional planners and the civil service.

The point is that if we are to obtain in our American counties the admirable and enviable results of planning that are so evident in England, we are going to have to surrender to government an even greater measure of our traditional frontier freedom to do as we like with our land.

Making development plans and sticking to them will perhaps be the hardest lesson we have to learn. Under the British system the local authority prepares the plan and sends it on up to the Minister, a central government official who reviews the plan and makes it briefly available for public inspection and

is thereafter quite free to accept the plan, amend it or reject it totally.

In our system, the property owner who does not like the way he is treated in his intended use of land might take an appeal to the zoning board of adjustment for a variance, or he might seek an amendment to the zoning ordinance from the planning board and board of supervisors. The owner can always drop into court as well, citing federal and state constitutional guarantees. In Britain, the property owner who feels aggrieved at his treatment from the planning committee may appeal to the county council, and thence to the Minister. If he is turned down by the Minister, that is usually the end of the matter. This is an especially important point of difference with respect to the protection of historic buildings, important landscapes and scenic areas, and to matters of aesthetic regulation generally. In Britain, regulating in these areas is simply a matter of having a suitable parliamentary act. In America, a local government wishing to control aesthetics must not only have adequate statutory authority to do so, but also must, in administering and enforcing such regulations, be able to convince its state supreme court that a believable tie or connection exists between such regulations and the advancement of public health, safety, morals, or general welfare.

This does not mean that a local government in America is completely powerless in this area, for there is in fact a growing body of enabling legislation covering many areas of visual amenity—and a fast growing body of favorable court decisions as well. It does suggest the need for intensified programs of public education and acceptance. Administratively the British have it all over us. By comparison our American procedures with respect to controlling new development are sloppy and fragmented. A pro-

spective developer must usually go first to the planning board and supervisors for a zoning amendment or zoning approval, thence usually to the planning, engineering, and public works people, and perhaps back to the governing board for subdivision approval; thereafter to building officials for approval of plans under the building code (with maybe an appeal along the way to another body); and perhaps also to still other officials for water and sewer extensions, schools, park and recreation facilities, and so on. Generally, the British wrap up a good many of these procedures in "planning permission," which involves fewer officials and agencies.

In terms of implementing plans, North Carolinians are better off than one might think. While there are still tight limits on elevational control and aesthetic regulation, one can find lying around in the separate compartments of our legal, administrative and financial tool kits most of what is required to carry out a development plan. And the biggest tool of them all is zoning.

Legally, the British cannot ignore the development plan even if they wish to do so. Our system tends, on the other hand, actually to facilitate bypassing the development plan. For example, I believe Virginia's enabling act requires updating and readopting the development plan every four or five years, which means that for several of the interim years the plan is out of date. In a rapidly urbanizing exurban county within a larger metropolitan region, five-year revision is simply not often enough: annual or perhaps even quarterly review of development plans might well be required.

We tend to rely too much on zoning and other regulations to control the location and timing of new development. Rarely do we use our power to schedule and build capital improvements

in a coordinated way that might encourage development in one area or to discourage it in another in accordance with a plan. However, to suggest better coordination of capital improvements for water, sewer, schools, parks, and all the other publicly financed carrots that promote or inhibit development in specified areas according to plan is a sound way to regulate may well be oversimplifying the problem; for in point of fact our public facilities are planned, designed, financed, constructed, and maintained by a wide variety of city, county, and state agencies often acting independently of one another and not necessarily subject to—or even aware of—the development plans of an individual county board of commissioners. Not infrequently in the United States schools and utility lines are put in place by separate authorities more concerned with satisfying the immediate pressures on the individual agency (or meeting profit potentials) than with county "planning policy."

In such amenities as historic building conservation, enhanced townscapes, open space, and the preservation of precious rural scenery, it would be pointless to try to summarize here the details of differences in American and British procedures, except to say that in America we already have available at the federal, state, and local levels a vast array of tools — fiscal and regulator — that *could* be used to achieve the same pleasing result that Britain has.

Of open space and the conservation of scenically precious areas of countryside, the problem from both an American and a British standpoint is essentially the same—a matter of dollars-and-cents economics. In some places the suburbs seem to be gulping up the farm land. Yet, we are coming to question the American tradition that says "more" or "bigger" is the equiv-

alent to "better." Within the next few years we will begin to work our way out of the property tax tradition that has been responsible for so much urban sprawl. I think we will quickly come to tax land on the basis of its existing use rather than on its development potential. This should help the farmer to stay in farming, curtail urban sprawl, promote the retention of village character, and point us generally in the direction of the kind of landscape that American travelers to Britain so much admire.

The critical element in all of this will be the strength of the public will or desire to build better and conserve more intelligently than we have in the past. American efforts in this direction have tended to fragment along the lines of particular interests; garden clubs, antilitter groups, nature clubs, preservation societies, and the like. Umbrella agencies that can accommodate all of these interests will develop in the United States as they have in England. To achieve significant results, we will also have to surrender some of our traditional American preoccupation with such minor problems as litter and flowerplanting and learn to deal effectively at a gut political level with the more important and complex issues of townscape and landscape and the conservation of scenic beauty over vast areas of hundreds of square miles governing many counties and local governments. We are also going to have to keep our own priorities straight. This is not to put down the importance of seeking a better balance between physical and social planning; nor does concern for the visual environment necessarily conflict with the current trend for pluralistic approaches to planning. **It simply recognizes that the visual environment is more than a mere nicety and has an impact upon the maintenance of civilizing aspects of modern life.**

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Student AIA Chapter Chartered



(L TO R) Turner Williams of Raleigh, Vice President of NCAIA, and Reginald McVicker of Laurinburg, president of eastern section, NCAIA, presents the American Institute of Architects charter for a student AIA chapter to Pitt Technical Institute chapter president, Sammy Sasser and PTI Architectural Drafting dept. chairman, Edwin F. Martin, Jr.

The Architectural Drafting Technology Department at Pitt Technical Institute, Greenville, N. C. has received a charter for a student chapter of the American Institute of Architects (AIA).

The AIA action gives Pitt Tech the distinction of being the first technical institute in the southeastern United States to have the sanction of the AIA in forming a student chapter. Student members of AIA will attend local and state AIA meetings and will work closely with the architectural organization.

The charter was presented to the PTI Architectural Department by Reginald McVicker of Laurinburg, N. C., president of the eastern section of the AIA and Turner Williams of Raleigh, N. C., vice-president of the North Carolina AIA. Receiving the charter on behalf of the student chapter were officers Sammy Sasser and Carole Wilkerson, president and vice-president, respectively.

Pitt Tech was the first in the state to offer the two-year architectural drafting program and has served as a pilot program for other schools in the state.

N. C. ARCHITECT JOINS AIA STAFF

Bruce Schafer, AIA's new assistant director of federal agency liaison, holds a Bachelor of Architecture degree from the School of Design at North Carolina State University and a Masters of Architectural History degree from the University of Virginia, from which he graduated this spring. He previously worked in the architectural office of G. Milton Small & Associates, Raleigh, N. C.

He is the author of a book on the Polish architect, Matthew Nowicki. The Writings and

Sketches of Matthew Nowicki, 1910-1950, which was derived from his master's thesis research, is to be published this fall.

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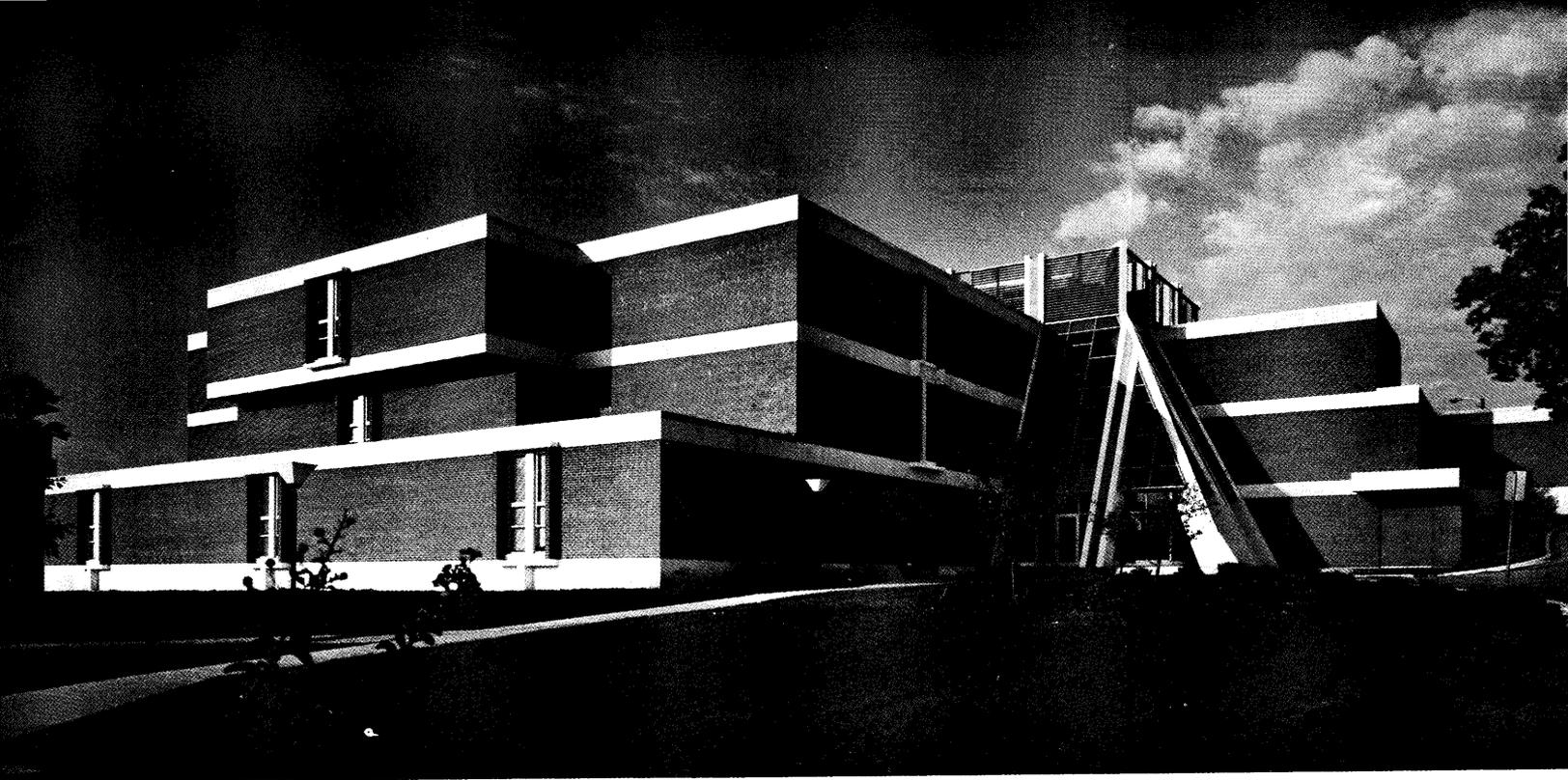
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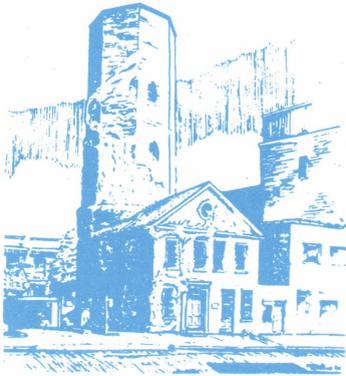
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