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A RETROSPECT of the architectural development of the nineteenth century suggests some curious reflections. The profession is, necessarily, so much concerned with the current architectural fashions that it does not have time to reflect upon the singular rapidity with which these fashions have succeeded each other within a hundred years, or to study the circumstances on which they have depended. Two hundred years ago, William of Orange and his Court had just begun to import the fashion of Amsterdam brickwork into England, to relieve the dull and heavy Classic forms which the Renaissance had taken there. The Dutch freedom and originality, more or less tempered with British primness and heaviness, prevailed over all English-speaking countries until the end of the eighteenth century, when a remarkable change took place, not only in architectural styles, but in the way in which styles were suggested and made fashionable. Before that time, a change in architectural forms was the work of architects, under the patronage, usually, of some royal personage. Thus, Francis I brought the Renaissance to France from Italy, in the person of Primaticcio and his subordinates; Inigo Jones, and other architects, under the patronage of the English nobility, disseminated it in Great Britain, as the architects connected with the Court of the House of Orange spread the Dutch version of it later. With the French Revolution, however, people began to read for themselves about architecture, instead of taking it on trust from architects and princes. The enthusiasm of political regeneration which led the Parisians to dress themselves in togas, hoping in that way to revive in France the Roman republic of Scipio and Cincinnatus, turned, not only the architects, but every one who could read, to the study of classical antiquity, and the beautiful style known as that of the Empire was the fruit, not of the talent of any one architect, or group of architects, but of the taste of the profession and the public combined. This was the first, as it was the most successful, of what may be called the literary styles which have followed each other with astonishing rapidity throughout the nineteenth century. In England, which is, above all others, the reading country, the place of the French Empire style was taken, a little later, by the Grecian fever, for which the books of Stuart and Revett and others furnished the infection; and, as in France, just previously, and in England itself subsequently, the fashion, originated by a book, spread far more rapidly, and raged more fiercely while it lasted, than any that had ever been due to the talent of architects. The Grecian fever in England, after a few years, received a check through other books. Mr. Pugin discovered that he could not fix his mind upon spiritual things in any but Gothic buildings; and the British public, which is easily alarmed about its soul, began to inquire whether what Sir Christopher Wren called "mountains of stone, but not worthy the name of architecture"

might not be, in some mysterious way, conducive to salvation. The Reverend Mr. Rickman, about the same time, began his "Attempt to Discriminate" between the different varieties of what had formerly been lumped together as "a congestion of heavy, dark, melancholy, monkish piles," and Brandon's "Open Timber Roofs of the Middle Ages," Nash's and Hall's books, Scott's novels, and many other artistic and literary works, began to call public attention to what their authors were pleased to call the indigenous architecture of Great Britain. For a time, the new Gothic existed only side by side with the prevailing Classic, now relapsed from its Grecian aspirations into a heavy Renaissance; but when Gilbert Scott announced that natural scenery could only be properly seen through leaded lights, and Ruskin sneered and roared by turns at the "architecture of pride," the British public felt its eternal welfare again in danger, and, renouncing the Renaissance Satan and all his works, devoted itself to Gothic with its most elephantine energy as well as clumsiness. Unfortunately, Mr. Ruskin had observed that, while the columns of the porticos of Renaissance churches stood on bases that looked like "piles of collection-plates," some of the tracery in the windows of English Gothic churches looked like "carving-knives," which was almost as bad, and the British public, followed, with less fury, by our own, fled to what it imagined to be Italian Gothic, as being the only style free from reproach.

OUR readers do not need to be told the history of the Gothic Revival. Some of its works, both in England and in this country, are beautiful, but the style was unsuited to modern requirements, while it lent itself to dreadful caricaturing, and the craze, which had been years in incubation, vanished, almost in a moment. While architects were looking vaguely for a new style to fill the void, Stevenson's book appeared, full of examples of the sober, sensible, semi-Dutch, or Queen Anne, buildings of the previous century, and an impulse was given to a movement which has continued in England to the present day, and will probably persist until some gifted writer finds that true felicity is only possible in houses of some different sort. In this country, the Gothic Revival marked the termination of the architectural dependence of America upon England. By the time that polychromy, polished colonnettes and plate tracery had ceased to charm, many American architects, educated at Paris, Zurich or Berlin, had begun practice, and had introduced a variety of fashions, mostly of Renaissance character, enlivened, we may say, by eccentricities, such as Neo-Grec vagaries, antics in cast-iron, and occasional excursions into the "Moorish" or the "Egyptian" style. Although there was no great substance to these American fashions, they were too numerous, and too popular, to be set aside by a book like Stevenson's, and no American had then, or has yet, undertaken to tell his readers what style of architecture was necessary to the soul's health. About thirty years ago, however, Richardson, then a young architect, fresh from the most vigorous and original atelier of the Paris School of Fine Arts, conceived the idea that the French or Spanish Romanesque, which pleased him by its massiveness and simplicity, would be suited to our climate, and he carried out several buildings in this style. His talent would have made his buildings interesting in any form, but the effectiveness and dignity of the new-born Romanesque gave them immediate success. By this time a new agency had begun to take part in shaping architectural movements,—that of photographic illustration. By photographs, and newspaper cuts taken from photographs, the Richardson buildings were hardly finished before they were known all over the country, and immediately imitated. The imitation was not, as a rule, extremely successful, and the Richardsonian-Romanesque has now almost disappeared, to give place, as before, to a miscellaneous assortment of variations on the Renaissance.

WHIS being the condition of American architectural design at the end of the nineteenth century, it is interesting to speculate on the probable course of its development in the next hundred years. It may be taken for granted, in the first place, that no purely literary argument is likely to have anything to do with it. In these days, when every building of interesting design is immediately photographed, and the photographs disseminated, by means of the professional and secular

press, throughout the country, it is useless for an American Ruskin to tell people that one style of building is moral and another immoral. This sort of talk may make an impression upon people who never saw a building in either style, except in imagination, but not on persons who have photographs of both before their eyes. On the other hand, the rapid dissemination of accurate representations of new buildings cannot but have a great effect in popularising the work of men of conspicuous talent, and while we may expect to see architectural fashions succeed each other as rapidly during the next century as they have in this, they are likely to be led, like the Richardsonian-Romanesque movement, by architects, and not by rhetoricians. Of course, it is impossible to foretell the form which the development may take, but the beautiful, although shortlived, manifestation of picturesque rural architecture which, after it had won the admiration of the profession throughout the world, was choked by the Colonial flood, shows that American architects possess as keen an artistic sense as those of any other nation; and the man who can produce beautiful, original and refined architecture, whatever may be its style, will be better appreciated during the next century than ever before.

PERHAPS we should say a few words in regard to the action of the Convention of the Institute in censuring three members for conduct in connection with the competition for the Harrisburg Capitol, some three years ago. We do not propose to enter into the merits of the cases in question, but it is at least a satisfaction to know that the Executive Committee found nothing to warrant more severe discipline than a formal censure. Meanwhile, it seems to us, as a matter of general policy, that the language of the Institute's censure might be improved. As now expressed, it describes its object as being guilty of conduct "prejudicial to the best interests of the profession," but without specifying whether it means the moral or the material interests. It is conceivable that an architect of independent fortune might take a fancy to make gratuitous plans for all applicants; in fact, some architects without independent fortunes are too much inclined in this direction already. Evidently, this proceeding would be prejudicial to the material interests of the other architects of the locality, yet it need not imply moral turpitude, and the reproof with which it would deserve to be visited might with advantage differ from that applicable to cases of bribery, or collusion with contractors to defraud, or other misdemeanors of the sort, which, although, happily, very rare in the profession, are not altogether unknown. If a member of the Institute should come under condemnation for misdeeds of this sort, the censure applied to him should distinguish the circumstances in some definite way, so that the public might know whether the object of it had been guilty of conduct rendering him unworthy of any person's confidence, or only of eccentricities which, although annoying, and perhaps damaging to other architects, involved nothing discreditable to his personal character.

ARCHITECTS have a sad interest in reading the accounts of the proceedings of the New York Tenement-House Commission. It is difficult enough for an architect at any time to carry out the work entrusted to him with the necessary skill, and to comply, as he is bound to do, with the laws, the violation of which exposes his client, as well as himself, to severe penalties; but where, as in New York under the present régime, the architect has the most employment who can violate the law most impudently, and corrupt officials most successfully, and where owners who employ such architects, and themselves continue the work of corruption and misdemeanor, keep their tenements full at the expense of their law abiding competitors, it is impossible for the professional man not to have his integrity severely tried. According to the evidence presented to the Commission, less than five per cent of the tenement houses now in process of erection in the borough of Manhattan are constructed in accordance with the law, yet the records of the Corporation Counsel's office show that only four small fines were imposed last year for all violations of the law in all classes of buildings in the entire city.

EVERY architect who has practised in New York knows the dark cloud of whispered scandal; of secret information as to the corruptibility of this or that official; of hints as to the method of violating the law with impunity in the interest of a client; and even of details in regard to the price of the favor of a given person in authority, and the intermediary

through whom he is to be approached, with which such practice is encompassed. Of course, there are as many upright and law-abiding citizens in New York as in any other city in the world, and the good citizens of New York are, as we have often thought, more self-sacrificing and conscientious than those of other cities, but even the best and most courageous citizen does not like to invest his money in buildings which he can never rent in competition with other buildings in the neighborhood, erected in defiance of the laws which he has tried to obey; while the people of moderate means, and more timid character, shrink in terror from the thought of making public complaint of the corruption which they see around them; and, if they have occasion, prefer to make a friend of the official who has most power to hurt them, by the means which they know to be most effective for that end. Whether the Tenement House Commission will be able to reform any of the abuses which they have incidentally exposed to the public gaze is, to our mind, more than doubtful; but it is not impossible that their proceedings may, like the similar inquiries which have been made at short intervals for the last twenty-five or thirty years, help to prepare the public mind for the change which will, sooner or later, take the government of the city out of the hands of those who utilize it avowedly to enrich themselves, and confide it to persons whose ambition takes a higher form than that of a desire simply to fill their pockets with the filthy proceeds of bribery and extortion.

THE Mayor of Philadelphia has sent a message to the Councils, recommending that the street in front of the old Christ Church should be widened by taking property on the side opposite the church, and that a house adjoining the church on the west side should be taken and demolished, so as to leave an open space, thirty-six feet wide, between the church and the nearest building. These improvements would not involve a very great expense, while they would protect the ancient structure from the danger of fire to which it is now exposed. It may be observed that the churches of the Colonial period, many of which are still preserved in our cities and towns, are not only among the most interesting of all the memorials of the past that we possess, but have suffered, as a rule, the least alteration, and are in the best condition. The dwelling-houses of the Colonial period, in too many cases, have advanced far on the way to shabby decay. Most of them, at least in the cities, have long since been divided into tenements, and even where they have remained in the hands of families of the better class, few have escaped the alterations necessary to adapt them to modern modes of living. With churches, the case is quite different. Our congregational system of church management is substantially the same as that of our forefathers; and, while we no longer listen to sermons on Popery and the Scarlet Woman, our divines entertain us from the same pulpits, and in the same manner, with their views on Imperialism and the Eastern Question. Moreover, the ecclesiastical atmosphere is always that of conservatism, so that an American who would consider himself humiliated by living in an "old-style" house is rather proud of occupying his great-grandfather's pew in a church which has not been altered since the Revolution; and the same feeling has kept churches respectable and in good repair while the dwelling-houses around them have perished in dirt and neglect. The same influences would probably continue to protect and preserve our Colonial churches, were it not for the danger from fire, which increases every day. While we sing the same hymns, and listen to sermons in the same way, as our forefathers, we are no longer content to do so in a room the temperature of which is the same as that of the outer air, and churches must be warmed, usually by furnaces in the cellar. Sooner or later, the churches are set on fire by sparks from these furnaces, and our most interesting old buildings are rapidly perishing from this cause. Except in the cities, where, as in Philadelphia, the crowding of buildings around them adds to the danger, the risk of fire from their own heating apparatus is almost the only one to which the Colonial churches are exposed, and the proposed society for the preservation of our ancient buildings, or even the existing semi-historical societies, might spend a little effort, and, possibly, a little money, to great advantage in urging the adoption of simple precautions, in the shape of metal lathing on cellar ceilings, tin coverings on exposed woodwork, and fireclay linings to chimneys, which, while very inexpensive, would be the means of preserving many an ancient building for future generations.

THE MONUMENTAL GROUPING OF GOVERNMENT BUILDINGS IN WASHINGTON.¹

WHILE the selection and development of the site of the National Capital are familiar history, there are certain conditions, certain principles in connection therewith, which cannot be too distinctly kept in mind. These have been lost to view at periods of the country's history, and at this present moment are threatened with lack of proper consideration. The location of the capital on the banks of the Potomac was, it is true, a political compromise. It might, in so far as centrality is concerned, that is to say, centrality removed from undue influence over measures of government by the commercial forces of the newly united provinces, and, in so far as natural topography, possibilities of architecture and landscape, desirability as a residential city, are concerned, have been located in a hundred other places. In fact, only a year before the Act of Congress of July 10, 1790, which determined upon the banks of the Potomac by a majority of three, there had been a majority of twelve in favor of the Delaware. A bill providing for a site on the Susquehanna had previously passed the House. This was amended by the Senate so that Germantown should be substituted, but the bill was finally lost. While the present location was a compromise, yet General Washington had been in favor of it from the beginning, and his wishes had great influence with the Northern States. Washington's interest in the project was, therefore, assured in the greatest possible degree, and with him that of the broad minds of the time, who had been his intimates in the Revolution and the earliest days of the Republic. To him was committed the task of fixing the precise site for the new city and appointing commissioners for erecting it. From this moment he is in reality the chief actor in the founding of the capital, with the assistance of Jefferson and Madison. Washington knew the Potomac from boyhood, and his judgment now strengthened his sentiment in the choice of the plain between the Potomac and the eastern branch, just below Georgetown, in an amphitheatre of hills, with the picturesque river disappearing in both directions between the woodlands. It was he, too, who selected the engineer to lay out the city, Major Pierre Charles L'Enfant, a man who had had the advantage of France's best military education, clever in fortifications, broad in vision, foreseeing not a struggling handful of patriots sparsely scattered through thirteen States, but a mighty Republic of fifty States and five hundred millions of people. He investigated every point of the territory; he studied the problem from the stream and the adjacent commanding hills; he remembered the great parks of France; he secured from Jefferson maps of all the great cities of the world. And from them all, yet independently of them all, he evolved the plan which to-day stands unique in magnificent possibilities. The President saw and understood. That plan is even more familiar than the national history leading up to it.

This, then, is a site selected after much thought and conscientious deliberation by Washington, a plan developed under his guidance by the foremost engineer of the time; the whole endorsed by Jefferson and Madison and the territorial Commissioners. A plan which, in its essential scheme, the intervening years have stamped with their approval. And yet a plan which was practically forgotten after the Capitol and the White House were located, until within a few years.

It seems that we Americans awake to the artistic possibilities around us only when they have been sacrificed. We turn our political management over to men who must, in the nature of things, have a deciding voice in a thousand and one matters outside of law, of which they have no knowledge and cannot be expected to have any knowledge; about which they seek and are willing to accept instruction, and we give them none. The surgeons and physicians of the country awoke to this years ago, organized and made their voice felt in the land. We architects are just beginning to see that there is a mission for our organization, and some spasmodic endeavors have been made to carry out that mission.

Now, if ever, is the supreme opportunity for the national organization of the architects of the United States to speak and advise concerning the National Capitol of the United States.

Fortunately, the status of matters architectural in the city of Washington is such that while much has thus far been lost, projects pending for the development of the city are of such an important nature that if properly carried out the city's monumental character may be established forever. The converse is, unfortunately, quite as true, that if improperly carried out, the city's monumental character may be sacrificed beyond redemption.

Stated categorically the main monumental features of L'Enfant's plan are:

- I. The dominance of the Federal Building.
- II. An avenue of direct communication between the Capitol and the White House.
- III. The development toward the westward of the east-and-west axis of the Capitol in conjunction with the north-and-south axis of the White House.

In what way have these features been forgotten or tampered with by the constructions of the present century? The mass of the Capitol Building, with its crowning dome, set upon the highest point of the territory, is such that it would seem almost impossible to take from it its overwhelming importance. The centre of eight broad radiating avenues, it would seem that these vistas, specially planned

for the purpose, would be forever most jealously guarded. One of the great satisfactions of the city—a pleasure that never ceases—is the view of the Capitol down Maryland Avenue. Another pleasing view, although the lack of development is felt, is that from the Mall. But by a strange irony of fate the views from the White House or along Pennsylvania Avenue are cut off in the one instance, and frightfully injured in the other. Proper reflection should have prevented the interruption of the vista from the White House by the Treasury Building. If the Treasury Building were less dignified, if it did not form with the War, State, and Navy Building a balanced composition about the White House, it would be an unpardonable sin. But the judgment that allowed any man, architect or otherwise, to raise a dome in the immediate vicinity of the Capitol, and, moreover, to give to that dome an awkward line, inharmonious with the dome of the Capitol, and, still further, to color and gild it so that it loudly announces its presence to the detriment of the great central object of the city, that judgment cannot be too severely criticised and censured. The Congressional Library would have worked out better in the general scheme if it had been one story lower; in any event, the dome should be suppressed even now.

What would be the feelings of Washington and L'Enfant—the men of broad mind, capable of grasping a great theme, capable of keeping it and it alone uppermost, to the suppression of all details,—to find their first fundamental principle thus trifled with?

Pennsylvania Avenue has to work out its own special purpose. It must necessarily be a great thoroughfare, the street of hotels, banks, newspapers, theatres, stores—all the buildings that go to make up the civil life of the city. From the Treasury Building to the southeast the Capitol is ever visible, and while we may not all agree as to the architectural excellence of the structures along the course of Pennsylvania Avenue, we must admit that the tendency is toward improvement. There should be, however, strict legislation as to the height and cornice lines, the style and color of all buildings along it.

It is a pity that the view of the Executive Mansion from Pennsylvania Avenue is forever cut off. The first plan must have contemplated for the Executive Building a single structure or a group whose centre was to be a dome complementary to that of the Capitol. In the reconstruction of the White House this idea may yet be realized, for the public and governmental uses of the Executive Mansion are fast outstripping the private or residential needs of the President. In fact, it might be wiser to divorce the two entirely, and, as has been suggested, move the residence of the President and his family to some other and less public point.

While the attitude to be assumed by the architects of the country with respect to the Capitol and to Pennsylvania Avenue as parts of L'Enfant's scheme is one of conservative suggestion tending to render any further injury impossible, the attitude toward the third salient feature of the original plan should be definite and aggressive.

In the report of the Committee appointed "to provide for an Appropriate National Celebration of the Establishment of the Seat of Government in the District of Columbia," it was unanimously adopted in conjunction with the fixing of the date of the celebration for December, 1900, and certain exercises in the House and Senate, "that the enlargement of the Executive Mansion in harmony with its present style of architecture, and the construction of an avenue to be known as 'Centennial Avenue,' running from the Capitol grounds through the Mall to the Potomac River, be made features of the celebration." To show how entirely the third essential in the scheme of the city had been forgotten, it was mentioned in support of the report by one of the Committee that, "Strange to say, upon looking at the maps which the Committee had before it, it was seen that the original plan of Washington, as prepared by Major L'Enfant, provided for just such an avenue, public buildings to be erected on either side of the same." And this statement was made in the early part of the present year. Further evidence, if necessary, of the neglect of this principle through the century is found in the scattered and ill-organized placing of the various buildings along the Mall. The Medical and National Museums, the buildings of the Fish Commission, Smithsonian Institution, and the Bureau of Engraving, and the Agricultural Building are not coördinated with each other, nor are they parts of any general scheme. The Medical Museum probably offends the worst; the unsightly rear of the building, irregular in outline, bad in color, and disfigured by fire-escapes, being directed toward the Mall.

The Washington Monument was to have been placed at the intersection of the axes of the Capitol and the White House. It is about one hundred feet south of the axis of the Capitol and five hundred feet to the east of the axis of the White House.

Of the permanency of the above structures, it may be ventured to say that the Smithsonian and the Monument are the only ones which must be accepted. The others will probably outgrow their present quarters and require entirely new structures. The Smithsonian may or may not be reconstructed.

The magnificent possibilities of a boulevard, such as the proposed "Centennial Avenue," are almost without limit. The Avenue des Champs Elysées, which resembles it most nearly, could not be compared to it for dignity, accessories of landscape, formal parking and sculpture. The buildings which line the Ring Strassen in Vienna form one of the most impressive groups in the world. Here we should have the advantage of straight axes and longer vistas.

It is unique, also, to have the possibility of continuing such a boulevard by a monumental bridge, for it is to be remembered in this

¹A paper by Mr. Edgar V. Seeler, F. A. I. A., read before the Thirty-fourth Annual Convention of the American Institute of Architects.

connection that active steps have been taken toward the construction of a Memorial Bridge across the Potomac from the city to Arlington. Designs for a magnificent structure to cost some four million dollars have been submitted to the War Department, with recommendations looking to the adoption of one of them. The bridge as now contemplated is planned as a continuation of New York Avenue, but there is no reason why it should not be combined with the boulevard.

Given the conditions as above outlined, two solutions are proposed by men who have given the subject consideration.

One looks to fixing the line of the Avenue radially from the centre of the Capitol dome to the proposed starting point of the new Memorial Bridge at the foot of New York Avenue, near the old Observatory, and changing the direction of the bridge to conform to this line. This cuts the Mall obliquely, creates a number of irregular properties along its route, and locates certain new buildings on Fifteenth and Seventeenth Streets, to the south of the White House.

In the other solution the axis radiates from the same point and passes through the centre of the Washington Monument. The line of the bridge is also changed to conform. The latter scheme is very nearly, but not quite, at right angles to the Capitol, but its nearer approximation to being so renders it, from an architectural standpoint, worthier than the former. It has in it the essentials of a monumental plan which the former fails to suggest in the slightest degree. Groups of fountains, statuary, and monuments, rows of free-standing columns and formal gardens lead from the foot of the Capitol, by bridges, across the steam-railroad tracks and the streets where trolley-cars run, to a grand circular colonnade surrounding the Monument, ample in diameter, with triumphal arches at the cardinal entrances. The plaza thus formed is intended as a reviewing ground for parades and other spectacular events. Beyond the Monument the boulevard would be continued in much the same way as that to the east, with a secondary centre of interest near the starting of the bridge. The lines of B Street North and B Street South have been revised so as to be parallel to the axis of the scheme and the sites for Government buildings located on them outside the Mall.

It may be urged against this, as against any similar scheme, that it means a vast outlay of money and tedious negotiations for property, the surrender by corporations of rights already granted them, and that it would take years in construction. But these are difficulties which must be met in all great improvements. They might have been already met in large part if the sums spent on Government buildings had been persistently spent in this one channel. But in any event, the Government of the United States is strong enough and rich enough to carry through a project which promises to place the National Capital in the very first rank of the great cities of the world.

It is impossible, however, not to revert to the original intention of maintaining the axis of the Capitol and of maintaining it absolutely. The Washington Monument is off this axis; it is visibly so. Is it not better, therefore, to acknowledge it frankly? The boulevard at this point could still have a clear width of at least one hundred and fifty feet, and an architectural symmetry could be established with a centre of minor interest on the north side of the boulevard.

The trolley-roads which cross the Mall can all be depressed without difficulty, and the boulevard carried across them by bridges, as the ground now rises to what would be the line of the boulevard. But the Pennsylvania Railroad tracks are a more serious problem. The desirable thing to do would be to move the station to the south side of B Street South, thus doing away with the tracks altogether across the Mall. Failing that, and rather than continue the boulevard by an unsightly humped bridge at this point, the next best thing to do would be to depress the tracks as much as possible, have the actual starting-point of the boulevard to the west of the tracks, and arrange driveways by means of raised bridges to the north and south of the boulevard, where the vista from any point to the west would not be disfigured.

The solution of the problem should certainly look to the reacquisition of the four blocks from Third to Fifth Streets, between Pennsylvania and Missouri Avenues, and between Maine and Maryland Avenues. These are occupied at present by mean brick buildings, and should never have been sold by the Government.

The purchase of that great triangle of properties bounded by Sixth and Fifteenth Streets, and by Pennsylvania Avenue and B Street North, is a question upon which a single individual should scarcely dare to give advice. There can be no doubt of the desirability of rehabilitating that section of the city, and as part of a monumental plan it would be invaluable.

It would seem, however, that the Mall in its present extent is wide enough to admit of the placing of buildings on its outer edge without materially reducing its function as a park, and the buildings thus disposed would be as easy, if not easier, of access one to another as in the second scheme.

The change of direction and starting-point of the bridge may be objected to by the Government engineers, but it is defensible architecturally, from the tremendous gain in importance to itself and to the boulevard by a combination of the two, and the start from a slightly lower level saves an extravagant amount of filling which would have to be done to make of New York Avenue a proper approach. Moreover, a slight rise in the pavement of the bridge from the land to the monumental archway forming the piers of the

draw would add to the impressiveness of both bridge and boulevard. The most immediate hindrance to the proper carrying out of any such boulevard scheme is not the inability or the unwillingness of the Government to provide money for buildings and sites, but the lack of information on the part of those in whose power the selection of sites for new buildings lies.

As a very recent example, the proposed building for the Department of Justice, which is temporarily held in abeyance, is estimated to cost two and one-half millions, a sum large enough to pay for a handsome structure, but it is to be placed out of relation to any other building, built out to the property-line, left without any setting, and liable to injury by the erection of anything on the adjoining properties that their owners may see fit to put there.

Those in authority require advice, and advice of that special nature which can only be given by those whose training and experience specially qualify them for it.

No department of the Government should be permitted to choose a site or decide upon a building without the advice and consent of expert counsellors. Through the Tarsney Act this has been accomplished in part in the Treasury Department. But when the monumental reconstruction of the city of Washington is to be considered, or, rather, when the prodigal is to be welcomed home and reinstated in his father's house, the occasion is one which cries for the appointment of a special commission—a body of individual workers, with power and means to employ the best talent in whatsoever lines their judgment shall direct, whose decisions shall command the respect of the nation, and shall be authoritative by reason of their feasibility and their artistic and practical excellence.

In addition to the direct representatives of the Government and of the city of Washington, such a commission should be composed, pre-eminently and in a majority, of the most distinguished architects, sculptors and engineers of the country. While the work of such a commission could best be done by a few, and would necessarily devolve upon a few, the commission should be as thoroughly representative as it is possible to make it.

The project of this boulevard lays a responsibility upon your shoulders and upon mine, come from whatever State or Territory we may. By its results, Americans will be stamped as men of taste, intellect, and culture, or as men who neither know nor care.

On the one hand, there is the making of the greatest monumental city in the world; on the other, there is the sacrifice of our birthright, the undoing of all that Washington, Jefferson, and Madison made possible, and the sealing forever of the architectural future of the Nation's Capital. The American Institute of Architects should pledge itself to the formation of a commission, powerful, authoritative, and beyond question in its judgments, in whose hands the artistic development of the city of Washington shall be placed, and whose decisions shall be without recourse.

ON ENGLISH GARDENS.¹

AS with English architecture the chief interest centres about the simpler work, the homely quality of which directly appeals to one, so the smaller and less pretentious English gardens seem in every way most perfect. There one finds no question of the rival claims of formal and informal school, of Italian, French, or English styles, but merely a natural common-sense adaptation of means to an end—a direct meeting of needs. In the great Italian and French gardens one feels the presence of a complete and studied scheme, and also of a conscious effort for effect. As exponents of the art and science of landscape-gardening, French and Italian examples are distinctly superior to the English; but for mere lovable beauty, fitting the needs of true country lovers, nothing can touch the English garden.

In the many periods of English gardening the influence of foreign styles and fashions has been felt, and has, to a certain extent, modified the planning and planting of grounds, but except in those places which have attempted grandeur one finds no purely scholastic work. The earliest work of which we have any perfect knowledge is that which was influenced by the Italian Renaissance. When Jones and Wren introduced the balance of Classic planning and the detail of Classic work, the gardens developed on similar lines. This period gave us the formal terrace, the walled gardens, the bowling-greens, clipped hedges, and the intelligent use of architectural accessories which mark the majority of the good English gardens. The general character of this work remained practically unchanged for a couple of centuries. With the beginning of this century, when taste in architecture and art was distinctly declining towards its final depth in the thirties, there came, first, a carelessness for the beauty of the old gardens which resulted in neglect, and then the period when, under the guidance of Brown, the imitation of nature and the making of pictures was the aim everywhere. This resulted not only in the destruction of many fine gardens, but in a general perversion of taste which it has taken many years to counteract.

The reaction from Brown's hopeless endeavor to imitate nature and to avoid everything pertaining to formality was very quick, and yet it is indicative of the English temper that it was not a violent swing of the pendulum to the other extreme. Kemp, writing between fifty and sixty, laid down rules, or rather suggested principles, which seem thoroughly sound and sensible. He urged the necessity

¹ A paper by R. Clipston Sturgis, F. A. I. A., read before the Thirty-fourth Annual Convention of the A. I. A.

for formal treatment in and about the house, and yet valued the freer and more natural possibilities which were unaffected by the immediate proximity of architecture. He deprecated the imitation of nature, and made a strong plea for retaining "art," by which he meant anything of a formal or studied nature. Simplicity, convenience, seclusion, are among his chief aims, and it is characteristic of the Englishman that, in enumerating the things which require consideration when planning the grounds, he names economy first. By this he would include not merely making the plan on such a scale that the owner can afford to lay it out, but considering also the cost of maintenance, and, still further, arranging the place so that the maintenance can be done with economy. This is a matter of great importance, and to its just consideration is due to a large extent the number and beauty of the English gardens. As a rule work is not laid out or undertaken which cannot be easily executed and maintained without taxing the resources of the owner.

With the English, gardening is so old an art that the cost of maintaining can be as readily estimated beforehand as can the cost of execution. Tradition, habit, social custom, have all combined to fix the lines on which work shall be conducted, and thus to make a standard of "form," used in the athletic sense, for the maintenance of the service of the house, the stable, and the grounds. If a man can afford but three servants his house is arranged on the basis of what three servants can do thoroughly well, and he will not have a larger house unless he can afford to have his service adequate. His stable will be regulated with equal care. He will have only such horses and carriages as can be kept in first-rate condition. Applying these same principles to the garden, collecting and making use of the cumulative experience of many generations of gardeners, he lays out his grounds with clear foresight as to its maintenance. Nothing is to be slovenly, nothing neglected. The results amply justify this course. The thoroughness of the English garden is the very root of its charm. The garden, whether large or small, shows care in every part, and not only care, but generally the loving care of the man who is really fond of his garden as a whole and of his plants individually. One cannot go through a garden with the owner or his gardener without feeling that to them the garden is as intimate as the house.

The whole attitude of mind of the Englishman is the desire to satisfy a need rather than to supply a luxury, and, therefore, this is generally found to be the chief motive in the laying-out of his garden. The great majority of English gardens have developed in direct response to practical needs, and if one studies these needs, and sees how they have been met, the history of nine-tenths of the English gardens is given.

The needs of the house are approaches and courts, or yards. The main approach is for the convenience of the family and their guests; it is not considered as a portion of the grounds especially desirable as an outlook. The chief living-rooms are where aspect and outlook are most favorable, so that the entrance-hall is naturally given the less desirable aspect. On this account, if for no other, the immediate approach to the house is not so capable as other places of being made liveable. Considerations of utility are, therefore, paramount. If it is a carriage-entrance, a short drive and a convenient turn are things sought. This has resulted in a number of types of which the most familiar are the simple in and out on different lines, and the straight drive finishing in a circle. Both these lend themselves readily to a formal treatment, and trees planted regularly, hedges, or walls give an element of style to the simplest of plans. The kitchen approach is even more utilitarian, the chief object being to keep it separate from the master's approach and screened from view. The most direct approach, the simplest of turns, privacy obtained by walls, fences, hedges; or, in the case of basement offices, by sinking the road below the general grade: these are essentials.

The formal planning of the early seventeenth century which had developed the H and E plans suggested enclosing, partially or wholly, the two approaches. It reproduced in more regular form the early forecourt and the base-court. The former name is still generally in use, the latter is more generally referred to as kitchen-court. The forecourt became at once an interesting feature of the plan, but never lost its true status. It was always the approach and never a place to idle or take pleasure in. Its beauties are such as can be readily apprehended at a glance. One finds none of those hidden nooks and unsuspected beauties which are incidental to the garden. A simple piece of greensward, a few trees, possibly statuary or vases such as will tell at a comparative distance and can be comprehended in a glance, such are the general features of forecourts. Sometimes, but rarely, one finds paved forecourts, but this is unusual, and the English are more apt to reduce their pavement or gravel to the smallest dimensions rather than increase it unnecessarily.

The kitchen-court is entirely for the use of tradespeople, and for the accommodation of kitchen service. It may sometimes serve as a drying-yard, though this is generally separate. It is, therefore, paved or gravelled throughout, to be dry under foot, and to allow the free handling of wagons. This is the noisy and disagreeable part of the establishment, and it is considered essential that it should be removed as far as possible from the main house, and as much shut off. Service is brought to much greater perfection in England, so that distances which to a housekeeper here would seem impossible are deliberately planned for, that offices and service-yards may be out of sight, smell, and hearing. Generally the kitchen-court is shut off by part of the house itself, or, if this is not possible, it is screened by high walls. The drying-ground is generally more open and sunny,

and not infrequently clothes are dried on the ground instead of hung on lines, so that the drying-ground may be a pleasant piece of turf, not unsightly even when covered with the white linen. Thus in meeting the needs of approaches to the house the two courts are developed.

Before taking up in detail the needs which decide the character of the grounds more removed from the house, it will be well to point out that the English invariably carry into their grounds the same desire for privacy and separation which is noticeable in the house. One has already remarked the careful separation of the kitchen and offices from the master's quarters; one will find similar separation between other parts of the household and between individual rooms. The nurseries are apart, the master's own rooms are apart, the guest rooms are apart, and, finally, except in suites of rooms used only for entertainment, the individual rooms are well divided from each other. This same principle underlies the garden plan. The place is considered as an out-door house. The grounds are divided up according to their use, and each portion has its well-established boundaries.

In a place of even an acre or two the first consideration is what can be got from the land in the way of actual return, and the space for a kitchen-garden is almost the first consideration. The demands of pleasure may march side by side with it, but it is very rare to find a man laying out his place with no thought of anything but beauty and pleasure. One may therefore be justified in considering the kitchen-garden as the most prominent necessity after the approaches. This garden must be near the house and near the kitchen and the gardener's house, and yet not too evident. It is never, however, treated as an unsightly part of the establishment, and indeed there are many kitchen-gardens which are quite delightful spots in which to ramble. A garden at Wells has dwarf espalier apples bordering its paths, beautiful fruit trees on its fine old walls, standard roses marking the lines of some of its paths, and the flowers and fruit helped rather than hurt by the peas and beans, the splendid blue-green of the cabbage tribe, and the rich brown of the turned-over soil. As the kitchen-garden is to be an apartment by itself, as it were, it is bounded, and at the same time protected, by walls. Large gardens would be subdivided, and one might find separate gardens for herbs, for small fruits, for roots and for the more quick growing crops such as beans and peas. The necessary water is made use of as an interesting feature. Water which has lain in the sun is better than cold well-water or water just from the town mains, so one generally finds a good-sized basin making an interesting pool in the garden. A proper place for tools creates a garden-house, frequently quite a delightful feature, and the greenhouse, hot-beds, cold frames, bins for leaves, and all such accessories of garden-work are made to lend interest to the kitchen-garden and give it the air of order which is characteristic of all English work. The desire to make the most of every scrap of ground induces the utmost care in getting all that is possible out of smallest compass. The walls, as well as the ground, must yield their increase, and all must be in compact form. This has produced the many forms of dwarf trees which add interest to the garden, and the careful rotation of crops, and following of crops in the same season which increase the appearance of care and thoroughness.

Flowers are so interwoven with the kitchen-garden, part of which is generally occupied by the varieties which are more useful for cutting than for their beauty out-of-doors, as to lead one to the consideration of the flower-garden as the next need to be satisfied. The flowers one might divide under three heads: roses, perennials, annuals. This is, of course, a very primitive division, but those three are represented in every English garden; and the three, as befits their different characteristics, are generally separated, and one has the rose-garden, the perennial bed, or borders, and the parterre of annuals. Roses are the special pride of the English gardener, and with climbers, standard and low-budded roses, and all the varieties of briars, almost anything can be done with the rose-garden. Like other parts of the place, it is enclosed with walls or hedge. The perennials being, like the roses, permanent occupiers of the ground, are placed in deep rich beds, and for convenience, both of tending and picking, are frequently in long narrow borders against the walls. This gives the tall-growing plants the support and protection of the wall, and leaves room for the various smaller varieties in the edge. Such a long border, with perhaps a hedged walk or a bowling-green running the length of it, is a familiar and most charming feature. The annuals are in small beds by themselves, the beds often bordered with dwarf box, so that the regular outline of the beds may be pleasing even when the beds themselves are empty. To reach the gardens and to enjoy them when there, one finds pleasant walks, some shady, perhaps completely embowered, others sunny, for use on cold days; also seats and garden-houses.

In laying out all this there is generally a double aim, first, to give, by occasional long vistas, a sense of size, and second, by screened enclosures and half-concealed exits, a sense of privacy, and a stimulus to the imagination for what lies beyond. In the most interesting gardens the element of the unexpected is always present, and the fact that it cannot be a surprise to the owner does not really detract from its value; for to every visitor it is a source of delight, new pleasures still unfolding until the last surprise of the round is in finding one's self back again at the starting-place.

Architectural laws demand a certain amount of level space immediately about the house, and various spots require level ground farther afield. The bowling-green, croquet-ground and lawn-tennis

courts have formed at one time or another necessary parts in the layout of even a small place. These flat pieces of the splendid turf which is so common in England are among the most beautiful features of the English garden. Here, again, the love for retirement suggests enclosing walls or hedges, so that the court, or the green, is really a great out-of-door room, with garden-seats and benches about, or perhaps, in the more stately ones, busts on plinths, in Italian fashion, set against the sombre green of the yew hedge. Again, one sees that this feature is produced in direct response to a need.

Level ground cannot always be obtained naturally, and the need of it has developed the terraces which abound in the hilly districts. These may be the mere formal treatment of the platform on which the house securely rests, or they may form the various divisions of the hillside garden; or, again, surrounding a sunken garden, they may give the pleasant walk, and that most delightful of all views which one gets of a small garden—the view looking down. All of the features hitherto considered may be worked out on a ground-work of terraces, and these possibilities as well as their charms are endless.

Sedding well said that however much we were refined and cultivated there was always an underling savagery which at times demanded satisfaction. One must tire of the sure mark of man's hand and long for nature unrestrained—the wide seaboard and the rude forest. So one finds in almost every English place of any size some wilderness, some copse, or coombe, which shall be left free and wild as, at the least, a reminder of nature quite free. But the transition from the cultivated aspect of nature to its wilder form must be gradual; one does not want to open the garden gate in the wall and be in the forest. Between the two one finds the pasture lands, rolling, sheep-cropped fields bordered, not with the masonry wall or the clipped hedge, but with the wild hedgerow, thick with thorn and holly and punctuated with the upstanding elms. From the pastures to the copse and the woodland the transition is easy.

Thus, the English garden has its forecourt and base-court; its gardens for fruit, vegetables and flowers; its places for sport and recreation, and, to guard and protect all these from searching winds and prying eyes, the boundaries, the divisions, the walls and the hedges. The walls, especially those near the house, are always in close touch with the house itself—stone with the stone house, brick with the brick one, and, in their ornament, balustrades, gateways, posts, coping and finials, echoing the character of the house. As one goes farther from the house, the walls are less architectural and more purely utilitarian; the boundary-wall of the place, or the north or east wall of the garden may be ten or twelve feet high, for it is to serve as a real protection; others may be but two or three feet high, mere boundaries to mark a line. The hedge is, perhaps, the commonest bound of all, and this varies from the rough pasture hedgerow, to the clipped yew, or holly, or box. The fancy clipping of hedges and individual trees was an importation from Holland, and at one time was very popular. There are many examples of topiary work in the older gardens, but to-day clipped work is rather more sober and, on the whole, more in keeping with the common-sense beauty of the English garden.

Shrubs are rarely seen as individual show-plants, but are generally massed and placed with some special end in view beyond and apart from their mere beauty. They will serve to screen the offices or the kitchen-yard or to make a wind-break for more delicate things growing on the borders of the lawn. Trees also are used very cautiously as individual specimens. Occasionally a great plane-tree or an ilex stands in lonely grandeur at the edge of the lawn, but as a rule the trees are planted in groups to serve definite purposes. Sometimes to shut out an undesirable view, sometimes to form a vista towards a pleasant scene. Again, a group of elms at the end of the place may simply serve as a background—a great drop-scene which finishes the view and leaves one in doubt as to how much more there may be beyond. Many a small place of two or three acres gives an impression at once of seclusion and of size, because the great trees prevent one's seeing what lies beyond. The larger places will, of course, have their copse and woodland, but even here the mark of axe shows that thoroughness and care, and that eye to profit which pervades everything; for dead wood is cleared out, the spindling trees are felled, the brushwood is cut and tied in faggots; everywhere there are the signs of an old industry, a well-worked country, where everything must be turned to account.

When one wanders through English gardens with all their delight one cannot but feel convinced that common-sense and thrift are the roots on which the beauty has grown and thriven.

CODE FOR THE CONDUCT OF COMPETITIONS APPROVED BY THE THIRTY-FOURTH CONVENTION, A. I. A.

A COMPETITION as a means for the selection of an architect may properly assume one of the following forms:—

- (A) Limited to a certain number of architects, each of whom is invited to take part.
- (B) Open to all who desire to enter or to all of a certain class.
- (C) Mixed, certain architects being invited, but others being at liberty to take part.

PAYMENT OF COMPETITORS.

In all competitions the first prize should be the award of the com-

mission to design the building and superintend its construction, and the programme should definitely state that the successful competitor will be so retained, and that he will be paid for his services at the rates established by the American Institute of Architects.

In certain cases, however, this procedure may not be legal, then the course to be pursued as to the successful competitor should be clearly stated.

To provide for the contingency of delay or of the discontinuance of the work, the programme should provide for a substantial payment to the successful competitor on the award of the competition, such payment to be regarded as on account of the final commissions.

Payments to unsuccessful competitors should be as follows:—

In Limited Competitions each should be paid a fixed amount.

In Open Competitions prizes fixed in number and amount should be provided.

In Mixed Competitions the two classes of competitors should be paid in the manner above described.

THE PROFESSIONAL ADVISER AND THE JURY.

It is highly desirable, in the interests of both owner and competitors, that a professional adviser should assist in the preparation of the programme and that the professional adviser or a competent jury, consisting at least in part of experts, should assist in making the awards.

The professional adviser or jury may have full power to make the award, or they may select a number of designs and, placing them in the order of merit, leave the final choice to the owner or his representatives.

Where possible, the adviser or the jury should make a positive report, and in favor of one design, and recommend the employment of its author as architect for the building.

THE PROGRAMME.

The programme should be so drawn as to form a contract. It should

(a) Name the owner of the structure forming the subject of the competition, and state whether the owner institutes the competition personally or through representatives. If the latter, name the representatives, state how their authority is derived, and define its scope.

(b) State the kind of competition to be instituted, and, in limited competitions, name the competitors; or, in open competitions, if the competition is limited geographically or otherwise, state the limits.

(c) Fix a definite time and place for the receipt of the designs. The time should not be altered except with the unanimous consent of the competitors.

(d) State the limit of cost, if fixed; the desired accommodation, and the conditions of the site.

(e) Fix uniform requirements for the drawings, giving the number, the scale or scales, and the method of rendering. As the presentation of a general scheme (rather than of a design perfectly studied in all its parts) is the object of the drawings, they should be of the simplest kind capable of explaining such a scheme.

(f) State whether the submission of more than one design by a competitor is forbidden or permitted.

(g) State whether the competition is to be anonymously conducted or not, and, if anonymously, provide the method.

(h) Name the judge or jury or provide a method for their selection. Define his or their power.

(i) Provide for the placing out of competition of any drawing which violates the terms, or of any set of drawings whose authors have so disregarded the terms as to deserve the extreme penalty.

(j) Provide that during the competition there shall be no communication upon anything relating to the competition, except in writing, between any competitor on the one hand and the owner, or any representative of the owner, the professional adviser or any juror on the other, and that any information, whether in answer to such communication or not, shall be given in writing simultaneously to all competitors. Set a date after which no question will be answered.

(k) Fix the nature or amount of the awards or prizes.

(l) State, in case the professional adviser or jury is not empowered to make the award, in whom such power is vested.

(m) Fix the period of time within which the final decision will be rendered.

(n) Provide for sending the decision and a copy of the report of the professional adviser or of the jury to each competitor.

(o) Provide that no drawing shall be exhibited or made public until after the award, and not then without the consent of the author.

(p) Provide for the return of unsuccessful drawings to their respective authors within a reasonable time, and provide that nothing original as to this competition in such designs shall be used without compensation to the author of the design in which it appears.

AN URBAN INCIDENT IN CHICAGO.—A midwinter prairie-fire was a dangerous novelty witnessed in this city recently. It swept ten acres of grass, and was subdued by farmers, firemen and street-railway employes, who attacked it with brooms, blankets, rubber coats, and sod. The scene of the fire was the prairie between Leavitt Street and Western Avenue and Fortieth and Fifty-first Streets. The flames are supposed to have started from sparks from the engine of a passing train.—*Exchange.*



THE CINCINNATI CHAPTER OF THE A. I. A.

THE Cincinnati Chapter of the American Institute of Architects held its regular monthly meeting, December 18, 1900.

Mr. G. W. Drach, the President, was absent at the Washington Convention, but a letter from him was read describing some of the proceedings, and also stating that Mr. James W. McLaughlin had been elected as a director of the American Institute of Architects.

The drawings of the first competition of the year were exhibited. The problem was a school-house in a thrifty suburban town. Although there were but four entries, the work was of the most satisfactory character, and the comments of the Jury led to an interesting discussion. Mr. Ludwig Eid gave a most instructive talk on building materials employed in the construction of buildings on the Continent.

GEORGE M. ANDERSON, Secretary.



[Contributors of drawings are requested to send also plans and a full and adequate description of the buildings, including a statement of cost.]

BOILER-HOUSE, ISOLATION-WARD AND LAUNDRY-BUILDING: U. S. MARINE-HOSPITAL, CHICAGO, ILL. MR. JAMES KNOX TAYLOR, SUPERVISING ARCHITECT, WASHINGTON, D. C.

UNITED STATES POST-OFFICE, JOLIET, ILL. MR. JAMES KNOX TAYLOR, SUPERVISING ARCHITECT, WASHINGTON, D. C.

HOUSE OF EDWARD KNEELAND, ESQ., PITTSBURGH, PA. MR. C. M. BARTBERGER, ARCHITECT, PITTSBURGH, PA.

SUBURBAN HOUSES. MR. J. A. SCHWEINFURTH, ARCHITECT, BOSTON, MASS.

[The following named illustrations may be found by reference to our advertising pages.]

THE NEW YORK "BOX-STOOP,"—XIX: NO. 137 WEST 86TH ST., NEW YORK, N. Y.

SCHOOL-HOUSE, GIESING, NEAR MUNICH, BAVARIA. PROF. KARL HOCHEDER, ARCHITECT.

THIS plate is copied from *Architektonische Rundschau*.

[Additional Illustrations in the International Edition.]

CENTRAL PAVILION: PUBLIC LIBRARY, MILWAUKEE, WIS. MESSRS. FERRY & CLAS, ARCHITECTS, MILWAUKEE, WIS.

A CORNER OF THE REFERENCE-ROOM IN THE SAME LIBRARY.

HOUSE OF THE PAINTER LENBACH, MUNICH, BAVARIA. HERR GABRIEL SEIDL, ARCHITECT.

A STREET IN SIENA. DRAWN BY MR. WALTER M. CAMPBELL.

INGESTRE HALL, STAFFORDSHIRE, ENG.

IT would be a pleasure to dwell upon the history and associations of beautiful Ingestre Hall, to recall its crowd of memories, and describe the charm of its architecture; but the writer must forbear, and direct attention chiefly to its gardens. The Hall will speak for itself. It belongs to the day when fortalice and tower no longer were needed for the safeguard of the lord, and when the public peace enabled men to live, as it were, more in the open air. The many-windowed wall, the noble bays, the rich and splendid adornments, and the lavish charms of the house, all bespeak the time when men loved and could enjoy the light, and when the new spirit of the later age was abroad through the land. England has very many splendid mansions of the Tudor and Jacobean age, but Ingestre, by reason of its noble proportions and remarkably beautiful features, may vie with the best. The pictures are ample evidence of the fact. Such a house must needs have a garden to the liking of its lord, and there is record that the garden at Ingestre is one upon which long labor and thought have been bestowed.

The Earl of Shrewsbury has another house of greater modern fame — Alton Towers — but many will like Ingestre more. It offers much of interest to the lover of English gardens, especially in the Irish yews and terrace-walk, though the grounds of Alton Towers, at least in these days, are more magnificent. It is not magnificence, however, that we are looking for. We seek such a character of surroundings as befits a house of the age. Something of formality we should expect to discover, and we are not surprised to find geometrical arrangements and clipped shrubs in such a place. The Ingestre flower-garden proper is comparatively small, and of such formal character as the illustration shows. The design is in no way remarkable. This garden intervenes between the house and the park.

On the east side lies a notable shrubbery with many conifers, and near by stand the splendid Irish yews, which have been written about many a time. They are probably the finest specimens of this charming tree or shrub, whichever one likes to call it, in the British Isles, or, at all events, are rivalled by very few. The Ingestre trees are four in number, each being about 40 feet in height, and as much round, and a fine arch has been formed between them. Their size, symmetry, and color are truly remarkable, and they enable one to realize the real beauty of tint revealed by the Irish yew.

Another delightful place at Ingestre is the terrace-walk, which is radiant with flowers delightfully grouped with shrubs. The walk runs the length of the vegetable-garden, and is over — some say much over — 300 feet in extent. It is laid out in stages, and the end of each stage is marked by clipped yews. A tall specimen forms a kind of support for a quaint arch, which gives a delightful old-world aspect to the place. Although these glorious trees are, we believe, of great age, they yet preserve a remarkably vigorous growth, and the walk they dignify is made pleasant by the presence of many hardy flowers, which are charming against the background of shrubs. If Ingestre possessed only this most interesting walk it would deserve to be famous.

The visitor to the Hall will not fail to visit the church.

Ingestre has features of its own. The beauty of its architecture, the interest of its history, the picturesque character given to its stables and other surroundings, with the delightful gardens so imperfectly described but well illustrated here, together constitute its claims upon our interest and regard.—*Country Life*.

INGESTRE HALL, ENG.: FRONT VIEW AND GARDEN, WITH FOUNTAINS.

INGESTRE HALL, ENG.: THE ENTRANCE AND THE STABLES.

INGESTRE HALL, ENG.: THE STRAIGHT WALK.

THIS and the preceding illustrations are copied from *Country Life*.



[The editors cannot pay attention to demands of correspondents who forget to give their names and addresses as guaranty of good faith; nor do they hold themselves responsible for opinions expressed by their correspondents.]

THE WORKERS' CO-OPERATIVE ASSOCIATION.

December 19, 1900.

TO THE EDITORS OF THE AMERICAN ARCHITECT:—

Dear Sirs, — Permit me to correct a little misconception on your part as to the aims and scope of the Workers Coöperative Association which you review in your interesting and suggestive editorial of the 15th. You will see by referring to pages 14 and 15 of the enclosed brochure descriptive of the Association that its benefits are not to be confined to any class of workers, but are offered to all. Recognizing the strength coöperation gives to all who are shrewd enough to prize it, the Association invites all workers to follow the example of their most successful brothers — those who have organized the great trusts and syndicates — by forming organizations of their own everywhere wherever they do not now exist, and strengthening those already formed. To this end it says, "Any of the unemployed who do not already belong to any union or organization shall be aided in joining it by being permitted to work out their membership fees . . . and the unions will ultimately receive in their ranks all the good workers in the country."

The world is now beginning to see the force of the old saying of the philosophers that the perfect health of each depends upon the common welfare of all, and that, just as in the animal organism no single cell can be diseased without to some extent affecting the health of every other cell, so in the social organism, no individual member can suffer without more or less injury to all the rest.

Therefore our Association sees the necessity of uniting all workers in a common bond for the welfare and protection of all, and since the Trades Unions are well advanced along these lines, coöperation with them presents the best promise for still further progress.

To explain in a friendly spirit the errors of individual Trades Unions or of their members, with a view to correcting and improving

them, is most useful, but these mistakes must not be taken as the essential characteristics of Trades Unionism, but rather as the results of our, as yet, poorly organized and very wasteful industrial methods under which a large and shifting body of unemployed becomes an inevitable feature as contracts are won and lost in the competitive market. It is to this army of the unemployed that is due the unwise actions of the unionists which you criticize, and not to the great principle of coöperation and mutual protection which is the essential and important feature of Trades Unionism. The only method the workers have so far discovered for mitigating the hardships occasioned by this army of the unemployed has been to shorten the hours of labor and to try to extend the benefits of a scanty supply of work as far as possible.

Now our Association meets this very problem of the unemployed in a much more scientific manner, and in proportion to its success will this army of the unemployed disappear, and with it the unwise practices of which it is the cause.

It would be no more unfair to ascribe to Christianity the cruelty of the Inquisition, or to Democracy the inhumanity of the sweat-shop, than to charge against Trades Unionism the evils due to ignorance and industrial barbarism.

The Trades Unions do not "lower independence of character" and "thinking capacity." It requires and cultivates, on the contrary, unusual independence, courage and intelligence to dare to take action for the collective welfare against immediate personal interest and under the pressure, direct or indirect, of a powerful employer's disapproval. A good and public-spirited worker thrown out of employment for such a cause ought to be able to find somewhere in a true Democracy an asylum among his friends, and our coöperative association provides such an asylum for honest and independent workers.

The "Trades Unions help to consolidate the political power of the working-men by reason of their organizing efforts, and of the experience in coöperation, self-restraint and forbearance" they inculcate; and upon this experience on the part of the great masses of the people hangs the safety of a Republic.

Trades Unions have become necessary in proportion to the growth of the great combinations of capital, to enable the workers to achieve desirable objects unattainable by a single individual.

Employers can rarely, under the present industrial conditions, raise wages voluntarily, or give more than they are actually compelled to, and the only means left to obtain recognition of justifiable claims often lies in the united power of the Trades Unions. Man, as a unit, is incapable of maintaining his dignity under the pressure of an immeasurably superior power, and he is thus compelled to accept terms repugnant to his moral nature and better interests and development. Isolation to him is defeat. Union is his only hope, and those workers who derive benefit from the Unions should therefore share in their sacrifices. The present industrial conditions, too, render it generally impossible for an employer to provide for the support of laborers in sickness and old age, and not the least of the benefits of the Trades Unions lies in the support they give to their members under these circumstances. These, and many other good offices of the Trades Unions I need not call to your attention. But their most difficult problem is that of the temporary unemployment among their able-bodied members.

"Ground lying fallow increases in vitality," but the idleness of the workman "swallows up the long savings of years of provident and industrious habits, withdraws his children from school, breaks up his humble home at a ruinous sacrifice, engenders hatred towards his employer, breeds discontent, and annihilates faith, sympathy, and that reciprocity of feeling which should exist in the relationship between employer and employed."

Our Association here comes to the aid of the Trade Union and furnishes employment where it is most needed, increasing by so much the purchasing power of the people. Thus our home-market will be increased in proportion to its success, and were it able to so extend its sphere of action as to reach all of the unemployed in the country, every wheel in every factory throughout our land would hum with true prosperity, and "imperialism" and "criminal aggression" would be to us unknown terms.

In regard to what you say as to the ease with which capital could be raised among the working-men for investment in a coöperative business enterprise, I think any business-man will at once agree, as we do, that you are right. But our Association is based on the principle that the workers alone should receive the full value their industry has created, and that none of the profit should go to capital beyond what is required to pay the lowest rate of interest the money-market demands.

This principle of justice we look upon as a future essential to the success and highest aims of our organization, and it renders necessary the use of labor-checks in the manner and for the reasons explained in our pamphlet.

Without this principle, the pitfalls sure to be laid for us by sharpers and scoundrels would certainly occasion a most formidable peril, as you rightly assert, and they have in the past occasioned the wreck of many coöperative enterprises. But working under the guidance of this principle, we are safe, because no attractions whatever are offered to the sharks and speculators, to whom honest labor by brain or brawn presents no allurements, and it is for labor alone that all our prizes are offered.

J. PICKERING PUTNAM.

NOTES AND CLIPPINGS

ELECTRIFYING SMOKE.—Smoke, in the form of a black fog, is indeed not merely an intolerable nuisance, but a waste, since it comes of unburned carbon. Although it cannot be denied that the mechanical-engineer has done much to effect the more thorough combustion of fuel, and that a multitude of "smoke-consuming" appliances are in the market, yet the fact remains that the only really effectual check against the pollution of the atmosphere is the use of smokeless coal. Electrical science, however, which seems in future designed to influence every branch of human activity, here steps in with a suggested remedy of quite a new character. The characteristic London fog is, as we most of us have reason to know, compounded chiefly of soot. A number of experiments apparently possessing no relation to the matter has led to the discovery that these particles will become electrified by induced electricity through an electric current of a high discharge rate, when they are attracted by each other, cling together, and are precipitated to the ground. It is suggested, therefore, that an electrical precipitating-plant should be placed on or near the mouth of every factory-chimney. Not only would the atmosphere be cleaner, but the manufacturer would have the satisfaction of recovering fuel that would otherwise be lost to him.—*Boston Transcript*.

CURIOUS CAUSES OF FIRES.—The following curious list of ways in which fire may be caused is abstracted from an English exchange by the *Railway and Engineering Review*: "In one instance, where some waste, which had been used with mineral-oil, had been thrown into a safe place, an insect crawled through it, and then, carrying some pieces of the oily fibre sticking to his body, made his way to the gas-jet. The cotton fibres which adhered to him caught fire, and he dropped blazing to the floor, setting the building on fire. In another case, a quantity of waste was supposed to have been ignited by an electric spark which passed from a belt running close to it to some conducting substance through the cotton, which it ignited on its way, as sparks of frictional electricity can very easily do. In two cases destructive fires are said to have been caused by water: in one of these a flood caused the water to rise high enough in a factory to reach a pile of iron-filings. The filings, on contact with the water, oxidized so rapidly that they became intensely heated, and then set fire to the neighboring woodwork, and the building was destroyed. In the other case, the water from the engines, during a fire, found its way into a shed containing quicklime, and the heat generated by the slacking of the lime set fire to the shed, and this to other buildings. Glass globes, which act as lenses, often cause fires, and it has been recently claimed, on high authority, so it is stated, that the convex glasses used in pavement-lights are dangerous, and should be abandoned in favor of lights with flat tops."

BUILDING ON THE WRONG LOT.—The case of *Butler vs. Kennis* and others came before Mr. Justice Phillimore and a common jury in the Queen's Bench Division on November 21, it being an action by the plaintiff to recover possession of two plots of land with houses upon them at West Ham, Essex. The facts were shortly these: In September, 1897, two plots of land marked on the estate-plan Nos. 172 and 173 were conveyed to the plaintiff. A person named Bethel owned the adjoining plots, Nos. 170 and 171, and in 1898 he entered into agreement with a builder named Murty to build two houses upon them. Bethel pointed out to Murty the plots to be built upon, but by some mistake the plots 172 and 173 were taken instead of plots 170 and 171. Murty built upon the plots 172 and 173 the houses, which cost about £200 each. While in the course of construction the defendant bought the houses for £500, paying £100 down, the balance of £400 being afterwards obtained from a building society on a mortgage of the houses. The plaintiff's case was, that the first time his attention was called to the fact that the houses were built on his land was in April last, and he then laid claim to their possession. The defendant offered to give the plaintiff his two plots and also £200 as compensation, but this was refused. The plaintiff was called, and gave evidence to the effect that he first knew that the houses had been built on his land in April last, and that was some time after the houses had been erected. On the other hand the defendant, Murty, the builder, and his foreman, were called to prove that the plaintiff had been on the premises while the houses were in course of erection and that he made no complaint. His Lordship, in summing up, said the defence that the plaintiff stood by and knowingly allowed the houses to be built on his land was good if proved, but the burden was upon the defendant to prove that, because it meant that the plaintiff had been guilty of fraud. If the verdict was for the plaintiff, he did not think the defendant would lose his money, as he would have a good right of action against Bethel, and the building society would have a right of action against their solicitors. In the result the jury found a verdict for the plaintiff, and judgment was given in accordance with the verdict, the question of costs being reserved. On November 28 the matter was again mentioned to Mr. Justice Phillimore. Mr. Macaskie, for the plaintiff, said he was glad to be able to tell his Lordship that the parties had been able to arrive at a settlement, and he (counsel) would take judgment by consent for the plaintiff on terms, and execution was not to issue if certain things were done by the defendants. The learned counsel stated that the settlement arrived at substantially amounted to this, viz, that the plaintiff took part of the value of the houses and the defendants the other part. He understood that his learned friend Mr. Lush, on behalf of the defendants, withdrew entirely the charge of fraud which had been made. Mr. Montague Lush said that that was so. Mr. Justice Phillimore, in assenting to the arrangement, said he was glad that the parties had been able to come to terms.—*The Builder*.

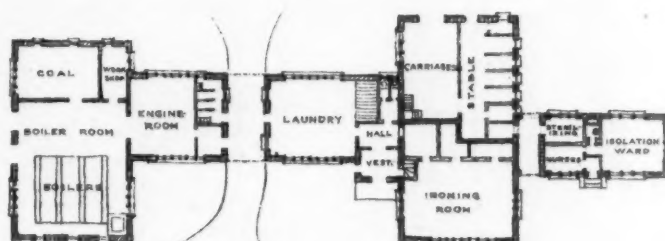
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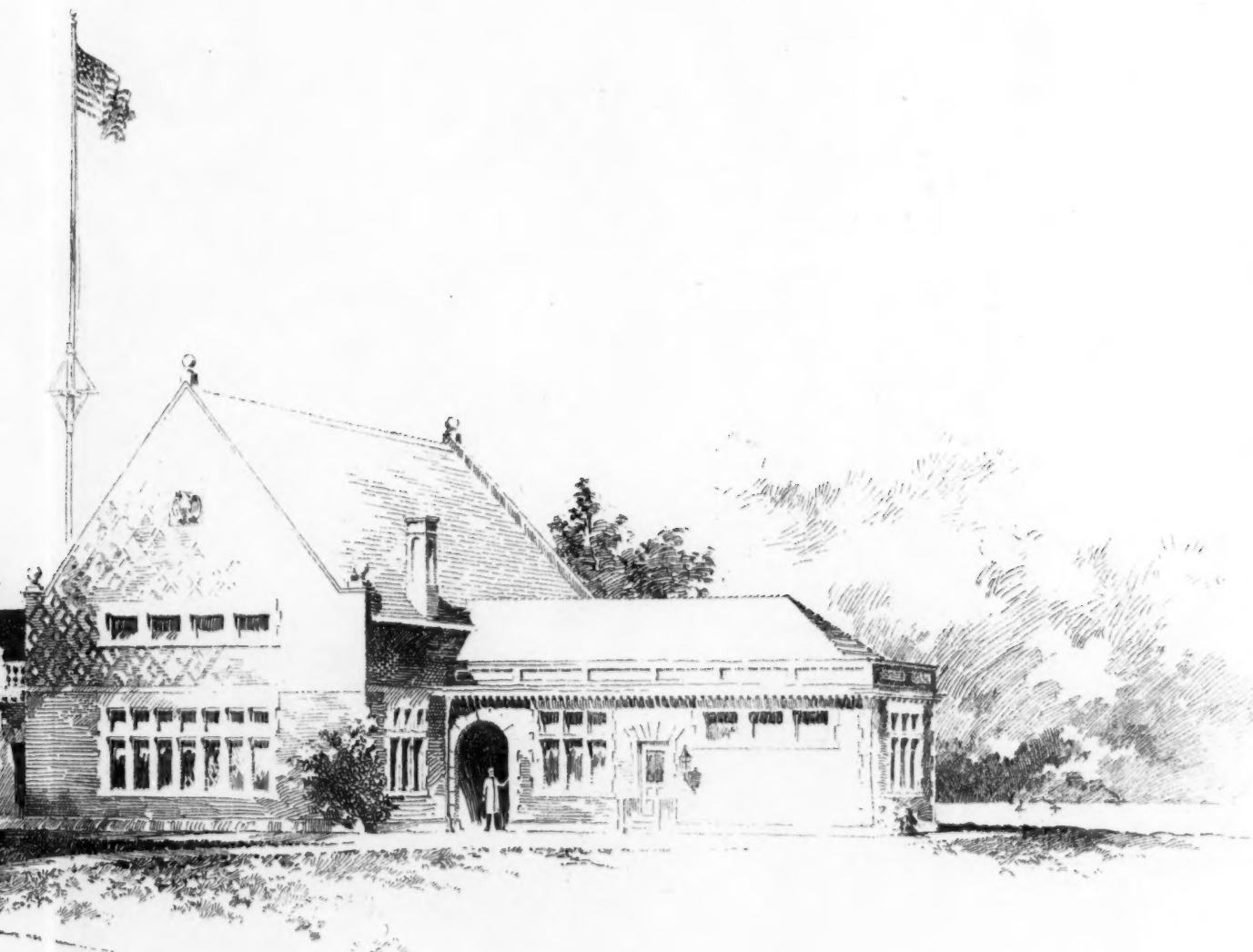
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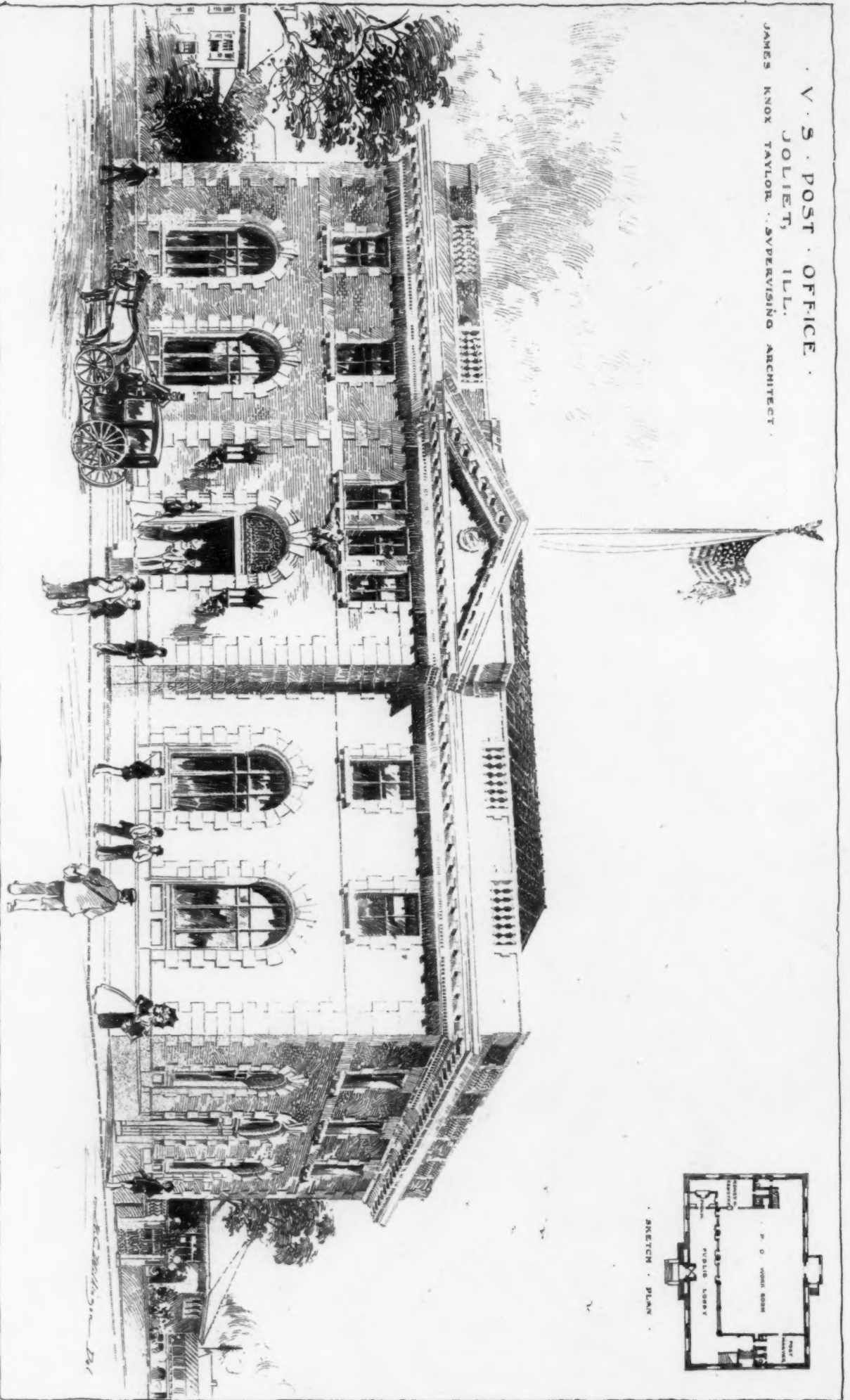
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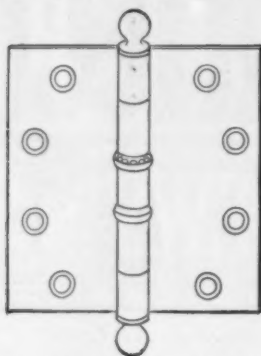
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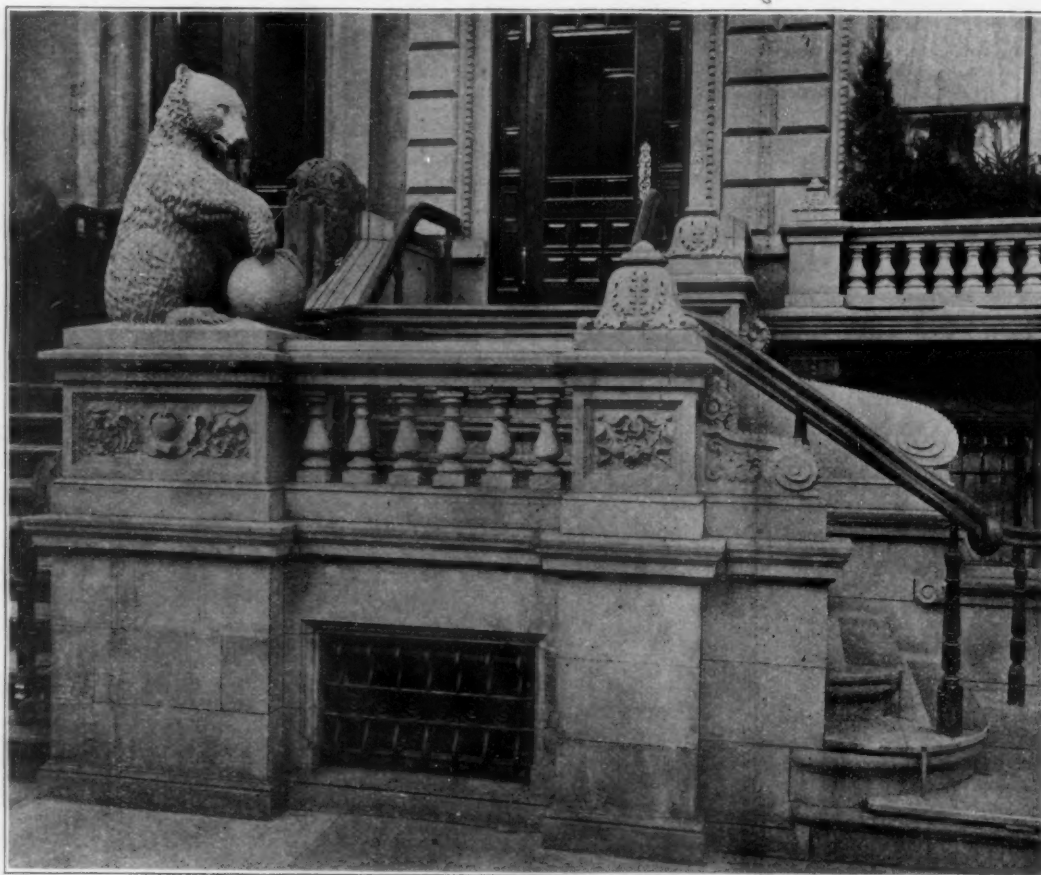
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VII

PUBLISHED NOV. 24

VII

PART SEVEN

"The...Georgian Period"

WHILE this Part was passing through the press, the acquisition of unexpected material induced us to increase materially the number of plates and the illustrations in the text-matter; consequently, it contains more matter than is usually included in an odd-numbered Part.

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Part VII contains 24 pages of text, illustrated by some 50 cuts, and 32 full-page plates. [Part V (odd-numbered) contained 16 pages of text and 22 full-page plates.]

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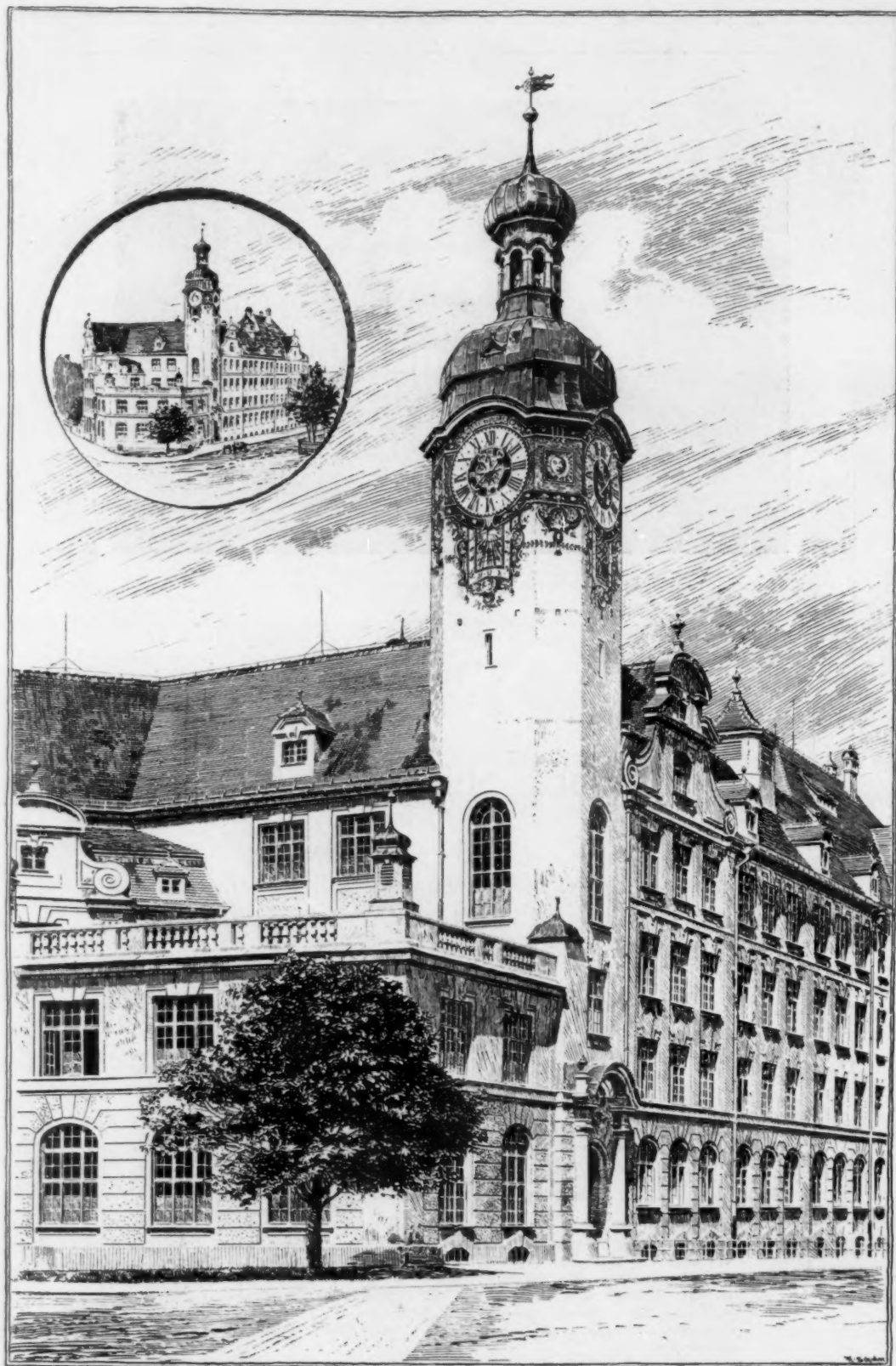
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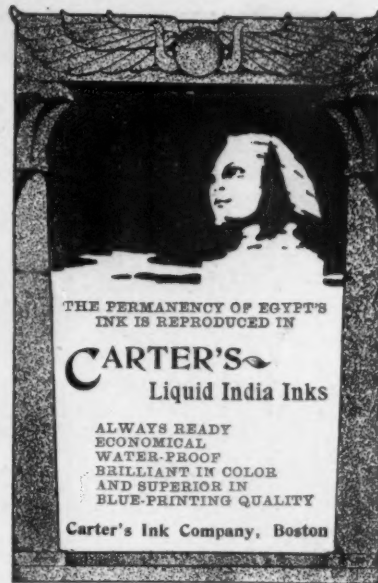
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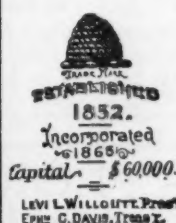
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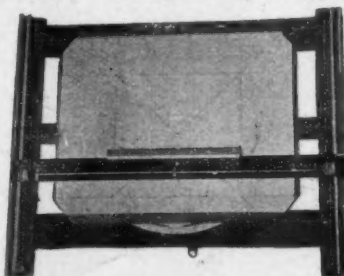
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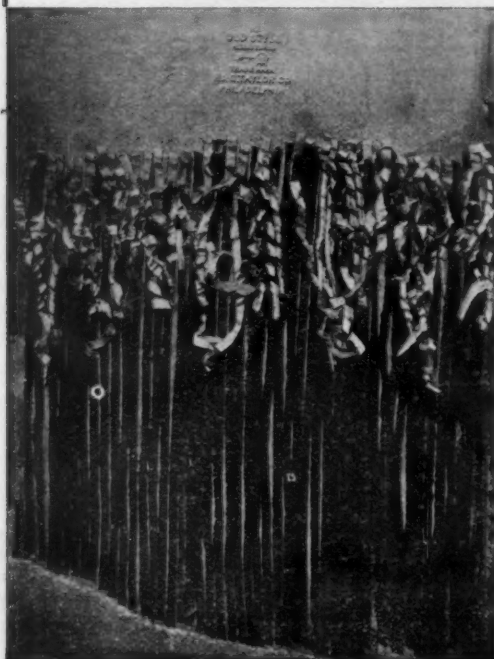
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Washington, D. C.—Representative Mercer, chairman of the Committee of Public Buildings, has prepared a bill that provides a scheme for housing the Supreme Court of the United States, the Department of Justice, the Court of Appeals of the District of Columbia, the Supreme Court of the District, the Court of Appeals, and the National Law Library in a great temple of Justice, to be situated east of the Capitol and to correspond in architectural design with the Library of Congress. The total cost, including the site, is to be not more than \$7,000,000.

Washington, Pa.—W. R. Thompson, of Pittsburgh, has offered to build a library to cost \$50,000 and to give \$10,000 to equip it for Washington and Jefferson College.

Weehawken, N. Y.—A grain elevator costing \$1,750,000 will be erected contiguous to the West Shore terminal. The elevator is part of the scheme for the development of the New York Central's property at this point.

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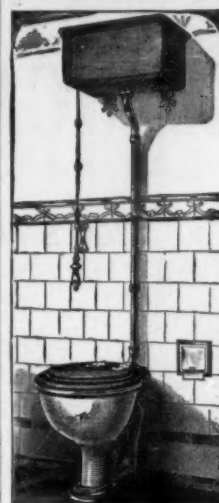
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repository, 52' x 65'; steam; \$7,000; o., John M. &
Herbert E. Kem; b., F. C. Alexander; a., P. A.
Ford.

COMPETITIONS.

COURT-HOUSE.

[At Merrill, Wis.]

The County Board on plans for the proposed court-
house invite the submission of sketches January 13,
1901. J. N. COTTER, chmn. 1306

LIBRARY.

[At Rock Island, Ill.]

Plans and specifications for a fireproof library
building are invited until January 10th by the
directors of the public library. J. W. WELCH, sec.
1306

CHURCH.

[At Jacksonville, Fla.]

Plans and specifications for a brick church will be
received by the trustees of the Presbyterian Church.
THOMAS V. PORTER, chmn. 1306

PROPOSALS.

COURT-HOUSE.

[At Valdosta, Ga.]

Sealed bids will be received until February 5th
for erecting the proposed county court-house. GO-
LUCKE & STEWART, architects, Atlanta. 1306

COURT-HOUSE.

[At Starkville, Miss.]

Sealed proposals will be received until February
5th for erecting a court-house. W. W. EDWARDS,
clk. bd. superv. 1306

CHURCH.

[At Selma, Ind.]

Sealed proposals will be received until January
15, 1901, for constructing a brick and stone church
for the First Baptist Society. WILSON & ED-
WARDS, architects, Columbia, S. C. 1306

WAREHOUSE.

[At Vincennes, Ind.]

Sealed proposals will be received until January
18th for erecting an office and warehouse building.
BLIERHAUS BROS. 1306

Treasury Department, Office Supervising Architect,
Washington, D. C., December 22, 1900. Sealed pro-
posals will be received at this office until 2 o'clock
P. M. on the 28th day of January, 1901, and then
opened, for the construction (except heating appar-
atus, electric wiring and conduits) of the U. S. Post-
office building at Carrollton, Ky., in accordance with
the drawings and specification, copies of which may be
had at this office or at the office of the Superintendent
at Carrollton, Ky., at the discretion of the Supervis-
ing Architect. JAMES KNOX TAYLOR, Super-
vising Architect. 1305

PROPOSALS.

COURT-HOUSE.

[At Kenosha, Wis.]

Sealed proposals are wanted January 2d for
remodelling court-house. C. A. DICKHAUF, archt.
1305

JAIL.

[At Camden, S. C.]

Sealed proposals will be received for erecting a
county jail until January 5th by the commissioners
of Kershaw County. 1305

SCHOOL-HOUSE.

[At Greenburgh, N. Y.]

Sealed proposals will be received until January
3d for constructing a school-building. WM. H.
JACKSON, clk. bd. educ. 1305

CHURCH.

[At Kennan, Wis.]

Sealed proposals will be received by the German
Lutheran Society until January 15th, for the
erection of a church. AUGUST DAUGS, sec. bldg.
com. 1306

POLICE STATION.

[At Cleveland, O.]

Sealed proposals will be received at the office of the
clerk of the board of control until January 2d for
the construction of the proposed 9th precinct police
station and patrol barn. M. F. BARRETT, director
of police. 1305

COURT-HOUSE.

[At Barron, Wis.]

Sealed bids will be received until January 12
for the erection of a court-house. JOS. P. KOHL,
chairman building committee. 1305

BUSINESS BLOCK.

[At Jordan, Minn.]

Sealed proposals will be received until January
1st for the erection of a brick business block. C. H.
CASEY. 1305

Treasury Department, Office of the Supervising
Architect, Washington, D. C., December 15, 1900
Sealed proposals will be received at this office until
2 o'clock P. M. on the 17th day of January, 1901, and
then opened, for the new vault, Register's Office,
Treasury Department Building, Washington, D. C.,
in accordance with drawing and specification, copies
of which may be had at this office at the discretion of
the Supervising Architect. JAMES KNOX TAY-
LOR, Supervising Architect. 1305

CEMENT.

[At Little Rock, Ark.]

Sealed proposals will be received at the U. S.
Engineer office until January 2d for furnishing
11,000 barrels American Portland Cement. ROBERT
MCGREGOR, capt. engineers. 1305

SCHOOL-HOUSE.

[At Cincinnati, O.]

Sealed bids will be received December 31 for a
school-building corner Ellen and Kilgour Sts.
JACOB E. CORMANY, chmn. com. on bldgs. 1305

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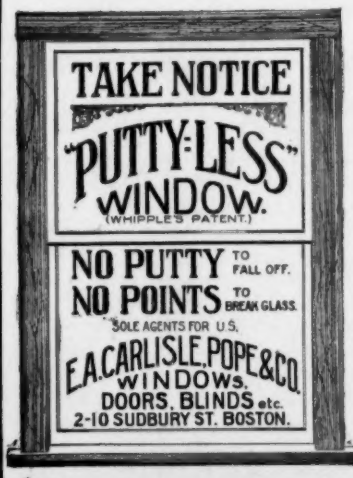
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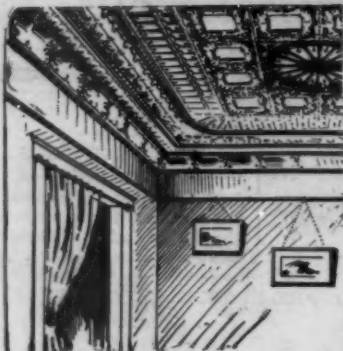
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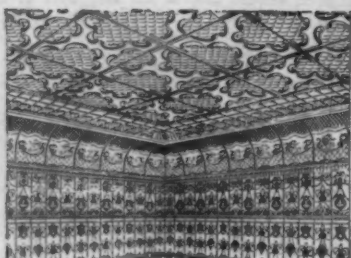
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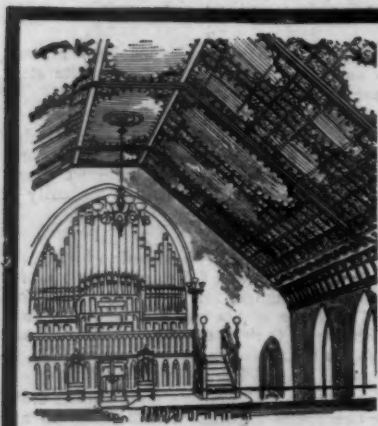
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